

**THE UNIVERSITY OF HULL**

*An Empirical Study of the Teaching and Learning of Speaking and Listening Skills in Relation to Work Place Needs with Reference to the National Curriculum, in Some Secondary Schools in the County of Humberside, United Kingdom*

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By

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## DEDICATIONS

My husband, Haji Mohd Nordin Haji Mohd Said

My mother, Hajah Fatimah Mohamed

My children, Sulaiman,  
Nur Asyikin, Nur Balkish  
Nur Rasyidah  
Nuramirah  
Sallehudin

My friend, Hajah Jahara Hashim

I treasure the warmth of your love,  
I appreciate your thoughtfulness and care,  
In moments when I need you most,  
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## ABSTRACT

### **An Empirical Study of the Teaching and Learning of Speaking and Listening Skills in Relation to Work Place Needs with Reference to the National Curriculum, in Some Secondary Schools in the County of Humberside, United Kingdom**

One broad question addressed in this research is “What are the links between the learning of speaking and listening skills in secondary school, and the future use of speaking and listening in the work place?”

To facilitate the answer to the above question, this study also seek to answer the following question: “What is the present situation in teaching and learning speaking and listening skills in secondary school after the introduction of the National Curriculum in 1989?”

In order to answer the above questions this research adopted a multi-method approach known as triangulation technique. The techniques used were interviews, observations and questionnaire. The sample consisted of 1105 Year 11 students, 14 heads of English Department, 5 English teachers, 1 moderator, 2 careers officers and 2 employers.

The data was analysed quantitatively and qualitatively. The findings show that there is no explicit link between the learning of Speaking and Listening in Humberside secondary schools, and future use of Speaking and Listening in the work place. Whatever links the school has with work places are more for the students' future plans: further education or employment; the duration for work experience is too short and the development of Speaking and Listening at work place is not one of its purposes.

It was found that The HoDs and the teachers based their teaching on English in the National Curriculum. It was observed that some activities were set up by teachers but

little teaching of Speaking and Listening was based on them. The opportunity for the students to be involved actively in Speaking and Listening activities was limited and there was minimal use of technology to promote Speaking and Listening. Speaking and Listening were used as tools to achieve other learning, especially literature and writing. The teacher still dominated the class and reading and writing still dominated the integration of skills. Listening has been badly neglected.

Based on the two answers it can be deduced that at the secondary school level in the County of Humberside, even after the introduction of the National Curriculum, there is no planned link between schools' teaching and learning of Speaking and Listening skills with their future use at work place. It was also found an aspect of the teaching and learning of Speaking and Listening has been neglected.

Based upon the findings, certain recommendations for actions and future research were made. It was recommended for the HoDs and the teachers to attend in-service training and to be part of the national networks that could promote Speaking and Listening. In addition all teachers are recommended to carry out action research. Apart from that there should be equivalent awareness-raising programmes for persons outside school who will meet the school leavers. Future research is needed in evaluating the effectiveness of in-service training and school and industry partnership in bringing positive changes to Speaking and Listening of students and school leavers. Research is also needed to determine whether school leavers who possess the recommended Speaking and Listening skills are in fact more effective than those who do not meet the requirements of work place.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

<b>DEDICATION.....</b>	ii
<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....</b>	iii
<b>ABSTRACT.....</b>	v
<b>TABLE OF CONTENTS.....</b>	vii
<b>LIST OF TABLES.....</b>	xvi
<b>LIST OF FIGURES.....</b>	xix
<b>CHAPTER 1. PROFILE OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT .....</b>	1
1. 1 INTRODUCTION.....	1
1. 2 BACKGROUND TO THE RESEARCH PROBLEM.....	1
1. 3 STATEMENT OF RESEARCH PROBLEM.....	9
1. 4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS.....	10
1. 5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY.....	11
<b>CHAPTER 2. UNDERSTANDING THE MEANING OF SPEAKING AND LISTENING: FROM THEORY TO DEFINITION.....</b>	13
2. 1 INTRODUCTION.....	13
2. 2 BACKGROUND TO THEORIES AND MODELS OF COMMUNICATION.....	13
2. 3 MODELS OF COMMUNICATION.....	18
2. 3. 1 Lasswell’s Verbal Model (1948).....	18
2. 3. 2 Shannon and Weaver’s Communication Model (1949).....	19
2. 3. 3 Carroll’s Organismic Communication Model (1953).....	22
2. 3. 4 Schramm’s Models of Communication (1954).....	24
2. 3. 5 Gerbner’s General Model of Communication (1956).....	26
2. 3. 6 Berlo’s Model of Communication (1960).....	30
2. 3. 7 Dance’s Helical Model of Communication (1967).....	32
2. 3. 8 Westley and MacLeans’s Model of Communication (1955).....	37
2. 3. 9 Becker’s Mosaic Model of Communication (1968).....	39

2. 3. 10	Barnlund's Transactional Models of Communication (1970).....	42
2. 3. 11	Summary on Communication Models.....	47
2. 4	EXAMINING THEORIES OF SPEAKING AND LISTENING IN THE CLASSROOM.....	48
2. 4. 1	The Social Accomplishment Model.....	49
2. 4. 2	The Competence Model.....	50
2. 4. 3	The Talk as Learning Model.....	51
2. 4. 4	The Differentiation Model of Speaking-writing.....	52
	Social Awareness.....	52
	Coding.....	53
	Reconstruction of Experience.....	54
2. 4. 5	Kingman's Model of English: Part 2 (i) Communication and Comprehension.....	54
2. 4. 6	The Intrapersonal Listening Process: three-level model.....	56
	Signalling Processing.....	56
	Literal Processing.....	56
	Reflective Processing.....	56
2. 4. 7	The Interpersonal Listening Process: Listening as a Social Skill.....	57
2. 4. 8	Summary of the Theories of Speaking and Listening in the Classroom..	58
2. 5	DEFINITIONS OF SPEAKING AND LISTENING.....	58
2. 5. 1	The Work of Howe (1991).....	60
2. 5. 2	The Work of Bassett, Whittington and Staton-Spicer (1978).....	62
2. 5. 3	The Work of Littlejohn and Jabusch (1982).....	64
2. 5. 4	Definition of Speaking and Listening Based on the Works of Howe, Bassett et al. & Littlejohn and Jabusch.....	66
2. 5. 5	Summary on Definitions of Speaking and Listening.....	68
2. 6	THE LINK BETWEEN THE DEFINITION OF SPEAKING AND LISTENING SKILLS WITH THE COMMUNICATION MODELS.....	69
2. 7	REFLECTING ON THE TEACHING AND LEARNING OF SPEAKING AND LISTENING SKILLS IN THE CLASSROOM .....	72

<b>CHAPTER 3. SPEECH, THOUGHT AND LANGUAGE.....</b>	<b>76</b>
3. 1 INTRODUCTION.....	76
3. 2 PAVLOV’S CLASSICAL CONDITIONING (1927).....	76
3. 3 SKINNER’S OPERANT CONDITIONING (1938).....	78
3. 4 CHOMSKY’S LANGUAGE ACQUISITION DEVICE (1959).....	79
3. 5 PIAGET’S EGOCENTRIC TALK (1926).....	81
3. 6 VYGOTSKY’S ZONE OF PROXIMAL DEVELOPMENT (1934/1962).....	83
3. 7 BRUNER’S LANGUAGE ACQUISITION SUPPORT SYSTEM (1983).....	86
3. 8 SUMMARY .....	89
<b>CHAPTER 4. OVERVIEW OF PREVIOUS LITERATURE ON SPEAKING AND LISTENING SKILLS.....</b>	<b>91</b>
4. 1 INTRODUCTION.....	91
4. 2 CONTEXT.....	92
4. 3 THE STATUS OF SPEAKING AND LISTENING IN THE CLASSROOM...	93
4. 3. 1 Speaking and Listening Versus Reading and Writing.....	105
4. 3. 2 Summary of the Status of Speaking and Listening in the Classroom....	108
4. 4 THE IMPORTANCE OF DEVELOPING SPEAKING AND LISTENING SKILLS IN CHILDREN, TEENAGERS AND ADULTS.....	109
4. 4. 1 The Recognition of the Importance of Speaking and Listening Skills...	109
4. 4. 2 Role of Speech in Problem Solving, Learning and Generating Ideas....	112
4. 4. 3 Scaffolding Literacy.....	117
4. 4. 4 Talk as Enhancing Personal Qualities.....	122
4. 4. 5 Summary of the Importance of Developing Speaking and Listening Skills in Children, Teenagers and Adults.....	124
4. 5 SPEAKING AND LISTENING IN SCHOOLS AND HIGHER EDUCATION.....	125
4. 5. 1 Goals of Speech Education.....	125
4. 5. 2 The Relationship of Speaking and Listening with Academic Success..	126
4. 5. 3 The Impact of Instruction on Students.....	127
4. 5. 4 Speaking and Listening Course Content.....	130

4. 5. 5	Summary of Speaking and Listening in Schools and Higher Education.....	135
4. 6	EXAMINING SPEAKING AND LISTENING IN THE WORK PLACE.....	135
4. 6. 1	The Role of Speaking and Listening in the Work Place.....	136
4. 6. 2	Key Communication Skills for Entry-level Employees.....	143
4. 6. 3	Summary on Speaking and Listening Skills in the Work place.....	145
4. 7	ORACY PROJECTS.....	147
4. 7. 1	The National Oracy Project.....	148
	The Wiltshire Oracy Project.....	150
	The Staffordshire Oracy Project.....	151
	The Gateshead Oracy Project.....	155
4. 7. 2	Summary of the Oracy Projects.....	156
4. 8	SPEAKING AND LISTENING SKILLS IN THE BRITISH GOVERNMENT EDUCATIONAL REPORTS.....	157
4. 8. 1	The Education of the Adolescent (1926).....	158
4. 8. 2	The Primary School (1931).....	159
4. 8. 3	Secondary Education (1939).....	160
4. 8. 4	Half Our Future (1963).....	160
4. 8. 5	A Language For Life (1975).....	162
4. 8. 6	The Cockcroft Report (1982).....	165
4. 8. 7	White Paper, <u>Better Schools</u> (1985).....	166
4. 8. 8	The Kingman Report (1988), <u>Report of the Committee of Inquiry into the Teaching of English</u> .....	168
4. 8. 9	Cox Report (1989), <u>English for Ages 5 to 16</u> .....	169
4. 8. 10	The Dearing Report (1994).....	171
4. 8. 11	Summary of the Government Reports.....	171
4. 9	SUMMARY OF OVERVIEW OF PREVIOUS LITERATURE.....	172
 <b>CHAPTER 5. SPEAKING AND LISTENING SKILLS WITHIN THE NATIONAL CURRICULUM FOR ENGLISH.....</b>		 175
5. 1	INTRODUCTION.....	175

5. 2	EVENTS LEADING TO THE INTRODUCTION AND IMPLEMENTATION OF THE NATIONAL CURRICULUM.....	175
5. 2. 1	The Ruskin College Speech and the Great Debate.....	175
5. 2. 2	<u>Better Schools</u> .....	177
5. 2. 3	Economic Crisis.....	178
5. 3	THE NATIONAL CRITERIA.....	179
5. 4	TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION INITIATIVE.....	180
5. 5	THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE NATIONAL CURRICULUM.....	181
5. 6	MAJOR INITIATIVES IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF SPEAKING AND LISTENING IN ENGLISH.....	184
5. 6. 1	Evidences of the Centrality of Talk to Learning and Working.....	185
5. 6. 2	Support by Individuals and Institutions	189
5. 6. 3	The Cox Report (DES, 1988; 1989)	190
5. 7	SPEAKING AND LISTENING IN THE NATIONAL CURRICULUM.....	192
5. 8	SPEAKING AND LISTENING SKILLS IN RELATION TO WORK PLACE.....	193
5. 9	SUMMARY OF THE INTRODUCTION AND IMPLEMENTATION OF THE NATIONAL CURRICULUM WITH SPEACIAL REFERENCE TO SPEAKING AND LISTENING SKILLS.....	198
<b>CHAPTER 6. RESEARCH DESIGN, METHODOLOGY AND PILOT STUDY.....</b>		<b>199</b>
6. 1	INTRODUCTION.....	199
6. 2	AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT.....	199
6. 3	THE POPULATION OF THE STUDY.....	200
6. 4	DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES.....	203
6. 4. 1	Triangulation.....	204
6. 4. 2	The Methodology of Using Questionnaires.....	206
6. 4. 3	Interview.....	207
6. 4. 4	Observation.....	210
6. 4. 5	The Instruments for Collecting Data.....	211
	Construction of student questionnaire.....	211
	Initial revision of the student questionnaire.....	220
6. 5	PILOTING THE STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE.....	224

6. 5. 1 The Administration of the Pilot Study.....	224
6. 6. 2 Findings from the Pilot Study.....	225
6. 6. 4 Amendments to Student Questionnaire after the Pilot Study.....	227
6. 7 THE INTERVIEWS.....	231
6. 7. 1 Interview: English Teachers and Heads of English.....	231
6. 7. 2 Interview: Moderator, Careers Officers and the Employer’s Representatives..	233
6. 8 OBSERVATION.....	233
6. 8. 1 Classroom observation.....	233
6. 8. 2 Observation of moderation.....	233
6. 9 SUMMARY.....	234
<b>CHAPTER 7. MAIN STUDY AND RESULTS.....</b>	<b>235</b>
7. 1 INTRODUCTION.....	235
7. 2 SAMPLE.....	235
7. 3 THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE MAIN STUDY.....	240
7. 3. 1 Contacting the Sample Schools.....	240
7. 3. 2 The Interview.....	241
7. 3. 3 The Administration of the Students’ Questionnaire.....	242
The observational studies.....	243
Classroom.....	243
Moderating meeting.....	244
7. 3. 4 The Research Diary for the Main Study.....	246
7. 4 DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS.....	246
7. 5 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN VARIABLES.....	263
7. 6 SUMMARY AND REFLECTIONS ON THE FINDINGS FROM THE STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE.....	271
<b>CHAPTER 8. RESULTS: INTERVIEWS AND OBSERVATIONS.....</b>	<b>277</b>
8. 1 INTRODUCTION.....	277
8. 2 INTERVIEWS.....	277
8. 2. 1 The Heads of English Departments and the English Teachers.....	277



The National Curriculum.....	278
The Teaching of Speaking and Listening Skills.....	279
Assessment.....	292
The National Oracy Project.....	297
Teacher Training in Speaking and Listening.....	298
Classroom environment.....	299
Skills school leavers need for employment.....	301
General information.....	302
8. 2. 2 Moderator.....	304
8. 2. 3 The Careers Officers.....	305
8. 2. 4 The Employers.....	305
8. 2. 5 Summary of the Interviews.....	306
8. 3 OBSERVATIONS.....	307
8. 3. 1 Classroom.....	307
8. 3. 2 Overview of Speaking and Listening Skills.....	314
8. 4 MODERATING MEETINGS.....	315
8. 5 SUMMARY AND REFLECTIONS ON THE FINDINGS FROM THE INTERVIEWS AND OBSERVATIONS.....	317
 <b>CHAPTER 9. SUMMARY, DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSIONS AND     RECOMMENDATIONS.....</b>	 324
9. 1 INTRODUCTION.....	324
9. 2 CONTEXT OF STUDY.....	324
9. 3 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS.....	327
Objective (i). To find out whether there is any link between the students’ perception of learning speaking and Listening in secondary schools, and the future use of speaking and listening in the work place.....	327
Objective (ii) To find out whether there is any link between teachers’ perception of learning Speaking and Listening in schools, and future use of Speaking and Listening in the work place.....	333

Objective (iii).	
To find out whether the students perceive speaking and listening as important in working life.....	339
9. 4 DISCUSSIONS.....	340
9. 4. 1 Work Place.....	340
9. 4. 2 Students' Nervousness .....	342
9. 4. 3 Body Language.....	343
9. 4. 4 Practice and Feedback .....	344
9. 4. 5 Field of Experience .....	345
9. 4. 6 Use of Resources.....	346
9. 4. 7 The Teaching and Learning of Speaking and Listening skills.....	347
9. 4. 8 Knowledge of Theories and Models.....	350
9. 4. 9 Training for Teachers.....	351
9. 4. 10 Integration of the Language Arts.....	352
9. 4. 11 Teachers are Pragmatics.....	353
9. 5 CONCLUSIONS.....	354
9. 5. 1 Is there any link between the learning of Speaking and Listening in School, and future use of speaking and listening in the work place?....	354
9. 6 RECOMMENDATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH.....	355
9. 7 CONCLUDING REMARKS.....	361
REFERENCES.....	362
APPENDIX 2-1: Kingman Model of the English Language.....	389
APPENDIX 2-2: Guidelines for Minimal Speaking and Listening Competencies For High School Graduates (Bassett et al., 1978).....	393
APPENDIX 2-3: Educational Context (Rubin, 1981).....	399
APPENDIX 4-1: Raucous Little Sister (Howe, 1991).....	402
APPENDIX 5-1: General Requirements for English: Key Stages 1-4.....	403
APPENDIX 5-2: English: Key Stages 1-4 Programme of Study.....	405
APPENDIX 5-3: English Attainment Target 1: Speaking and Listening.....	411
APPENDIX 6-1: A Survey of Speaking and Listening Skills in Schools (Pilot Study).....	413

APPENDIX 6-2: A Survey of Speaking and Listening Skills in Schools  
 (Main Study)..... 423

APPENDIX 6-3: Flanders’s Interaction Analysis Category (1970)..... 433

APPENDIX 7-1: HULL COMPACT..... 434

APPENDIX 7-2: Letter to School..... 436

APPENDIX 7-3: Research Diary..... 437

APPENDIX 7-4: Descriptive analysis of Q26-Q43..... 439

APPENDIX 7-5: Relationship between Pairs of Variables..... 440

APPENDIX 9-1: Speaking and Listening skills which industry requires of its 16+  
 entrants..... 471

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 6-1: Speaking Other Languages at Home.....	228
Table 7-1: Breakdown of Students by School and Gender, Total Percentages of Sample and Total Percentages of the Number of Students in Year 11 ...	247
Table 7-2: Students' Plans after Leaving School (Q4).....	248
Table 7-3: Students' Perception of Learning Speaking, Listening, Reading and Writing Skills Learned in English Class (Q5).....	250
Table 7-4: Students' Perception of the Frequency of Learning Speaking, Listening, Reading and Writing skills (Q6).....	250
Table 7-5: Frequency of Using and Enjoying Expressive Activities: Group Discussion & Debates, Giving Talk to Class, Mock Interviews and Drama & role-playing in English Class (Q7 & Q8).....	251
Table 7-6: Frequency of Using and Enjoying Receptive Activities: Watching Video Listening to Pupil Talk and Listening to Tapes in English Class (Q7 & Q8).....	252
Table 7-7: Students' Responses to the Meaning of 'Body Language' (Q9).....	253
Table 7-8: Students' Perception of Learning Speaking and Listening Skills in Other Classes (Q10).....	254
Table 7-9: Students' Perception of the Frequency of Speaking and Giving a Talk or Short Speech (Q11 & Q12).....	255
Table 7-10: Students' Perception of Feeling Nervous while Giving a Talk (Q13).....	256
Table 7-11: Frequency of Students Talking with Careers Officer or Careers Teacher (Q14).....	257
Table 7-12: Discussion about Speaking and Listening with Careers Officer or Careers Teacher (Q15).....	257
Table 7-13: Students' Perceptions: On Doing Well on Job that Requires a Great Deal of Speaking and Listening; Frequency of Using Speaking and Listening during Work Experience; Language Skills Most Used during Work Experience (Q16, Q17 & Q19).....	259

**Table 7-14: Students’ Perception on that Feeling of Satisfaction with Their Speaking and Listening Level during Work Experience (Q18) and on Needing a Special Class to Improve Speaking and Listening after Work Experience (Q 20)..... 260**

**Table 7-15: Students’ Perception on the Importance of Speaking and Listening Skills for Students Seeking Jobs, at Home and in Class (Q21, Q22 & Q23)..... 260**

**Table 7-16: Students’ Perception of Listening to Their Voice on Tape or Video and Their Wish for the Voice to Sound Better (Q24 & Q25)..... 261**

**Table 7-17: Factor Analysis for Questions 26-43..... 262**

**Table 7-18: The Relationship between Students’ Perception of the Frequency of Learning Speaking and their Perception of the Frequency of Using Activities (Crosstabulation of Q6 against Q7 )...... 263**

**Table 7-19: The Relationship between Students’ Perception of the Frequency of Learning Speaking and their Perception of Enjoying Activities (Crosstabulation of Q6 against Q8)..... 264**

**Table 7-20: The Relationship between Students’ Perception of the Frequency of Learning Listening and Their Perception of the Frequency Using Activities (Crosstabulation of Q6 against Q7 )...... 264**

**Table 7-21: The Relationship between Students’ Perception of the Frequency of Learning Listening and Their Perception of the Frequency Enjoying Activities (Crosstabulation of Q6 against Q8)..... 265**

**Table 7-22: The Relationship between Students’ Perception of the Frequency of Using an Activity with Their Perception of the Frequency of Enjoying the Activity (Crosstabulation of Q7 against Q8)..... 265**

**Table 7-23: The Relationship between Students’ Perception of the Frequency of Speaking to the Teacher and the Perception of Feeling Nervous while Giving a Talk (Crosstabulation of Q11 against Q13)..... 266**

**Table 7-24: The Relationship between Students’ Perception of the Frequency of Speaking to the Whole Class and the Perception of Feeling Nervous while Giving a Talk (Crosstabulation of Q11 against Q13)..... 266**

**Table 7- 25: The Relationship between Students’ Perception of the Frequency of Giving a Talk to the Whole Class and the Perception of Feeling Nervous while Giving a Talk (Crosstabulation of Q12 against Q13)... 267**

<b>Table 7-26: The Relationship between Students' Perception of the Frequency of Giving a Talk to Whole School and the Perception of Feeling Nervous While Giving a Talk (Crosstabulation of Q12 against Q13).....</b>	<b>267</b>
<b>Table 7- 27: The Relationship between Students' Perception of the Frequency of Giving a Talk to Visitors or Parents and the Perception of Feeling Nervous while Giving a Talk (Crosstabulation of Q12 against Q13)....</b>	<b>267</b>
<b>Table 7-28: The Relationship between Students' Perception of the Frequency of Talk to Audiences Outside School and the Perception of Feeling Nervous while Giving a Talk (Crosstabulation of Q12 against Q13)....</b>	<b>268</b>
<b>Table 7-29: The Relationship between Students' Perceptions on the Frequency of Using Speaking and Listening Skills during Work Experience, and Their Perceptions of the Importance of Speaking and Listening Skills for Students Seeking Jobs (Crosstabulation of Q19 against Q21).....</b>	<b>269</b>
<b>Table 7-30: The Relationship between Students' Perceptions of the Importance of Speaking and Listening Skills for Students Seeking Jobs, and Their Perceptions in the Importance of Speaking and Listening Skills at Home and in the Class(Crosstabulation of Q20 against Q22 and Q23).</b>	<b>269</b>
<b>Table 7-31: The Relationship between Students' Perceptions of the Frequency of Speaking and Talking to Different Audiences and Their Perception of the Importance of Speaking and Listening Skills (Crosstabulation Q11 and Q12 against Q20, Q21 &amp; Q22).....</b>	<b>270</b>

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2-1: Lasswell's Verbal Model, Showing the Corresponding Elements of the Communication Process.....	18
Figure 2-2: Shannon & Weaver's Schematic Diagram of a General Communication System.....	20
Figure 2-3: Carroll's Organismic Communication Model.....	22
Figure 2-4: Three of the Schramm Models.....	25
Figure 2-5: Gerbner's Pictorial Model of Communication.....	28
Figure 2-6: Gerbner's Model of Communication.....	29
Figure 2-7: Berlo's Model of Communication.....	32
Figure 2-8: Dance's Helix Model of Human Communication.....	35
Figure 2-9: A Different Shape of Dance's Helix Model.....	35
Figure 2-10: Westley and MacLean's Model of Communication.....	38
Figure 2-11: Becker's Mosaic Model of Communication.....	40
Figure 2-12: Barnlund's Pilot Model of Intrapersonal Communication.....	43
Figure 2-13: Barnlund's Transactional Model of Interpersonal Communication....	46
Figure 2-14: Kingman model of English: Part 2 (i) Communication and Comprehension.....	55
Figure 2-15: An Oracy Map (Howe, 1991).....	61
Figure 2-16: Understanding Speaking and Listening Based on the Works of Howe (1991), Bassett et al. (1978) & Littlejohn & Jabusch (1982).....	67
Figure 4-1: Content Analysis of Eleven High School Texts (Brooks and Friedrich, 1973).....	131

Figure 4-2: Talk for Learning: An Audience Model for Classroom Practice (Carter, 1991).....	153
Figure 5-1: Linking Speaking and Listening Skills (Key Stage 3 and 4 Programme of Study) with Speaking and Listening Skills at Work Place.....	195
Figure 6-1: The CCAI-HS contains 15 skill assessments in Communication Codes (CC), Oral Message Evaluation (OM), Basic Speech Communication Skills (BS) and Human Relations (HM), adapted from Rubin (1994).....	212
Figure 6-2: Subject Areas and Type of Training Aids Identified by Corder (1990)..	213
Figure 6-3: Bullocks' (1975) Recommended Activities in the Classroom.....	213
Figure 6-4: Topics in <u>Public Speaking</u> , Hunt (1981).....	214
Figure 6-5: Students Self-evaluation Checklist, Kopp (1967).....	214
Figure 6-6: Student's Perception of English Lesson in the Classroom.....	215
Figure 6-7: Students' Knowledge in Speaking and Listening.....	216
Figure 6-8: Students' Perceptions of Learning Speaking and Listening.....	216
Figure 6-9: Students' Perceptions of Speaking and Listening Outside the Classroom.....	217
Figure 6-10: Students' Perceptions of Speaking and Listening Skills Generally....	217
Figure 6-11: Students' Perception of Future the Use of Speaking and Listening at Work Place.....	218
Figure 6-12: Students' Perceptions of Their Speaking Skills.....	218
Figure 6-13: Students' Perceptions of Their Listening Skills.....	218
Figure 6-14: Set of Questions for Teachers as a Guide Line.....	231
Figure 7-1: The County of Humberside, until April 1996.....	237
Figure 7-2: The Location of Schools that Participated in the Study in East Riding of Yorkshire, North East Lincolnshire, North Lincolnshire and City of Kingston Upon Hull.....	238



Figure 7-3: The Sample Schools and Their Descriptions.....	239
Figure 7-4: Class Observations Schedule.....	244
Figure 7-5: Questions 5 to 8 of the Student Questionnaire.....	249
Figure 7-6: Questions 11, 12 and 13 of the Student Questionnaire.....	255
Figure 7-7: Questions 14 and 15 of the Student Questionnaire.....	257
Figure 7-8: Questions 16 to 23.....	258
Figure 8-1: (Section I) Questions on the National; Curriculum.....	278
Figure 8-2: (Section II) Questions on the Teaching of Speaking and Listening Skills.....	279
Figure 8-3: (Section III) Questions on Assessment.....	292
Figure 8-4: (Section IV) Questions on the National Oracy Project.....	297
Figure 8-5: (Section V) Questions on Teacher Training in Speaking and Listening.	298
Figure 8-6: (Section VI) Questions on Classroom Environment.....	299
Figure 8-7: (Section VII) Questions on Skills School Leavers Need for Employment.....	301
Figure 8-8: (Section VIII) General Comments on the Following Statements.....	302

## **CHAPTER 1**

### **PROFILE OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT**

#### **1.1 INTRODUCTION**

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a broad background to the issue under study. The background is based on the opinions of educationists, employers, professionals in speech communication, committees set up by the government and political leaders. This chapter also states the research problem, the research questions and the significance of the study.

#### **1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE RESEARCH PROBLEM**

The scenario: A child is born, and grows, and learns to speak. This child can also listen and understand others when they speak. By the age of five, this child has acquired 5,000 - 10,000 words (Gleitman, 1995). This is an ordinary, everyday happening. The process of acquiring language is, for most children, “very fast, relatively painless, and seemingly automatic, so it often goes unnoticed how much time and effort the children themselves and their older caretakers invest in the process” (Snow, 1976, p. 63).

From the above scenario, Clark, Eschholz, and Rosa (1994, p. 1) conclude that “most people take their language ability for granted; speaking and understanding speech seem as natural as breathing or sleeping”. Speaking and listening skills are complementary units and cannot be disassociated, but because listening is a receptive skill and less prominent than speaking, the attention paid to listening can be assumed to be no more than that paid to its counterpart; probably less.

If speaking and listening have been taken for granted, it is of no surprise if these skills are not regarded as being on par with reading and writing skills and less important

than arithmetic and pure sciences. Speech is always thought to be a simple act, and there is a “persistent myth that ... because most children already enter school using the oral code, there is, therefore, no need for further education in the skills of speaking and listening” (Lieb-Brilhart, 1980, p. 8). Even communication scholars have been unable to eliminate the erroneous assumption made by those in “English departments, that speaking and listening are innate skills and therefore do not need to be taught” (Barnes & Hayes, 1995a, p. 308). Consequently there is evidence to show that the teaching of speech skills receives scant attention in the classroom (Barnes & Hayes, 1995b; Bassett, Whittington, and Staton-Spicer, 1978; Berko, 1994; Crocker, 1980; Department of Education and Science [DES] 1926, 1979; Gehrke, Knapp, & Sirotnik, 1992; Teale, 1996; Witkin, Lovern & Lundsteen, 1996) compared to the teaching of reading and writing. “When I go to school, I’m going to learn to read and write”. This comment reflects the aspirations of most four years old about to enter school. Their parents want them to be literate, and the parents know that the term ‘literacy’ means the ability to read and write. Frequently, literacy is taken to include numeracy whilst still excluding the ability to speak and listen. This notion of literacy is in line with the ‘three R’s’ familiar to most parents.

A functional definition of literacy presented to the 1963 United Nations General Assembly in a UNESCO document World Campaign for Universal Literacy reads:

A person is literate when he has acquired the essential knowledge and skills which enable him to engage in all those activities in which literacy is required for effective functioning in his group and community, and whose attainments in *reading, writing* and *arithmetic* [italics added] make it possible for him to continue to use these skills towards his own and the community's development and for active participation in the life of his [or her] country.

Keeves and Bourke (as cited in Husén  
and Postlethwaite, 1994, p. 3468)

There is no mention of speaking and listening in the above definition, although implicitly the ideas of 'to engage in all those activities', 'effective functioning', 'group', 'community', 'community's development' and 'active participation in life', must include those skills. The functional role of speaking and listening in personal and community development has been suppressed in the above definition. Everyone knows the existence of these skills and everyone acknowledges their importance, but like other 'God-given' things, their presence is not fully appreciated, but just assumed to be there when needed.

Regrettably, it is not only pupils and parents who fail to see the role of speaking and listening in a positive light. Even governments regard it as insignificant. This attitude can be traced back to pre-war and post-war official reports. According to Wilkinson (1965, p. 11), "in the early part of the century the urge to give every child a basic literacy took precedence over everything else". He said speech was mentioned lightly and in most cases little guidance was given. His finding was based on government publications from 1910 to 1959. He mentioned that it was the Newsom Report, Half Our Future (Central Advisory Council for Education [CACfE], 1963), which started to give

recognition to the development of powers in the spoken language within the educational system, and to relate it positively to the human condition (see Chapter 4).

Below is an excerpt from Anthony Adams's introduction to Spoken English Illuminated (Wilkinson, Davies, & Berrill, 1990) which shows how speaking and listening were in danger of suffering further discrimination during the second half of the twentieth century:

When the first (interim) Report of the Cox Working Group on the English programme 5 -11 was published (HMSO 1989), it was prefaced by some pages in which the then Secretary of State for Education and Science, Kenneth Baker, questioned the Working Group's wisdom in insisting on an equal weighting for the profile component of Speaking and Listening at age 11 alongside those of Writing and Reading. The implication was clear: speaking and listening was all right when we were very young, by the time we had come to years of discretion it was time to get down to the serious work of literacy instead. (p. viii)

Fortunately, speaking and listening made it through to the National Curriculum (see Chapter 5) which was implemented by law for all pupils registered in all state-maintained schools, including grant-maintained and grant-maintained special schools, in England and Wales on and after September 1989 (Education Reform Act, 1988). The National Curriculum identifies English as a core subject, central to a planned curriculum, both as a subject in its own right and as a service to other areas of learning. The National Curriculum English Order requires that "pupils' abilities should be developed within an integrated programme of speaking and listening, reading and writing" (Department for

Education [DfE], 1995a, p. 2). The curriculum encourages the teaching of speaking and listening with the same weight as the teaching of reading and writing.

Given this official backing, it is up to the teachers and the pupils to utilise fully speaking and listening skills for their own advantage, because these skills are active processes that encourage learner involvement. Before these skills can be utilised fully at home, in the work place and in society, they must be cultivated, nurtured, applied and appreciated at school level - where formal learning takes place. If the educational system, the schools and the present users, do not have the conviction that speaking and listening skills are important in our life, then future generations will be the losers.

So, what is the current status of speaking and listening in schools? There is evidence that the importance of speaking and listening is not given appropriate weighting in schools. John Modaff, an instructor in speech at Hampton Institute, Hampton Virginia, USA and Robert Hopper, a Sapp Centennial Professor of Speech Communication at the University of Texas, Austin, USA, expressed their concern about speaking skills because these skills are significant in child development but the teaching of these skills has been neglected. They write, “in the beginning was and is the spoken word. At the beginning of language communities, at the beginning of linguistic competence, at the beginning of the child’s development, is the speaking skill. Yet speech is rarely taught in elementary schools” (Modaff & Hopper, 1984, p. 37).

Their allegation is supported by other voices who are generally concerned that speaking and listening skills are being neglected in secondary schools (Arliss, 1992; Berko, 1994; Gehrke, et al., 1992; Gray, 1982; Most, 1994; Teale, 1996). Such a situation raises the question whether, when the students reach the end of secondary education, their speaking and listening skills have been acquired from a natural process just like growing up, with little intervention directly from the teachers, or whether their learning has been

achieved accidentally. There has always been the assumption that most people would develop reasonably satisfactory skills in speaking and listening without ever going to school. In a way it is true, because “under normal circumstances, children’s social talk will develop naturally, without teacher intervention. But not all children will automatically acquire all the forms of transactional spoken language which are necessary and highly valued in education and in society” (DES, 1989, para 15.12). Since the development of these skills is too important to be left solely to maturation and experience, each child should be helped to develop to the maximum his or her own ability to communicate effectively.

“It is teachers and only teachers who can directly improve educational standards” (Dearing, 1994, p. 16). This statement reflects the far reaching mind of Lewis (1946) who points out the significant role of the teacher in speech education:

In all speech education the central responsibility must lie with the teacher. His own speech must be good; he must believe in what he is doing - that it really does matter to the ordinary man to speak well. The teacher must have some knowledge of the nature of speech - how it grows and how it functions; and he must have a good deal of skill in getting children to co-operate with him in improving their speech. (p. 48)

The above requirements mentioned by Lewis look very demanding. A teacher is expected to speak well; to be the role model for his students and to be committed to the teaching of speaking and listening. As a teacher of speech he is expected to be knowledgeable about theories of speaking and listening. As a teacher he is expected to know the theories on language learning and teaching. Above all, his interpersonal skills

must be excellent in order to foster good working relations with the students. Lewis, however, does not find the expectation is too much because it is “not more than the special knowledge and skill commonly expected of the teacher of art or handicraft or music” (1946, p. 48).

The same expectation is found in the Bullock Report (DES, 1975) and the expectation is the same for the present-day teachers. In fact, increasingly, teachers are being asked to provide evidence that their teaching is both effective and efficient (Barnes, Britton, & Torbe, 1990; Knight & Lumsden, 1990). Teachers have to take responsibility for students’ competence in handling specific kinds of spoken English. They are required to prepare students to acquire such effective mastery of speaking and listening as their school work demands of them. In addition, they have to prepare students to acquire the standard form of spoken English. Simultaneously, the students must be aware of dialects, register and style in order to face the language needs posed by further and higher education, future jobs and numerous future roles in society.

There are three main groups of people that will receive students who have undergone the National Curriculum. The first group are the teachers in further and higher education. These teachers have certain expectations, because academic activities in further and higher education demand that the students possess effective command of spoken English. The students will face academic and social problems if their speaking and listening skills cannot cope with the demand.

The second group are those responsible for public examinations and entry into universities. Those who are responsible for public examinations have the responsibility to determine the standard expected of the school leavers. If achievement is below expectation, then this is an indication that there are flaws in the educational system. The



problem of low achievement cannot be ignored because there is an ethical question of accountability of the system towards society.

The third group are employers and business leaders, who recruit their employees with the help of the public examination results. Employment is one of the main targets of education, so when the employers criticise the level of competence of the school leavers this demonstrates that the school leavers cannot function well in work places.

Collectively, the three groups can be classified as evaluators at the threshold of higher education or right at the door of employment. The teachers, people who are involved in public examinations and university entry, and the employers will be evaluating 'the products' according to their needs. Their needs are different in nature, but school leavers are expected to adapt according to their audience and context; after all, they have had eleven or twelve years of formal education. If the performance of the school leavers is below expectation, teachers in further and higher education, and employers have to spend time to rectify the matter instead of concentrating on the main objectives of higher education or training in employment. Poor results in schools will only contribute to the waste of time and resources, for the present and the future. The cycle will continue, frustrating not only the end receivers but most importantly the students themselves and if nothing is done, the frustration will continue into adult life. As mentioned by the Newsom Report, Half Our Future (CACfE, 1963), "we simply do not know how many people are frustrated in their lives by inability ever to express themselves adequately..." (p. 15).

Of course, one might argue that there is an abundance of speech activities in schools, from elementary schools right up to secondary schools, but the question remains, is speaking and listening being taught as it should be? What should concern everyone most is the speaking and listening skills of students who are leaving school to join society

and the workforce. Do the results in speaking and listening reflect the investment of their eleven year long education?

The discussion so far indicates that speaking and listening skills have been taken for granted by parents, teachers and the government, to the extent that the students may have been deprived of learning these skills. However, after a long struggle by those who advocate the teaching of speaking and listening skills in the classroom, finally speaking and listening skills are being reinstated by statutory orders. Still, the old problem persists and there are teachers in further and higher education (Teachers interviewed on 14<sup>th</sup> November, 1995; 17<sup>th</sup> November, 1995; 28<sup>th</sup> November, 1995; 25<sup>th</sup> January, 1996), those responsible for Public Examinations, and entry into Universities (NEAB Moderator interviewed on 30<sup>th</sup> November, 1995), and employers (Keiner, 1992; Wainwright, 1992) who unanimously agree that they are not satisfied with the speaking and listening skills of school leavers. Their 'voices' create a big question mark that cannot be ignored.

### **1.3 STATEMENT OF RESEARCH PROBLEM**

James Callaghan's speech at Ruskin College in 1976 claimed that standards of education were falling and urged that something be done (see Chapter 5). This speech is said to have opened up what in Britain has been called 'the great education debate'. To meet the challenges of the debate, the Thatcher government introduced the National Curriculum which they considered broad, balanced and relevant. The assumption was that with the introduction of the National Curriculum in 1989, standards of education in England would improve.

The Government's expectation should also meet the expectations of parents and employers. Based on the survey carried out by Market and Opinion Research International on behalf of the School Curriculum and Assessment Authority (SCAA) in

July 1994, it was found that “both parents and employers believe that education should develop children’s interpersonal skills, confidence and the ability to work in teams. Parents want their children to be able to cope with work situations. Employers emphasise the importance of communication skills” (SCAA, 1994, p. 56).

This expectation of parents and employers agrees with the general requirement of the English Order which states that the main objective of teaching speaking and listening is to develop the pupils’ abilities to “communicate effectively in speech ... and to listen with understanding” (DfE, 1995a, p.2).

The success of the National Curriculum depends on what is going on in the classroom. As mentioned by Sir Ron Dearing, “It has been our aim to frame a National Curriculum which will serve schools well in their task of taking this country’s education into the twenty-first century ... but our work will only come to fruition when the words on the page have been translated into the high quality teaching and learning which raises standards of achievement for all” (SCAA, 1994, p. II).

The main aim of this study was to investigate the links between the learning of speaking and listening skills in secondary school, and future use of speaking and listening in the work place.

#### **1. 4 RESEARCH QUESTION**

The purpose of this research is, therefore, to answer the following question:

**What are the links between the learning of speaking and listening skills in secondary school, and the future use of speaking and listening in the work place?**

In order to answer the above question, it is essential to obtain first hand knowledge about the teaching and learning of speaking and listening skills in secondary schools of England and Wales after the introduction of the National Curriculum in 1989. To facilitate the research question, this study also seek to answer the following question:

**What is the present situation in the teaching and learning of speaking and listening skills in secondary schools of England and Wales after the introduction of the National Curriculum in 1989?**

## **1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

There is an abundance of research in the area of speaking and listening. The irony is that the concentration is at the opposite ends of human development; at one end, a lot is known about the development of speech in the pre-school child (Fletcher & MacWhinney, 1995; Halliday, 1975; Johnson, Hutton, & Yard, 1992; Lock, 1980; Maclure, 1992; Rogoff, 1990; Wells, 1980, 1986) and at the other end, there is research among adults in higher education and in the work place (Benson, 1983; Boyer, 1987; Cooper & Husband; 1993; DiSalvo, Larsen, & Seiler, 1976; Ford & Wolvin, 1993; Hawken, Duran, & Kelly, 1991; Wolvin & Coakley, 1991, 1994). But when it comes to older children still in school “there is very little actually known, either about the structure, content and function of children’s oral language, or about how it changes and develops over the school years” (Maybin, 1991, p. 34). A similar finding was obtained by Gehrke, et al. (1992), who said “we have almost nothing about the part of the language arts curriculum focused on speaking and listening in the upper grades” (p. 78). So far, relatively little research has focused on the speaking and listening skills of students who are leaving school or attempted to relate these skills to the work place or further and higher education. This

study may prove useful for teachers and those responsible for curriculum planning for students, as well as for initial and in-service teacher education.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **UNDERSTANDING THE MEANING OF SPEAKING AND LISTENING: FROM THEORY TO DEFINITION**

#### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

To understand speaking and listening we must understand communication processes. This chapter presents an evaluative survey of the history and the current state of knowledge in regard to theories of communication. The first section deals with general theories of communication. The second section deals with theories of speaking and listening skills in the English classroom. The final section, which is based on selected works, attempts to understand and formulate a definition of speaking and listening. This understanding of theories and definition is necessary in order to appreciate the complexity of teaching and learning of speaking and listening skills.

#### **2.2 BACKGROUND TO THEORIES AND MODELS OF COMMUNICATION**

In this survey the term communication focuses only on human communication, that is, “person to person interactions in which some meanings are intended and interpreted by at least some of the parties involved” (Arnold & Frandsen, 1984, p. 3). The term includes verbal and non-verbal communication.

The term ‘communication’ itself has been defined in a number of ways. The following examples are given by McQuail and Windahl (1993, p. 4) to show the variety of meanings involved:

In the most general sense, we have communication wherever one system, a source, influences another, the destination, by manipulation of alternative symbols, which can be transmitted over the channel connecting them (Osgood et al., 1957).

Communication may be defined as 'social interaction through messages'  
(Gerbner, 1967).

The transmission of information, ideas, attitudes, or emotion from one person or group to another (or others) primarily through symbols (Theodorson and Theodorson, 1969).

Watson and Hill (1997) in A Dictionary of Communication and Media Studies conclude that:

While the definitions of communication vary according to the theoretical frames of reference employed and the stress placed upon certain aspects of the total process, they all include five fundamental factors: an initiator; a recipient; a mode or vehicle; a message and an effect. Simply expressed, the communicating process begins when a *message* is conceived by a *sender*. It is then encoded – translated into a signal or sequence of signals - and *transmitted* via a particular medium or channel to a receiver who then decodes it and interprets the message, returning a signal in some ways that the message has or has not been understood (p. 41).

Before looking at the communication models, at this stage it is necessary to deal with several more definitions. Bill and Hardgrave (1973) gave the following definitions:

<b>Generalisation:</b>	A statement of uniformities in the relations between two or more variables of well-defined classes.
<b>Hypothesis:</b>	A generalisation presented in tentative and conjectural terms.
<b>Theory:</b>	A set of systematically related generalisations suggesting new observations for empirical testing.
<b>Law:</b>	A hypothesis of universal form that has withstood intensive experimentation.
<b>Model:</b>	A theoretical and simplified representation of the real world.

(Bill & Hardgrave, 1973, p. 24)

Bill and Hardgrave explained that a model is neither a generalising nor an explanatory device because:

A model is a theoretical and simplified representation of the real world. It is an isomorphic construction of reality or anticipated reality. A model, by itself, is not an explanatory device, but it does play an important and directly suggestive role in the formulation of theory. By its very nature it suggests relationships .... The jump from a model to a theory is often made so quickly that the model is in fact believed to be a theory. A model is disguised as a theory more often than any other concept. (p. 28)

Watson and Hill (1997) also emphasise the tentative nature of models. Taking the communication process as an example, a communication model “attempts to show how the various elements of a situation being studied relate to each other” (p. 143). In other words a model is “a consciously simplified description in graphic form of a piece of



reality. A model seeks to show the main elements of any structure or process and the relationships between these elements” (McQuail & Windahl, 1993, p. 2). Models develop into theories only after much research and testing.

Lewin (1952), a noted social psychologist, said “there is nothing so practical as a good theory” (p. 169) when he was discussing theoretical and applied social psychology. MacLean (1972) says that theory can be thought of as our understanding of the way things work. So a communication theory is intended to improve our understanding of the way communications work. With better understanding, we are able to predict and control the outcomes of communication. We know the usefulness of theories, but if models are not theories, why do we need them? The answer was given by Deutsch (1952) who discussed four distinct functions of models. One of the functions is organising, “the ability of a model to order and relate disjointed data, and to show similarities or connections between them which had previously remained unperceived” (p. 360).

Deutsch explained that if a new model explains something that was not previously understood, by borrowing images from familiar events, it is called an explanation. If the model helps to transfer some familiar behaviour pattern to a new problem, then the explanation is considered ‘satisfactory’, even though it might not have any predictive power and might be rejected by some scientists as a “mere explanation” (Bridgman; Conant, as cited in Deutsch, 1952, p. 360) which would be operationally meaningless.

In the category of ‘mere explanations’ are models of a very low order, but Deutsch argued that explanation almost always implies that some prediction can be made. The prediction function is possible because models help to simplify complicated or ambiguous information and explain to students or researchers the vital points of a process. The ability to predict, then, brings about the heuristic functions of models, which can lead to previously unknown facts and methods.

On the predictive function of a model, Deutsch mentioned that little has been said about it apart from the well known requirement of verifiability by physical operations. Actually, there are different kinds of prediction. Deutsch explained that :

At one extreme we find simple yes-or-no predictions; at higher degrees of specificity we get qualitative predictions of similarity or matching, where the result is predicted to be of this kind or of that kind, or of this particular delicate shade; and at the other extreme we find completely quantitative predictions which may give us elaborate time series which may answer the questions of when and how much. (p. 361)

These quantitative predictions bring us to the measuring function of models. “If the processes that link the model to the thing modelled are clearly understood, the data obtained with the help of a model constitute a measure, whether it be a simple ranking or a full-ratio scale” (Severin & Tankard, 1988, p. 31).

Even with the organising, prediction, heuristic and measurement functions of models, McQuail and Windhal (1993) remind us of the risks of using models because:

They are inevitably *incomplete*, *oversimplified* and involve some *concealed assumptions* [italics added]. There is certainly no model that is suitable for all purposes and all levels of analysis and it is important to choose the correct model for the purpose one has in mind. (p.3)

Based on the functions of models outlined by Deutsch and the warning by McQuail and Windahl, we will now embark on an examination of some models of communication.

## 2.3 MODELS OF COMMUNICATION

### 2.3.1 Lasswell's Verbal Model (1948)

Lasswell, a professor of law at Yale, opened his article 'The structure and function of communication in society' with the most well known single phrase in communication research:

"A CONVENIENT WAY to describe an act of communication is to answer the following questions:

Who?

Says what?

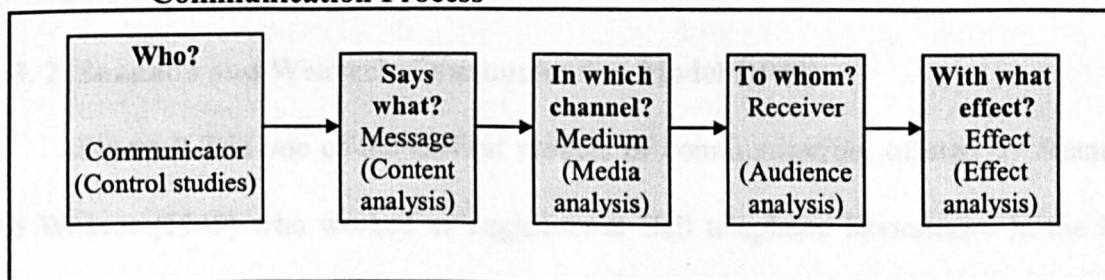
In which channel?

To whom?

With what effect?"

(Lasswell, 1948, reprinted 1960, p.117)

**Figure 2-1. Lasswell's Verbal Model, Showing the Corresponding Elements of the Communication Process**



Note: In parentheses are the fields of communication research (modified from McQuail & Windahl, 1993, p. 13 & p. 14)

Laswell, who was interested in political communication, developed his formula to analyse political propaganda. Laswell, however, omitted the important element of feedback in his model (Figure 2-1), probably due to the delayed nature of feedback in mass communication. In reviewing Laswell's verbal model, Watson and Hill (1997) commented that Laswell also omitted the context (social, economic, cultural, political, aesthetic) in which the communication process takes place and made no provision for intervening variables which might influence the ways in which messages are received and responded to. Reviewing Lasswell's model of verbal communication, Severin and Tankard (1988) noted that the model has been criticised because it seems to imply the presence of a communicator and a purposive message; nonetheless, they found that it focused attention on important aspects of communication.

Lasswell looked at communication as a persuasive process, assuming that communication has the intention of influencing the receiver and that messages always have effects. Even though these assumptions are misleading, Laswell's verbal model is still a convenient way of introducing a study of the communication process. In fact in the classroom situation, we might even believe that when a teacher is communicating with students, or when a student is communicating with a teacher, or students communicate among themselves, there is always present the notion of influencing the receiver and that messages always have an effect.

### **2. 3. 2 Shannon and Weaver's Communication Model (1949)**

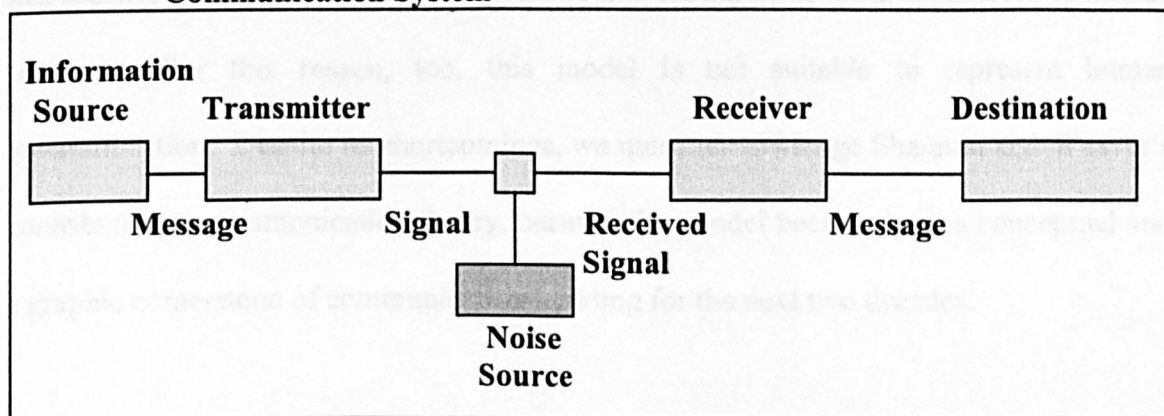
Figure 2-2 is one of the earliest models of communication, offered by Shannon and Weaver (1949) who worked as engineers at Bell telephone laboratories in the US. They proposed the model as a basis for the study of problems of telegraphic communication, but it offers considerable understanding of interpersonal communication

through verbal communication. Shannon and Weaver identified that the primary objective of communication is to reproduce at one point, either exactly or approximately, a message selected at another point. Figure 2-2 shows an information source which emits a message which is then encoded for transmission as a signal. This signal passes through a channel to a receiver, which decodes the message for use at its destination.

Weaver (1949) explained that “the *information source* selects a desired *message* out of a set of possible messages” (p. 98). However the word ‘information’, in this theory, is not to be confused with ‘meaning’. According to Weaver, “information is a measure of one’s freedom of choice when one selects a message” (p. 100).

“The *transmitter* changes this *message* into the *signal* which is actually sent over the *communication channel* from the transmitter to the *receiver*” (p. 98). “The *receiver* is a sort of inverse transmitter, changing the transmitted signal back into a message, and handing this message on to the destination” (p. 99). Weaver explained when one person talks to another, the brain is the information source, the listener’s brain is the destination; the speaker’s vocal system is the transmitter, and the listener’s ear and his associated aural nerve is the receiver. “The destination is the person ...for whom the message is intended” (p. 6).

**Figure 2-2. Shannon & Weaver’s Schematic Diagram of a General Communication System**



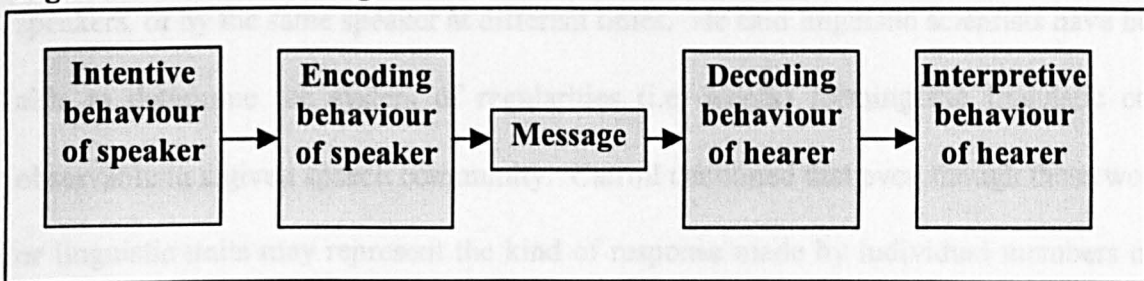
In the process of transmitting the signal, certain things are added to the signal resulting in changes to the original signal. These changes which were not intended by the information source are called 'noise'. When there is noise, the received signal exhibits greater uncertainty and there is a need to remove the unwanted information.

The conceptual framework in the Shannon-Weaver model emphasised a technical, place-to-place idea of communication (Johnson & Klare, 1961). The main aim of the model was to formulate a theory to guide the efforts of engineers in finding the most efficient way of transmitting electrical signals from one location to another. Shannon and Weaver were concerned only with technical problems associated with the selection and arrangement of discrete units of information; they were not dealing with content. Therefore, this engineering prototype model cannot be associated directly with human communication because it does not conceive 'information' the way we normally do. The association of 'information' with meaning is discarded in the model because Shannon and Weaver identified that "meaning is with people" (p. 98). In our daily life and in the classroom situation, 'information' without 'meaning' is definitely futile. Hence, their model does not apply to semantic or pragmatic dimensions of language. Another shortcoming of the Shannon-Weaver communication system is the idea of a linear and literal transmission of information from one location to another. The notion of linearity and absence of a feedback component lead to misleading ideas when transferred to human conduct. For this reason, too, this model is not suitable to represent human communication. Despite its shortcomings, we must acknowledge Shannon and Weaver's contribution to communication theory, because this model became both a conceptual and a graphic cornerstone of communication building for the next two decades.

### 2.3.3 Carroll's Organismic Communication Model (1953)

The model in Figure 2-3 was presented by Carroll (1953) after being developed by members of a seminar in psychology and linguistics in the summer of 1951 at Cornell University. His main contribution was to identify and describe more fully the nature of each part of the channel in the model as a whole. This model is less technical than that of Shannon & Weaver, and more closely related to person-to-person communication.

**Figure 2-3. Carroll's Organismic Communication Model**



Carroll described *The intentive behaviour of the speaker* as a stage prior to information being transmitted. For example a speaker has some information to transmit but in the form of covert behaviour prior to being linguistically coded. The term 'information' differs from Shannon & Weaver's because according to Carroll 'information' can mean ideas, concepts, memories, or just images that the speaker has, which have meaning. 'Intentive behaviour' shows that these events are responses that will reinforce conditions of behaviour.

*Encoding behaviour of the speaker* is a stage where the speaker makes a series of "simultaneous and sequential 'choices' or 'decisions'" (p. 89). Carroll explained that the choices to respond "are conceived to be automatic but very complexly determined - not only by the nature of the 'information' before it is coded, but also by associated responses, previous choices which have been made, the feedback from previous overt responses, situational factors, the nature of the audience..." (p. 89). In all encoding behaviour there



are two choices to be made: “the choice of whether to make an overt response, and the decision to use a particular dialectal language system” (p. 89). That means a speaker can choose to respond verbally in any language or to respond in action without saying a word, depending on the context and audience.

When an individual performs his encoding behaviour overtly, he is presenting the message. Carroll said *The message* can be determined by using appropriate analysis to pin-point the noise. This is done by comparing the events mentioned by different speakers, or by the same speaker at different times. He said linguistic scientists have been able to determine the system of regularities (i.e. words) forming the linguistic code observable in a given speech community. Carroll cautioned that even though these words or linguistic units may represent the kind of response made by individual members of a speech community, this does not mean that it will correspond to the units of response selected for any particular utterance.

If the *Decoding behaviour in the hearer* is the same as the encoding behaviour of the speaker than the decoding behaviour can be described as “ a sequence of events which consists of the perception of the message by the hearer and a series of discriminatory responses to the elements of the message as contrasted with the ‘noise’ in the communication channel” (p. 91). The discriminatory responses are phonemes, morphemes and syntactical patterns which are socially reinforced learned responses, and the hearer is also guided by the context of the message.

*Interpretive behaviour in the hearer* is a stage where the ‘information’ is not linguistically coded. This stage is similar to the *intentional behaviour* by the speaker. The hearer understands the message and prepares to respond. His response can be as a speaker, as a thinker or by performing an action. “Interpretive behaviour consists of what may be called ‘sets to respond’ ” (p. 92).



Carroll's model draws attention to the human activities of intention and interpretation. The encoding behaviour of the speaker includes both the choices made by a communicator and the physiological behaviour necessary to make those choices available in the form of a physical event directed towards message production. Decoding involves both the perception of the physical event and a set of discriminatory responses to that event. The interpretive behaviour of the hearer depends on cognitive processes and provides the basis for some sort of action in response.

This model is a step away from the technical model of Shannon and Weaver in the sense that it involves people, but it is still linear in nature. This model helps to explain part of the process of communication in the classroom but, like that of Shannon and Weaver, fails to include the important element of feedback which is very crucial towards understanding of messages.

#### **2. 3. 4 Schramm's Models of Communication (1954)**

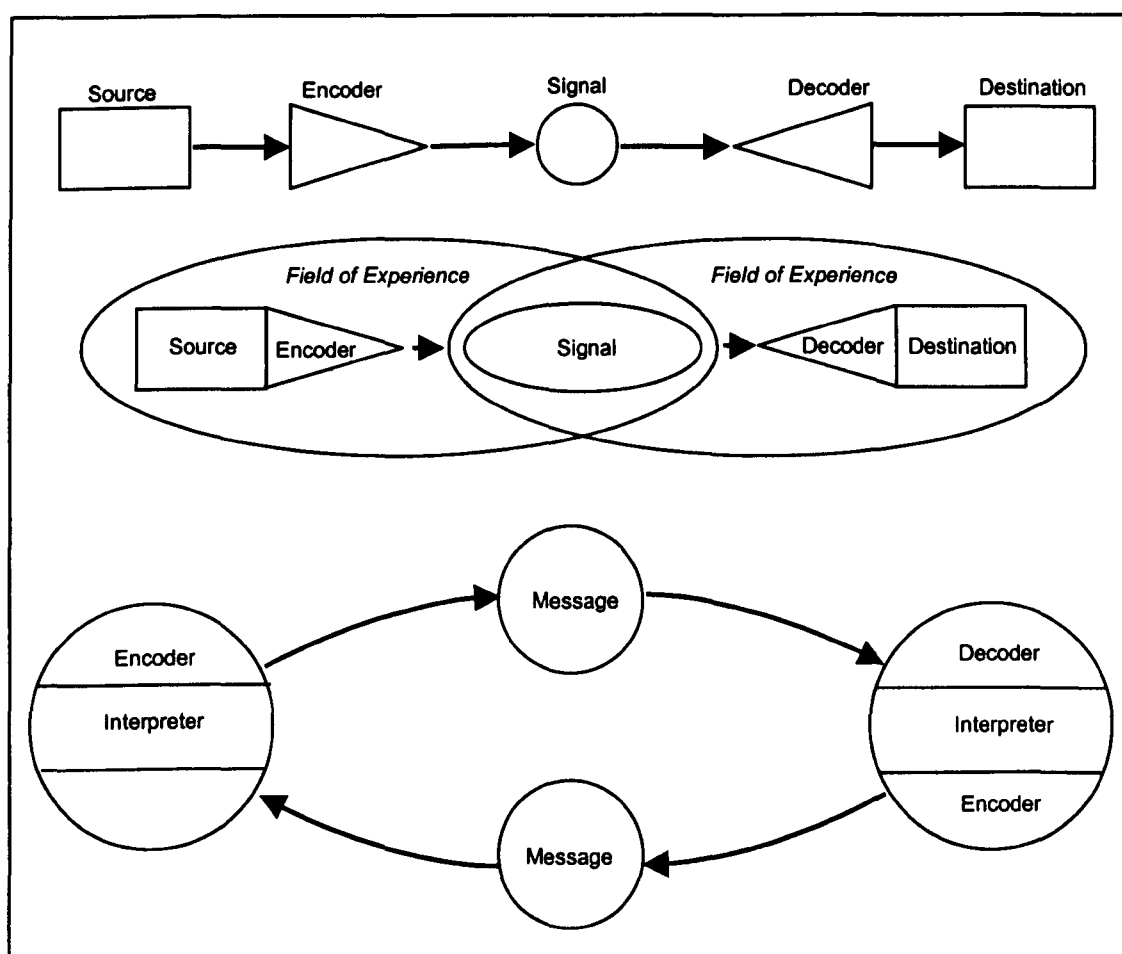
The traditional linear communication model clearly fixes and separates the roles of sender and receiver but Schramm (1954), believed that it was misleading to think of the communication process as starting somewhere and ending somewhere. He stressed that the communication process is endless. People are like switchboard centres managing and rerouting the enormous endless current of information.

With the above concept, Schramm developed the work of Shannon and Weaver (1949). Figure 2-4 shows his models.

Schramm built the top diagram in Figure 2-4, on the Shannon and Weaver Model of Communication, but he was more concerned with mass communication rather than the technology of communication transmission. Shannon and Weaver's terms: 'Transmitter' and 'Receiver' have been changed to 'Encoder' and 'Decoder'.

In the middle diagram, Schramm introduced the 'field of experience'. The field of experience refers to the type of orientation or attitudes which participants maintained with each other. Schramm explained that only what is shared in the fields of experience by the 'source' and the 'destination' is actually communicated, because only that segment of the signal is common to both parties. This part of the model demonstrates the overlapping, interactive nature of the communication process and the importance of the 'field of experience' (Watson & Hill, 1997).

**Figure 2-4. Three of the Schramm Models**



The last diagram deals with communication as an interaction between both parties. Schramm actually placed both parties as equals, engaging in encoding, decoding and interpreting activities that are maintained simultaneously by sender and receiver. The

word 'interpreter' is an abstract representation of the problem of meaning. Here we can see the model emphasises feedback and the circularity of the communication process.

Schramm proceeded from a simple human communication model to a model that accounted for the experiences of two individuals trying to communicate and then to a model that shows the interaction between two individuals. This model is especially useful in describing interpersonal communication where there is abundance of feedback, for example in the classroom situation. This model also suggests that the communication between a teacher and a student is endless and the 'field of experience' or the psychological frame of reference of the teacher must be shared with the 'field of experience' of the student before effective communication can take place.

One weakness of this model is that it indicates equality in communication; in normal interactions we find that communication is not balanced as far as communication resources, power and time given to communicate are concerned (McQuail & Windhal, 1993); for example, in the classroom situation we cannot deny that the balance of power is in favour of the teacher.

### **2. 3. 5 Gerbner's General Model of Communication (1956)**

Gerbner, Professor and Head of the Annenberg School of Communication, in the University of Pennsylvania, provided a model that may be given different shapes depending on the kind of communication situation it is being used to describe. The verbal part of the model, which has similarity with Lasswell's formula, also implies ten basic concepts of communication research.



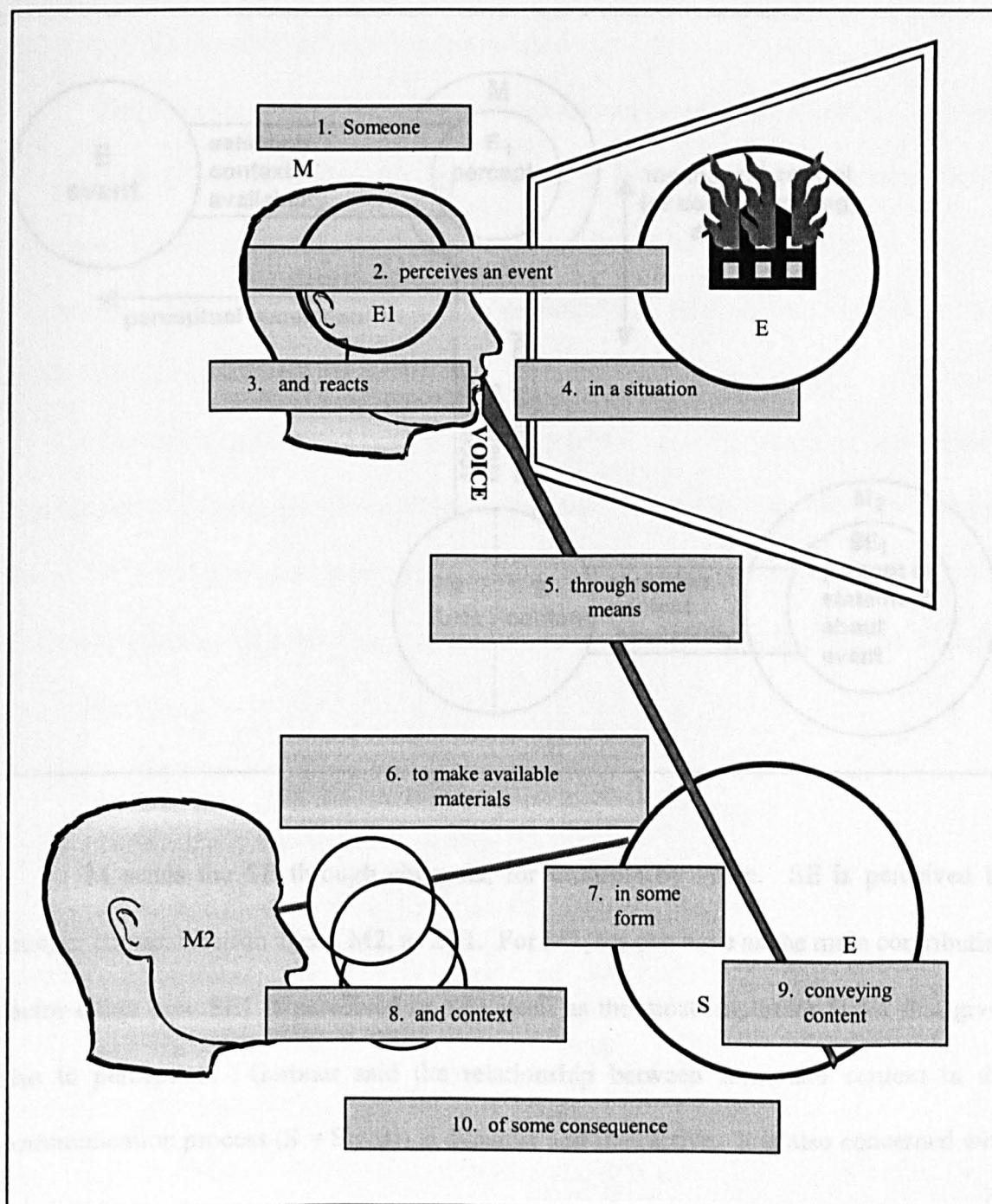
<b>Verbal Model</b>	<b>Areas of Study</b>
1. Someone	Communicator and audience research
2. perceives an event	Perception research and theory
3. and reacts	Effectiveness measurement
4. in a situation	Study of physical and social setting
5. through some means	investigation of channels, media, controls over facilities
6. to make available materials	Administration; distribution; freedom of access to materials
7. in some form	Structure, organization, style, pattern
8. and context	Study of communication setting, sequence
9. conveying content	Content analysis, study of meaning
10. of some consequence.	Study of overall changes

Gerbner also provided a pictorial model (Figure 2-5) to illustrate his verbal model. Elaborating on the models of Lasswell and Shannon and Weaver, Gerbner extended the components to include the notions of perception, reactions to a situation, and message context. Figure 2-6 shows Gerbner's general model of communication.

In Figure 2-6, E is the event. M is the person who perceives the event as E1. The relation between E, M and E1 is one of perception. At this level Gerbner looked at perception from two perspectives. One is to consider M as important determinant of E1; that is, how E1 is perceived depends on factors within M or tied to M such as assumptions, point of view, experiential background and other related factors. The next alternative is to consider E as the important factor that gives rise to perception. The vertical arm of the model shows that what will be perceived by M is determined by the

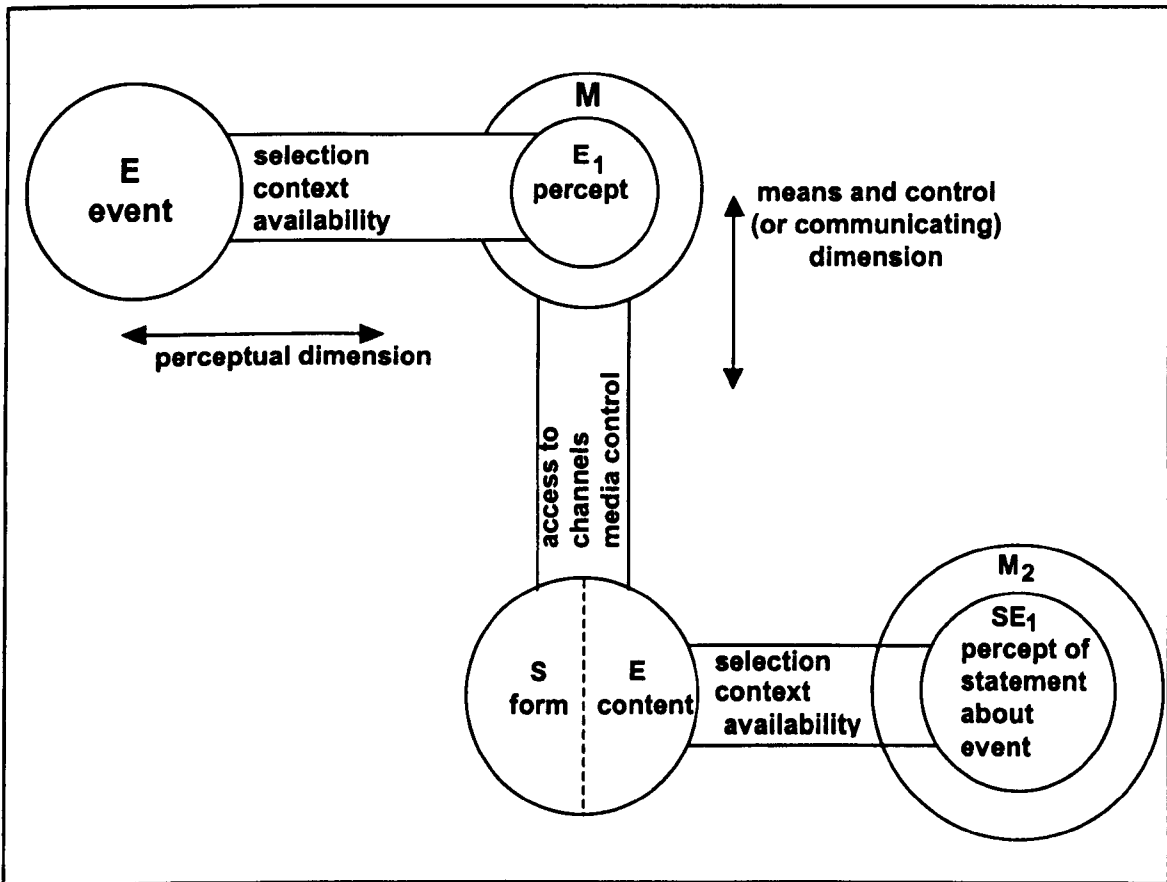
'selection, context and availability' of E and also other Es. In reviewing Gerbner's model, Corner and Hawthorn (1993) explained that "the mediations and transformations of particular selective and contextual factors introduce the difference between E and E1" (p. 13).

**Figure 2-5. Gerbner's Pictorial Model of Communication**



At the next stage M will communicate E1 to another person. M produces message SE (statement of event). S stands for 'shape, form' while E stand for 'content'. According to Gerbner, S is always coupled with E, the representational, content qualities of the signal. If it stands by itself, then it signifies noise.

**Figure 2-6. Gerbner's Model of Communication**



M sends the SE through channels, for example by voice. SE is perceived by another communication agent, M<sub>2</sub>, as SE<sub>1</sub>. For M<sub>2</sub>, we can have as the main contributing factor either how SE<sub>1</sub> is perceived or SE<sub>1</sub> itself as the most important factor that gives rise to perception. Gerbner said the relationship between form and context in the communication process (S = Signal) is dynamic and interactive. It is also concerned with

*access* and *control*, dimensions which inevitably affect the nature and content of communication messages; their selection, shaping and distortion.

From E to E1, from SE to SE1, Gerbner stresses the importance of *availability*. In the classroom, a teacher may have the capacity to read all the facts about space explorations and expeditions, all the pros and cons of sending a 'path-finder' or scientists to Mars, but that capacity can only operate, and the pros and cons only be properly weighed, if the necessary facts are made available.

This model is a useful aid to illustrate the communicative and perceptual problems in classroom situations: What will be perceived by the teacher M is determined by the 'selection, context and availability' of E and also other Es, how well teacher M expressed E1 into SE and the degree to which the perception SE1 of students M2, M3, M4, M5 and so on correspond to SE.

This model, although it does not adequately address the problem of how meaning is generated (Corner & Hawthorn 1993; Fiske, 1990; Watson & Hill, 1997), is still very useful for teachers because it suggests the difficulty of relaying events and problems of oral reporting from the role of M, as a teacher or a student, to the role of M2, as a teacher or a student.

### **2.3.6 Berlo's Model of Communication (1960)**

Berlo, who studied with Schramm at the University of Illinois, produced the model shown in Figure 2-7.

The model is a development in a sociological direction of the Shannon and Weaver (1949) model of communication which introduced the concept of 'noise' when discussing the 'fidelity' of electronic communication (Berlo, 1960). In his work, Berlo, focusing on factors associated with source and receiver that may affect the process of

communication and on distinguishing features of the messages that are exchanged, explained that:

A high-fidelity encoder is one that expresses the meaning of the source perfectly.

A high-fidelity decoder is one that translates a message for the receiver with complete accuracy. In analysing communication, we are interested in determining what increases or reduces the fidelity of the process. (p. 40)

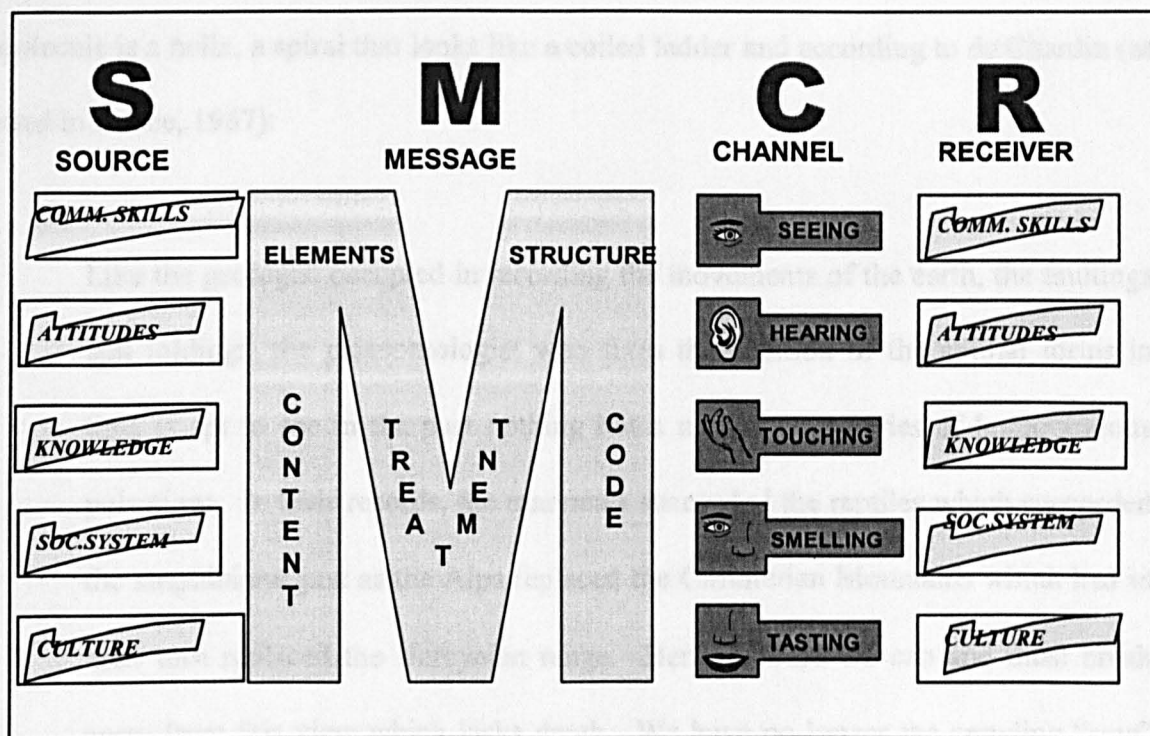
Berlo identified communication skills, attitudes, knowledge, culture and social systems of the source and the receiver as potential influences on encoding and decoding. This is an extension of Schramm's 'field of experience'. If Schramm looked at 'attitude', Berlo identified four more areas that must be shared by the source and the receiver for effective communication to take place.

Berlo also distinguished the features of the messages that are exchanged between the 'Source' and 'Receiver', with description of content, treatment, and code as primary matters of concern in analysis of messages.

He extended Laswell's (1948) concept, 'In which channel?', which was actually based on the type of media, and Shannon and Weaver's (1949) 'transmitter' and 'receiver', which were technical, to 'seeing', 'hearing', 'touching' 'smelling' and 'tasting', the five human senses. This is an important contribution to the description of communication processes in the classroom. Effective communication is more than vocal delivery. Body language, teaching aids, hands-on experience and other factors are potential influences on encoding and decoding.



**Figure 2-7. Berlo's Model of Communication**



Based on Berlo's model, there is no record of the flow of communication, though the assumption must be that it is conceived as linear - in a line from source to receiver. Both feedback and interaction of elements are implied, rather than made explicit.

### 2. 3. 7 Dance's Helical Model of Communication (1967)

While the earliest communication models were linear, their successors became circular, thus emphasising the crucial factor of feedback. Although Dance commended the circular communication model as an advance upon the linear one, he faulted it on the grounds that it suggests that communication comes back full-circle, to exactly the same point from which it started, an assumption which is "manifestly erroneous" (Dance, 1967, p. 294).

Dance had his inspiration from deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA). This DNA molecule is a helix, a spiral that looks like a coiled ladder and according to de Chardin (as cited in Dance, 1967):

Like the geologist occupied in recording the movements of the earth, the faultings and foldings, the palaeontologist who fixes the position of the animal forms in time is apt to see in the past nothing but a monotonous series of homogeneous pulsations. In their records, the mammals succeeded the reptiles which succeeded the amphibians, just as the Alps replaced the Cimmerian Mountains which had in their turn replaced the Hercynian range. Henceforward we can and must break away from this view which lacks depth. We have no longer the crawling “sine” curve, but the spiral which springs upward as it turns. From one zoological layer to another, something is carried over: it grows jerkily, but ceaselessly, and in a *constant direction*. ( p. 295)

The helix or spiral in Figure 2-8 for Dance “combines the desirable features of the straight line and of the circle while avoiding the weakness of either” (p. 296). He goes on:

At any and all times, the helix gives geometric testimony to the concept that Communication while moving forward is at the same moment coming back upon itself and being affected by its past behaviour, for the coming curve of the helix is fundamentally affected by the curve from which it emerges. Yet, even though slowly, the helix can gradually free itself from its lower-level distortions. The communication process, like the helix, is constantly moving forward and yet is

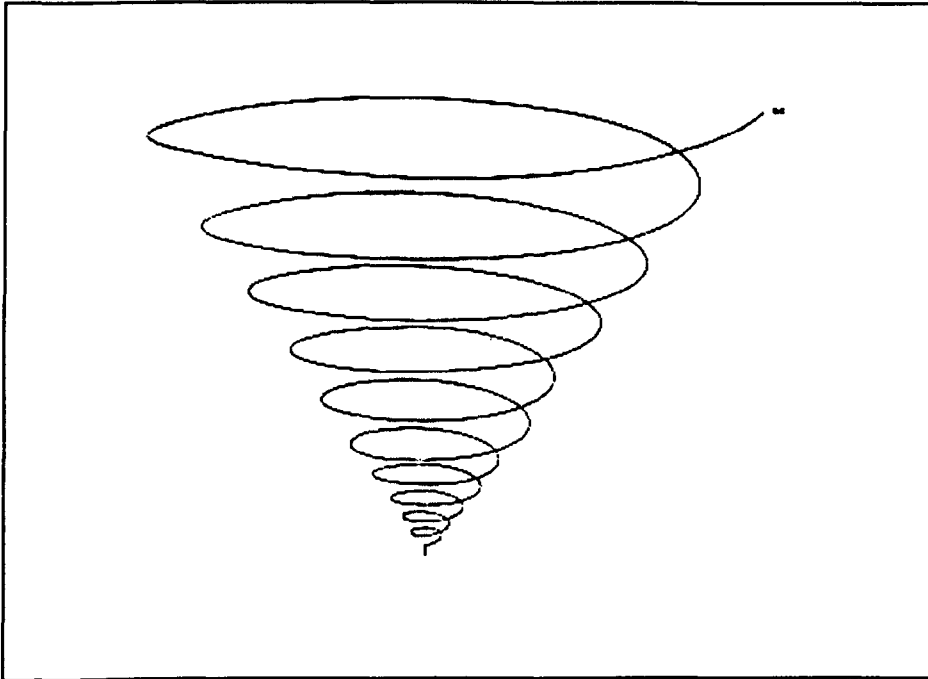
always to some degree dependent upon the past, which informs the present and the future. The helix communication model offers a flexible communication process. (p. 296)

The earlier models discussed give a sort of 'frozen' picture of the communication process. Dance underlines the dynamic nature of communication. The communication process, like all social processes, contains elements, relations and environments that are continually changing. The helix describes how different aspects of the process change over time. In a conversation, for example, the cognitive field is constantly widening for the parties or actors involved. The actors continually get more and more information about the actual topic, about the other's point of view, knowledge, etc.

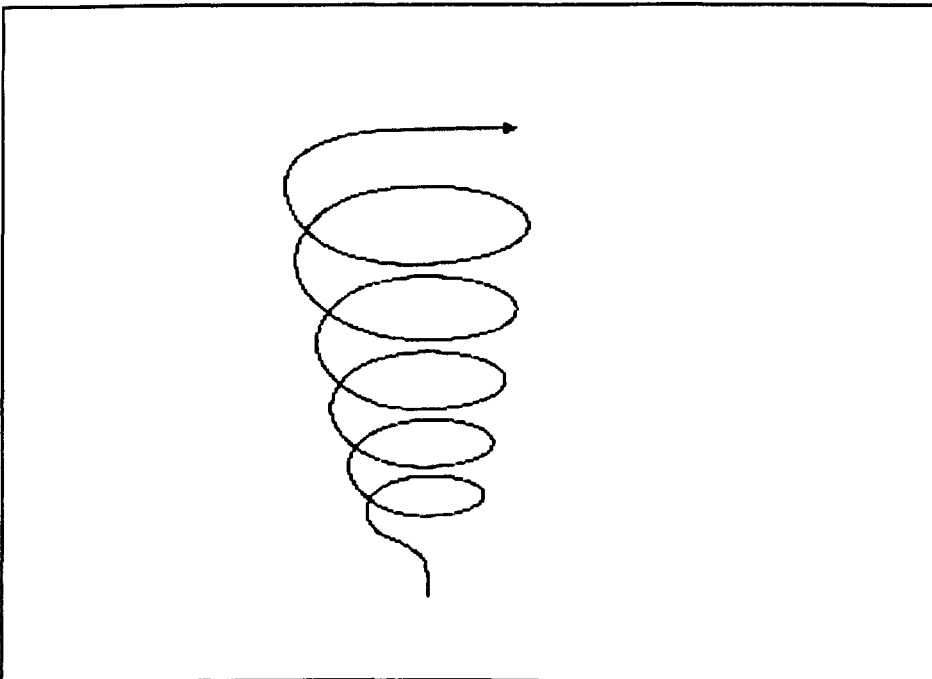
The helix takes on different shapes in different situations and for different individuals. For example in the Figure 2-8, the helix tends to widen very much, because of prior knowledge of the topic, whereas in Figure 2-9 the helix expands moderately due to more limited knowledge. The underlying assumption is knowledge tends to create more knowledge.

In reviewing Dance's model, Mortensen (1972) pointed that the helix implies a false degree of continuity from one communicative situation to another. He questioned the assumptions implied by the model:

**Figure 2-8. Dance's Helix Model of Human Communication**



**Figure 2-9. A Different Shape of Dance's Helix Model**



Note: Dance's helix model expands moderately due to little basic knowledge

Do we necessarily perceive all encounters as actually occurring in an undifferentiated, unbroken sequence of events?

Does an unbroken line not conflict with the human experience of discontinuity, intermittent periods, false starts, and so forth?

Is all communication a matter of growth, upward and onward, in an ever-broadening range of encounters?

If the helix represents continuous learning and growth, how can the same form also account for deterioration and decay?

What about the forces of entropy, inertia, decay and pathology?

Does not the unbroken line of a helix tacitly ignore the qualitative distinctions that inevitably characterise different communicative events?

What about movements which we define as utterly wasted, forced, or contrived?

How can the idea of continuous, unbroken growth include events we consider meaningless, artificial, or unproductive?

(Mortensen, 1972, p. 43)

Even though the above questions show that Dance's model is not a tool for detailed analysis, MacQuail and Windahl (1993) said that the model can be used to illustrate the concept of an "information gap" and they remarked that "its worth lies in that it reminds us of the dynamic nature of communication, something that is otherwise too easily forgotten .... one gets the notion from this model that man, when communicating, is active, creative and able to store information, whereas many other models depict the individual rather as a passive creature" (p. 22). The dynamic nature of classroom communication is seen in this model and this model highlights the problem of

information gap, which may exist in the classroom between teacher and student, and between good and poor student, and which is more likely in a mixed ability group.

### 2.3.8 Westley and MacLeans's Model of Communication (1955)

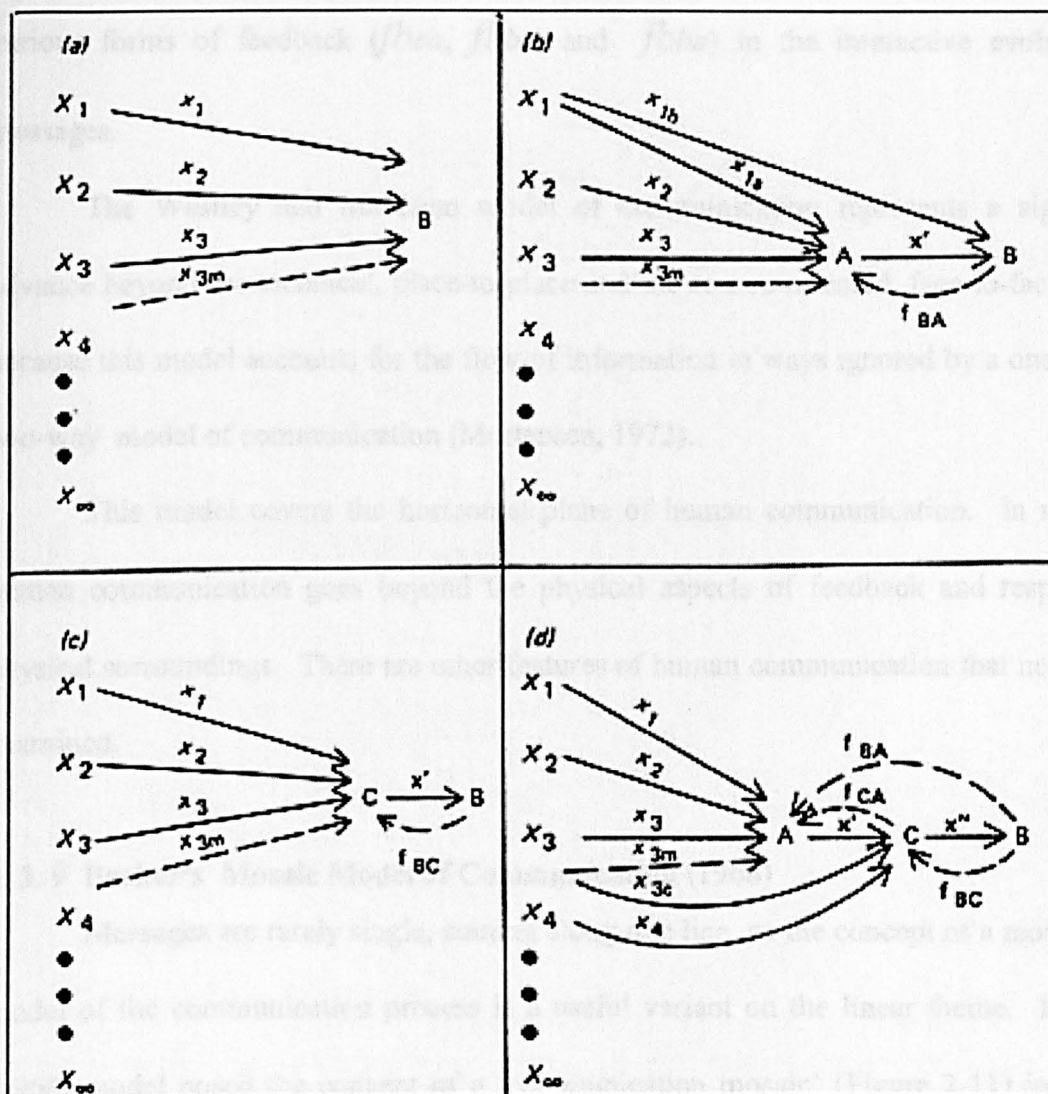
A conceptual model by Westley and MacLean was designed to represent communication over the whole range from the simplest face-to-face situation to the most complex social organization and the mass media. Westley and MacLean believed that communication begins before a person starts to talk. The pretalk phase is when a person responds selectively to his immediate physical surroundings.

In Figure 2-10a, we can see that B as a receiver has his own response to his sensory experience ( $X_1 \dots X$ ) by the process of selection among all Xs. The selection is partly based on the needs and problems of B. Some or all of the messages are transmitted in more than one sense ( $X_{3m}$  for example).

In Figure 2-10b, we can see that A has his own responses to his sensory experiences and makes a selection among all Xs before transmitting to B, indicated by  $X'$ . B may or may not have part or all part of the Xs that A does in his own sensory field ( $X_{1b}$ ). Whether intentionally or in fortuitous ways, B transmits feedback ( $f_{BA}$ ) to A.

In Figure 2-10c, the Xs that B receives may result from selected abstractions which are transmitted without purpose by the encoder, C, who acts for B and thus extends B's environment. C's selections are necessarily based in part on feedback ( $f_{Bc}$ ) from B. An important component in figure c, is the abstraction of C which represents the role of intermediary, a person who gives some items of information to B about A in the total absence of A. The model applies to situations where not all communicators are present at one time.

Figure 2-10. Westley and MacLean's Model of Communication



Finally, in Figure 2-10d, the messages which  $C$  transmits to  $B$  ( $x''$ ) represent  $C$ 's selection both from the messages he gets from  $A$  ( $x'$ ) and from the abstractions in his own sensory field ( $x_{3c}, x_4$ ), which may or may not be in  $A$ 's field. Feedback moves not only from  $B$  to  $A$  ( $f_{BA}$ ) and from  $B$  to  $C$  ( $f_{BC}$ ) but also from  $C$  to  $A$  ( $f_{CA}$ ).

On the whole this model is focused on the potential signals (&s) in a communicator's environment. It attempts to picture how communicator ( $A$ ) selects and recombines those signals to form a message that may be mediated or edited by a second communicator ( $C$ ) who has his own sensory field before it reaches a third communicator

(B), who also has his own sensory field. The model also invites attention to the role of various forms of feedback ( $fb_{ca}$ ,  $fb_{bc}$ , and  $fb_{ba}$ ) in the interactive evolution of messages.

The Westley and MacLean model of communication represents a significant advance beyond the technical, place-to-place and the source-oriented, face-to-face model because this model accounts for the flow of information in ways ignored by a one way or two-way model of communication (Mortensen, 1972).

This model covers the horizontal plane of human communication. In real life, human communication goes beyond the physical aspects of feedback and response to physical surroundings. There are other features of human communication that need to be examined.

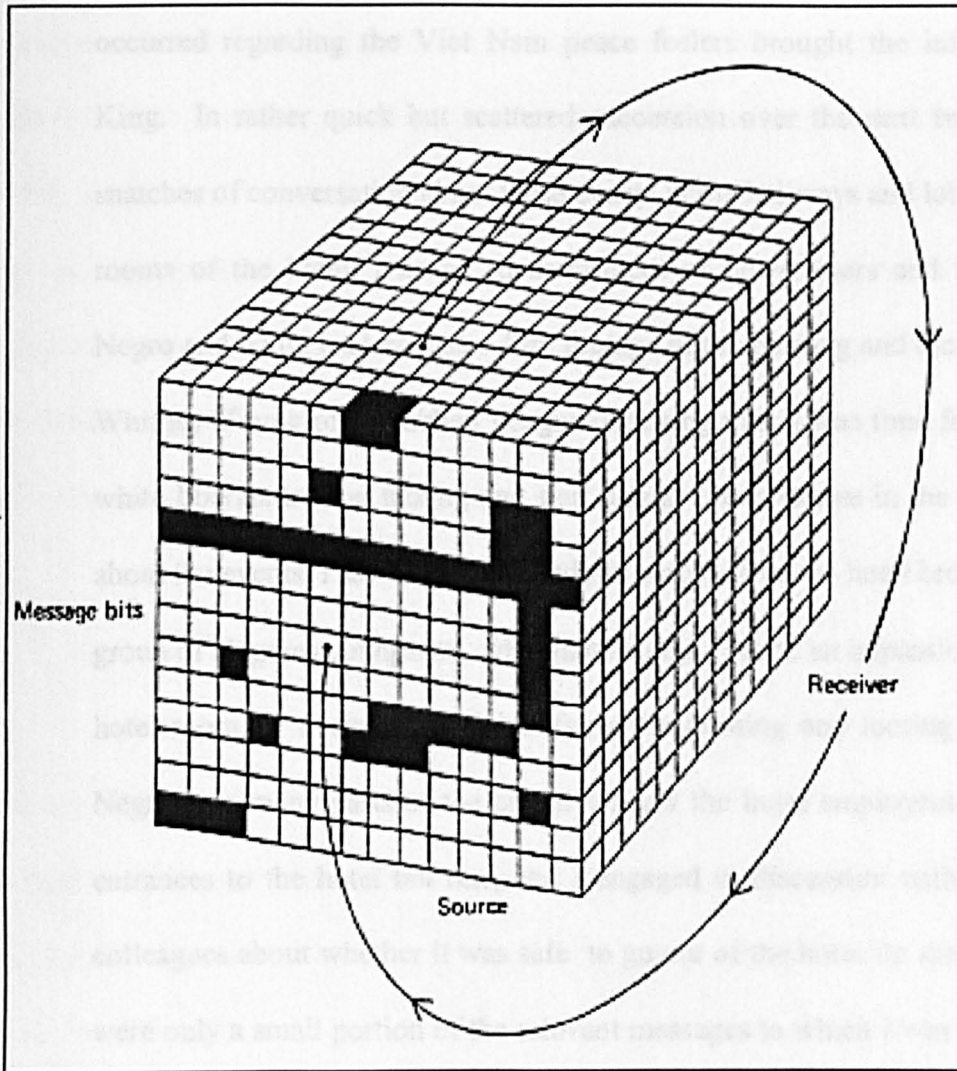
### **2. 3. 9 Becker's Mosaic Model of Communication (1968)**

Messages are rarely single, coming along one line, so the concept of a mosaic as a model of the communication process is a useful variant on the linear theme. Becker's (1968) model posed the concept of a 'communication mosaic' (Figure 2-11) indicating that most communicative acts link message elements from more than the immediate social situation - from early impressions, previous conversations, from the media, from half-forgotten comments: a mosaic of source influences.

Becker gave his personal experience as an example to illustrate how message bits link together:



**Figure 2-11 Becker's Mosaic Model of Communication (1968)**



An informal test of the validity of this type of 'mosaic' as an analogue of the communication process may be carried out if you consider the way in which your image of the murder of Martin Luther King and the aftermath of that murder was formed and recall that this was the image that affected the probability of your wiring your Congressman to vote for the open-housing law and may well affect some of your votes in the next election. I first heard of the assassination from a Chicago cab driver as we were coming to the LaSalle Hotel for the Central States Speech Convention. He wondered (aloud of course) whether President Johnson

was going on television that night. My query about whether something new had occurred regarding the Viet Nam peace feelers brought the information about King. In rather quick but scattered succession over the next two days I heard snatches of conversation about these events in the hallways and lobby and meeting rooms of the hotel, I heard an assortment of newscasters and interviews with Negro and white leaders, I saw film footage of the burning and the looting, I heard Whitney Young of the Urban League declaring that it was time for us self-styled white liberals to stop talking and start doing, I read stories in the Chicago papers about the events, I saw the store windows across from the hotel broken by one of a group of Negroes youngsters who marched by, I heard an impassioned speech in a hotel room by a close friend justifying the burning and looting being done by Negroes in many parts of the country, I saw the hotel employees locking all the entrances to the hotel but one, and I engaged in discussion with my friend and colleagues about whether it was safe to go out of the hotel for dinner. And these were only a small portion of the relevant messages to which I was exposed during that two-day period. Not only was I exposed to messages, I was forced to respond to many - to create my own messages and, in the process, to develop points of view about the events. Many of these communication transactions were redundant. I even heard myself responding to various individuals with the same phrases. In other words, there were two kinds of processes at work: there was an ever-increasing number and variety of pieces and sources of information and, at the same time, there was a certain amount of repetitiveness, of going through the same similar transaction again and again. (p. 16)

The layers of Becker's mosaic cube match the layers of information received by students. Some of the information is probably received from the mass media, for example television programmes, part of it from the students' parents or from their peers, and in class, again, bits of the information are delivered by their teacher. Some elements of the mosaic are obvious, while others are blocked out. The model illustrates the complexity of the many layers of the communication process and the interaction between its 'cubes' of information, showing the internal as well as the external exchanges experienced by an individual.

### **2.3.10 Barnlund's Transactional Models of Communication (1970)**

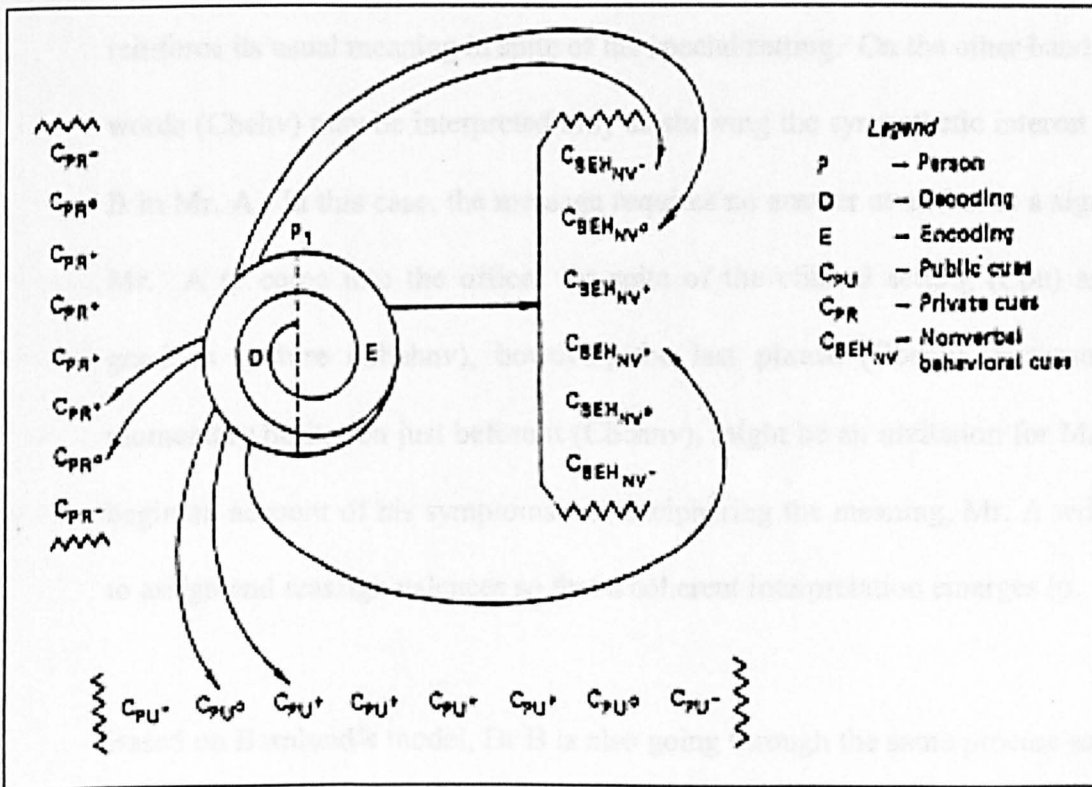
Barnlund attempted to address the 'complexities of human communication' in his models (Figures 2-12 and 2-13). For Barnlund, communication describes both the evolution of meaning and aims at the reduction of uncertainty. He said, "It should be stressed that meaning is something 'invented', 'assigned', 'given', rather than something 'received'" (p. 88).

Barnlund says within and around a communicator there are unlimited number of cues, some carry more weight than others at any given time. Barnlund's model indicates three sets of cues, each interacting upon one another. These are public cues, private cues and behavioural cues. Decoding and encoding are visualised as part of the same spiralling process - continuous, unrepeatable and irreversible.

Barnlund divides public cues into natural and artificial. The natural public cues include atmospheric conditions, rivers, sun etc. Artificial public cues are those that have been modified and manipulated by man. For example, to illustrate intrapersonal communication (Figure 2-12), Barnlund places his communicant, Mr A, in a doctor's waiting room:

At the moment he is faintly aware of an antiseptic odour in the room, which reinforces his confidence in the doctor's ability to diagnose his illness (*positive public cues =  $C_{PU}$* ). As he glances through a magazine (*neutral private cues =  $C_{PR\theta}$* ) he is conscious of how comfortable his chair feels after a long day on his feet (*positive private cues =  $C_{PR}$* ). Looking up, he glances at the Miro reproduction on the wall, but is unable to decipher it (*neutral public cues =  $C_{PU\theta}$* ). He decides to call the nurse. As he rises, he clumsily drops his magazine (*negative non-verbal behavioural cues =  $C_{BEHV-}$* ) and stoops to pick it up, crosses the room (*neutral non-verbal behavioural cues =  $C_{BEHV\theta}$* ), and rings the call bell firmly and with dignity (*positive non-verbal behavioural cues =  $C_{BEHV}$* ) (p. 98, italics are added).

Figure 2-12. Barnlund's Pilot Model of Intrapersonal Communication (1970)



At the interpersonal level (Figure 2-13), Barnlund indicated that before verbal interchange take place, there is a change in the person, such as self-consciousness and limited personal action:

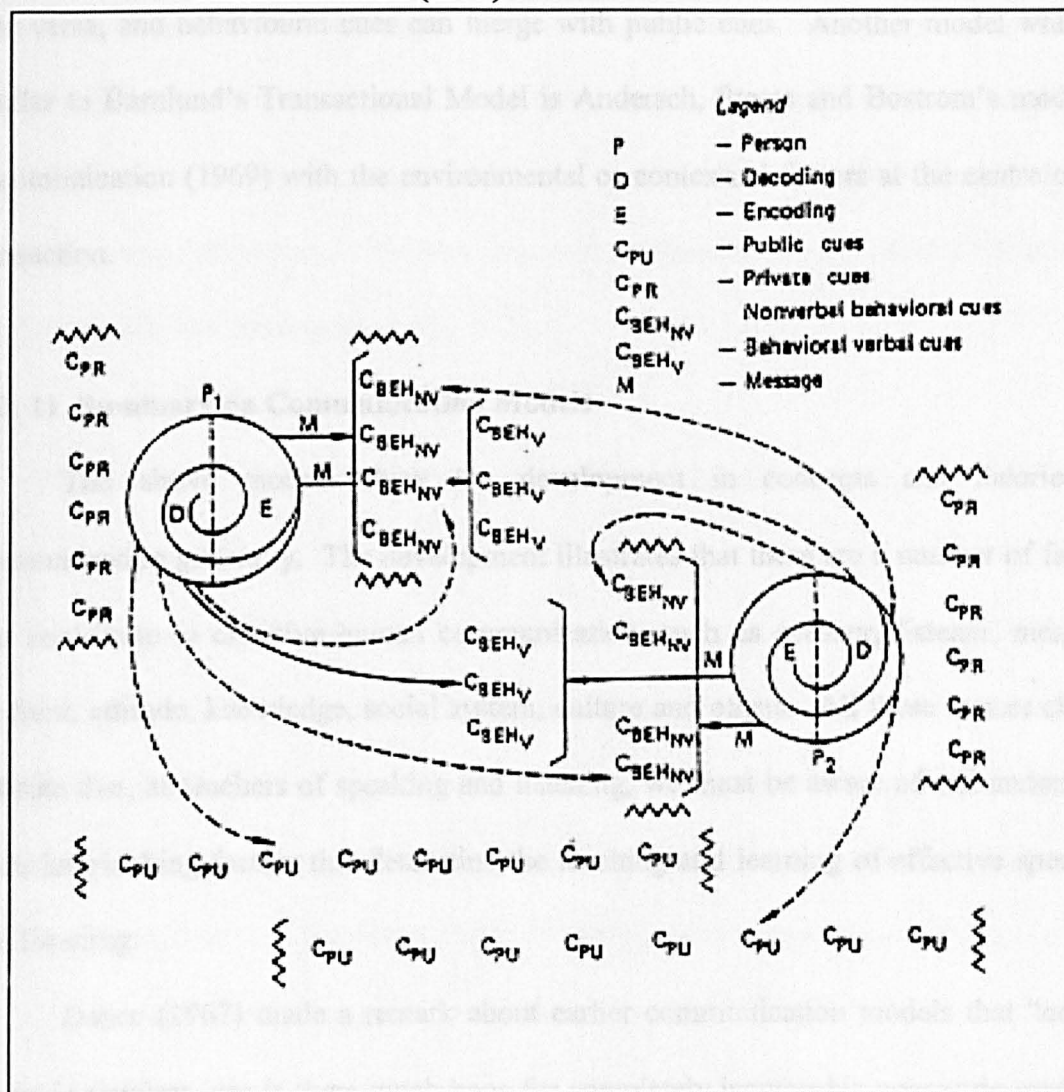
Dr. B, crossing the room, may initiate the conversation. Extending his hand, he says, "Mr. A! So glad to see you. How are you?" At this point, despite the seeming simplicity of the setting and prosaic content of the message, Mr. A must solve a riddle in meaning of considerable complexity. In a nonclinical environment where the public cues would be different, perhaps on a street corner (Cpu), Mr. A would regard this message (Cbehv) as no more than a social gesture, and he would respond in kind. This, on the other hand, is a clinic (Cpu). Is this remark, therefore, to be given the usual interpretation? Even here, the non-verbal cues (Cbehv) of Dr. B, the friendly facial expression and extended hand, may reinforce its usual meaning in spite of the special setting. On the other hand, those words (Cbehv) may be interpreted only as showing the sympathetic interest of Dr. B in Mr. A. In this case, the message requires no answer at all but is a signal for Mr. A to come into the office. In spite of the clinical setting (Cpu) and the gracious gesture (Cbehv), however, the last phrase (Cbehv), because of a momentary hesitation just before it (Cbehv), might be an invitation for Mr. A to begin an account of his symptoms. In deciphering the meaning, Mr. A will have to assign and reassign valences so that a coherent interpretation emerges (p. 100).

Based on Barnlund's model, Dr B is also going through the same process as Mr A during interpersonal communication:

Dr B is involved in weaving some interpretations of his own out of the cues he detects and the valences he assigns to them. Mr. A smiles back and says, "Nice to see you again, too. I wish the circumstances were different." At this moment Dr. B turns his attention from the carpet which needs repairing (Cpu) to Mr. A. How should he interpret this message? Since they are in the clinic (Cpu) it is not surprising that Mr. A should speak of the "circumstances" of his visit. Yet, could this be a warning that the visit concerns a serious medical problem rather than a trivial one? Mr A's relaxed posture (Cbehnv) does not reinforce the former meaning, but his flushed face does (Cbehnv). Or could this remark be no more than a semi-humorous reference to a past episode on the golf links (Cpr)? In any case, Dr. B, like Mr. A, must reduce the ambiguity in the situation by experimentally assigning meanings to public, private, non-verbal and verbal cues, relating them to the surrounding conditions of time and place, and determining the extent of congruence or incongruence in the meanings given to them (p. 100-101).

Reviewing Barnlund's model, Mortensen (1972) commented that this model assumes that communication describes the evolution of meaning. The model presupposes that the terms communication and meaning are synonymous and interchangeable, "yet nowhere does the model deal in even rudimentary way with the difficult problem of meaning" (Mortensen, 1972 p. 53).

**Figure 2-13. Barnlund's Transactional Model of Interpersonal Communication (1970)**



Barnlund's models are applicable to a certain extent to explain communication in the classroom as long as teachers consider the 'difficult problem of meaning'. Contextual or environmental factors are important in influencing the process of encoding and decoding. For example in a strained social environment, the process of encoding and decoding will be different compared to in a relaxed environment. In fact, "the study of semiotics has shown that much of classroom communication is carried via such signs as body language, furniture and organisation, timetabling and many other systems of signs" (Hodge, 1993, p. 21).



Barnlund also explained that public cues can be transformed into private cues or vice versa, and behavioural cues can merge with public cues. Another model which is similar to Barnlund's Transactional Model is Andersch, Staats and Bostrom's model of Communication (1969) with the environmental or contextual factors at the centre of the transaction.

### **2. 3. 11 Summary on Communication Models**

The above models show the development in concepts and theories of communication generally. The development illustrates that there are a number of factors that contribute to effective human communication, such as speaker, listener, message, medium, attitude, knowledge, social system, culture and others. All these factors clearly indicate that, as teachers of speaking and listening, we must be aware of and understand these interlocking factors that determine the teaching and learning of effective speaking and listening.

Dance (1967) made a remark about earlier communication models that "neither model is flawless, nor is there much hope for completely isomorphic geometric model of something as complex as human communication" (p. 295). Based on the same line of thought, we have to acknowledge that even though each model is not perfect, each model has its own contribution towards the understanding of communication. After all, the models presented are not so "sacred" (McQuail & Windhal, 1993, p. 3); they can be given a somewhat different shape and formulation. Modeling, after all, is a form of intellectual play which Chapanis (1961) describes as a grown-up sophisticated version of a child's game, but a game nonetheless. It should be apparent that teachers are in a position to construct their own models of a certain aspect of the communication process as a means of elucidation. The models could give teachers a general perspective and specific insight,



as long as they are willing to speculate, to think of the implications, to compare analogies, to identify gaps in their knowledge. Models help one to understand the complexity of forces at work in even the simplest act of communication, the simplest act of speaking and listening, and provide opportunity for application. Teachers' knowledge of communication processes can be very important in helping them to deal with speaking and listening in the classroom.

## 2.4 EXAMINING THEORIES OF SPEAKING AND LISTENING IN THE CLASSROOM

As a guide to the theories of speaking and listening in the classroom, four works are reviewed here: Taylor (1983), Kantor and Rubin (1981), Kingman (1988) and Goss (1989). Taylor looked at the development of speaking and listening theories in the classroom from 1921 to the mid 70s. Kantor and Rubin proposed a model of speaking-writing differentiation in the development of communication in speech and proposed that listening as a social act. Kingman gave a four-part model of English. Part 2 of his model is on communication. Goss (1989) proposed a three level-model of the listening process.

In the classroom situation, knowledge of the theories behind the teaching of speaking and listening is very important to ensure that the teaching is effective. Unfortunately:

Teachers and Examination Boards have generally ignored *the body of theory, or theories, that give intellectual coherence to what happens in the classroom* [italics added]. We have ignored the fact that there are substantial bodies of theory behind oral work and, most importantly, that the practice and assessment

techniques to which they give rise are often contradictory and exclusive of one another.

(Taylor, 1983, pp. 49-50)

Taylor outlined what he saw as the major bodies of theory which give rise to three models of oral work: the social accomplishment model, the competence model and the talk as learning model.

#### **2. 4. 1 The Social Accomplishment Model**

Taylor explains that this model has its basis in a tradition of ‘good speech’: from classical oratory, medieval rhetoric, the courteous manner of the Elizabethan gentleman and the rhetoric of eighteenth and nineteenth centuries onwards. “The essential features of the tradition are a belief in the correctness of particular forms and an assertion that the correct language of these forms needs to be taught, since the speech of the child is lacking in form and correctness” (Taylor, 1983, p. 50).

This view of the child’s natural language as being inferior to the more formal ‘taught’ kind is the basis of a great deal of elementary education, even today. Taylor examined two important reports, Newbolt (DES, 1921) and Newsom (CACfE, 1963), and concluded that these reports clearly have this model in mind. The Newbolt Report stated that “teachers of infants sometimes complain that when the children come to school, they can scarcely speak at all” (p. 68) and they lamented the presence “in a great number of schools ... of children habitually mispronouncing words, or mumbling rather than pronouncing them” (p. 65) as a result of home influence. The Newbolt Report pointed out that “the inability to speak standard English is in practice a serious handicap in many ways”. The report suggested remedying the problem by ‘social development’ that is “to

replace the patois of the home by the English of the school” (Tomkinson, 1927, p. 17). For the Newsom Report, “social development” means the “upward mobility” of those pupils who need the development of an “adequacy” of speech (CACfE, 1963).

This theory is based on the assumption that students must be taught good spoken English if they want to be successful and move higher in the social ladder. Taylor attributes inadequate teacher understanding of Bernstein’s (1971) work as a reason for their support of the deficit model. In this theory the working class child’s ‘restricted code’ which was ‘inarticulate’ and close to being a ‘patois’ was contrasted with the universally desirable ‘elaborated code’ of the middle class.

#### **2. 4. 2 The Competence Model**

Competence is a term used in linguistic theory “to refer to a person’s knowledge of his language, the system of rules which he has mastered so that he is able to produce and understand an indefinite number of sentences, and to recognise grammatical mistakes and ambiguities” (Crystal, 1985). The distinction between ‘competence’ and ‘performance’ is discussed by Wilkinson (1971). He defines ‘competence’ as the “possession of vocabulary and grammar, and the potential ability to use them” (p. 115), and ‘performance’ as “the use actually made of competence” (p. 115). Wilkinson explains the difficulty to measure ‘competence’, because we can only observe it through ‘performance’.

The competence model has had an important effect in promoting oral work in schools. It draws heavily on the work, during the 1960s and early 1970s, of Halliday (1964), Wilkinson (1965) and Doughty, Pearce, and Thornton (1972). This model is based on the theory propounded by Chomsky (1965) and others, that each child possesses a facility for developing “a complete language system for the environment within which

he lives” (Taylor, 1983, p. 52). The emphasis is shifted from notions of ‘deficiency’ towards the concept of language which meets the demands of the circumstances in which it is employed. This model recognises varieties of ‘style’ and ‘register’ within a single person’s language use, none of which is of intrinsically greater value than the others. Halliday, McIntosh and Stevens (1964) explain that “wrong is a social judgement: What is meant by it is ‘the best people’ use this form not that form!” (p.107). The appropriateness of an utterance is viewed in relation to its social context. The student must be able to choose an appropriate style and register based on speech situations: audience, purpose, setting and content.

In order to use language, Doughty et al. (1972) emphasised the importance of the speaker’s intuitive assessment of the situation. The development and the assessment of spoken language according to this model requires that the student be given experience of a variety of situations in which to exercise his or her ‘competence’.

#### **2. 4. 3 The Talk as Learning Model**

The work of Britton (1970) is seen as an extension of the competence model. Britton identifies for the speaker both ‘participant’ and ‘spectator’ roles. In distinguishing these, the function of the language is as important as the speaker’s audience:

Informing people, instructing people, persuading people, arguing, explaining, planning, setting forth pros and cons and coming to a conclusion - these are participant uses of language to get things done. Make believe play, day-dreaming aloud, chatting about our experiences, gossip, travellers’ tales and other story

telling, fiction, the novel, drama, poetry - these are uses of language in the spectator role.

(Britton, 1970, p. 122)

One important concept in this model is that the speaker is concerned with “the forms of the language used” only in the spectator role. In the participant role the psychological processes underlying the language are more important than its ‘surface features’ which are seen as an exploratory means to an end. According to Britton, one can assess ‘deep structure’ only by the extent to which the purpose of the language is fulfilled.

#### **2. 4. 4 The Differentiation Model of Speaking-writing**

Kantor and Rubin (1981) proposed a differentiation model of speaking-writing. The discussion below looks into the speaking aspect only. Kantor and Rubin see the development of communication in speech in three facets: social awareness, coding, and reconstruction of experience. These three facets, according to them, can happen simultaneously, either supporting or hindering each other.

##### **Social Awareness**

In this developmental model the central component is social awareness. Here, communication is seen as a social act with some intention to affect and be affected by others. Therefore it is necessary for individuals to infer information about their audiences: Their backgrounds, beliefs and attitudes, their interests and their experience, their language processing ability, their beliefs and attitudes, their experience. The process of making such inferences about an audience’s covert states is known as role-taking or

social perspective-taking (Delia & Clark, 1977; Flavell, Botkin, Fry, Wright, & Jarvis, 1968).

Role-taking or social-perspective taking begins with the extreme egocentrism which assumes that others' perspectives are identical with one's own. Egocentrism is a term developed by Piaget (1926) to describe talk by children without necessarily having an audience such as thinking aloud or when speakers follow their own lines of thought, associating but with no intention to communicate. Further study was undertaken by Vygotsky (1962). Based on empirical studies, it was found that egocentrism was common among children until the age of 5-7.

Social awareness is not only age related but also affected by task difficulty. In the classroom situation, if the audience's identity is not fully known to the students, then audience awareness is a problem. The classroom assignment normally requires a student to imagine 'general others', a task which is often beyond their knowledge and experience. Selman and Byrne (1974) stressed that to conceptualise a highly abstract 'general other' requires cognitive effort. This situation is different in face-to-face interaction, where the audience's concrete presence and exchange of verbal and non-verbal feedback help the speaker to understand the audience.

## **Coding**

The second stage of communicative development is coding, which includes the 'mechanics' of speaking, such as articulation, enunciation and projection; and organisational control over discourse and knowledge of language pragmatics. Communicators with ability to code can convey both a persona and an attitude towards an audience. Taking the examples, 'Would you like me to drive you home?' as opposed to,

‘Wanna ride?’, the choice between grammatical and stylistic, is a choice to be made by the speaker, depending on the audience and context.

### **Reconstruction of Experience**

The third facet of communication development is reconstruction of experience. The term ‘reconstruction’ relate this model to a phenomenological perspective. According to Kantor and Rubin we see the world with greater or lesser degrees of accuracy. They explained that we construe the world according to our own systems of personal constructs, with greater or lesser degrees of definition, abstraction, and organisation. We build and shape events to conform to the way we want them to be seen, forcing them into significance. This is how man constructs and again reconstructs experience, giving it a new perspective, new form and new meaning.

Looking at communication as epistemic, as a way of exploring knowledge and the world, indicates that speakers build and extend their data base through preliminary research or experience. Briefly, the symbol manipulation involved in expressing an idea itself promotes a process of discovery (Bruner, 1966).

Educators, according to Rubin and Kantor, have specifically emphasised the value of speaking as a tool for learning about one’s self and one’s world. Classroom talk can serve as a tool for understanding and learning, apart from the function of conveying that understanding.

#### **2. 4. 5 Kingman’s Model of English: Part 2(i) Communication and Comprehension (Kingman, 1988)**

The Kingman committee appreciated the ‘understanding of the complex ways in which context affects our use of language’ (p. 23). They proposed a four-part model of

English (Appendix 2-1). Even though the models are interrelated and overlap, only the second part of the model on communication and comprehension will be looked into. The model on communication assumes the speaker and the listener are strongly controlled by the context: internal and external. Figure (2-14) below shows part 2 (i) of the model, with some of the main features of context which are relevant in conversations where the speaker and listener are talking face to face.

**Figure 2-14. Kingman Model of English: Part 2 (i) Communication and Comprehension**

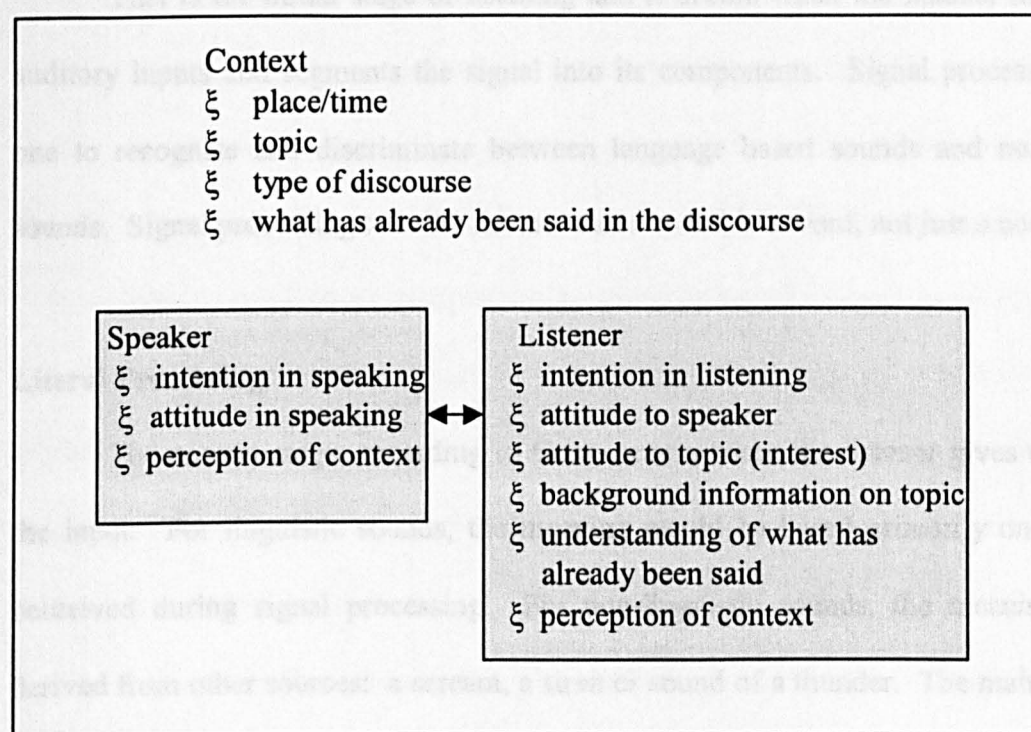


Figure 2-14 shows that how speaker and listener communicate depends on the context such as the place or the time, the topic of discussions, the type of discourse (formal, informal, informative, persuasive), and what has transpired in earlier discourse.

Part 2 (ii) of the model is on comprehension . The emphasis here is on the process of understanding; that is, understanding language in the context of use.



#### **2. 4. 6 The Intrapersonal Listening Process: Three-level model**

Goss (1989) proposed a three-level model that describes listening behaviour as a speech perception process, that is, a social skill. He defines listening as “ the process of taking what you hear and organising it into verbal units to which you can apply meaning” (p.110). He proposed a three stage model:

##### **Signalling Processing**

This is the initial stage of listening and it occurs when the listener monitors the auditory inputs and segments the signal into its components. Signal processing allows one to recognise and discriminate between language based sounds and non-linguistic sounds. Signal processing tells the listener that a sound is a word, not just a noise.

##### **Literal Processing**

The second stage, according to Goss, occurs when the listener gives meaning to the input. For linguistic sounds, the meaning would be based primarily on the words perceived during signal processing. For non-linguistic sounds, the meaning may be derived from other sources: a scream, a siren or sound of a thunder. The main feature of this stage is the basic interpretation of the segmental signals.

##### **Reflective Processing**

The third stage of the intrapersonal listening process is listening at its deepest level. It occurs when listeners think about the messages they receive, beyond their initial or literal impressions. People can reflect on a message in many different ways. How they reflect depends on the socialisation process that they have gone through which shapes their attitude, belief and self-esteem. Other non-personal factors, also, might influence

the way they reflect on a message. Goss's three stage model focuses on the internal (information processing) aspects of listening.

#### **2. 4. 7 The Interpersonal Listening Process: Listening as a Social Skill**

Listening is the subset of decoding which deals, primarily, with information that is verbally communicated. In recent years the study of listening has increasingly turned to the social skills (communicative competence) literature for a theoretical grounding (e.g., Bostrom, 1990; Cooper & Husband, 1993; Rhodes, Watson, & Barker, 1990; Wolvin & Coakley, 1993). From a competence perspective "competent listening cannot be defined as only a possession of knowledge; effective, or competent, listening is a behavioural act, and like other behavioural acts, listening can be improved" (Rhodes et al., 1990, p. 64).

When viewed from a competence perspective, a performance oriented approach to listening is generally taken. The concern of these studies is with the listening skills of the participants (Wolvin & Coakley, 1992). Variables such as listening comprehension and confidence as a listener are part of the researcher's concern. Most of the work on competence centres on listening comprehension - that is, how much of the message a listener remembers. People form social bonds through their communication skills. To be a skilful communicator one needs effective speaking and listening skills. The quality of conversations is often dependent on the speaking and listening skills of the participants. Yet, to be a competent communicator in interpersonal settings, one also needs to manage conversations effectively and to be sensitive to a number of variables affecting interaction. Trenholm and Jenson (1988) contend that competent communicators exhibit four kinds of social skills. Two of them, interpretive competence and message competence, are decoding skills. Both denote one's ability to label, organise, and interpret messages. Thus, competent communicators must know how to interpret

accurately the signals being sent to them. They must know how to listen. Listening, then, is an important social skill that is a critical avenue for linking oneself with others (Cooper & Husband, 1993; Wolvin & Coakley, 1993).

In sum, skilful listeners accurately interpret and assign meaning to messages, and are responsive participants in conversations. They use their listening skills to affiliate with others and become a part of social life.

#### **2. 4. 8 Summary of the Theories of Speaking and Listening in the Classroom**

We have seen that the different approaches to speaking and listening produced different models and theories. Taylor saw how the classroom's theories of speaking and listening developed from a narrow function as a tool to climb the social ladder, to a competence model which emphasised style and register based on social context, and developed later as a 'talk as learning' model. Rubin and Kantor viewed it from the developmental aspect while Kingman's Model emphasised context. Goss, on the other hand, looked at listening on the intrapersonal level. Rubin and Kantor proposed that speaking and listening are social acts at the interpersonal level. Teachers should be looking at speaking and listening from a variety of perspectives so as to understand the complexity of the situation. The 'process' model helps to visualise the different stages and the multifaceted features of speaking and listening. This visualisation will create understanding and help in reflecting on the teaching-learning strategy.

### **2. 5 DEFINITIONS OF SPEAKING AND LISTENING**

In this section, the works of Howe (1991), Bassett, Whittington and Staton-Spicer (1978), and Littlejohn and Jasbush (1982) will be discussed in order to construe the meaning of speaking and listening in the classroom. These three works have been chosen

because they give consistent and complementary meanings to the meaning and processes of speaking and listening. They are consistent because they are all looking at speaking and listening skills as means of developing speaker and listener. They are consistent because they are looking at English as the medium of instruction or interaction and English as first language. The works of Howe looked at the classroom context whilst Littlejohn and Jabusch examined speaking and listening in an organizational context. Howe's work was based in England but the other two studies were carried out in North America, but influencing both countries through globalization of information. An important criterion for the selection of studies for review was the authority of the writers. Howe was an English teacher in comprehensive schools in Kent, Australia and Wiltshire before establishing the Wiltshire Oracy Project in 1983. Bassett is an Associate of Speech Communication at the University of Texas, Austin, Whittington is Head of the Department of Speech Communication at Temple Junior College, Temple Texas and Staton-Spicer is Assistant Professor of Speech Communication at the University of Washington, Seattle. They were members of the Speech Communication Association Task Force to define basic skills and to recommend minimal speaking and listening competencies for high school graduates. Their work has identified the constituents of speaking and listening at secondary school level and their recommendations were adopted by the US Board of Education to be implemented in all states. Littlejohn is Professor of Speech Communication, Humboldt State University and Jabusch is Professor of Communication, University of Utah. All the three works were chosen because they were based on empirical research.

### 2. 5. 1 The Work of Howe (1991)

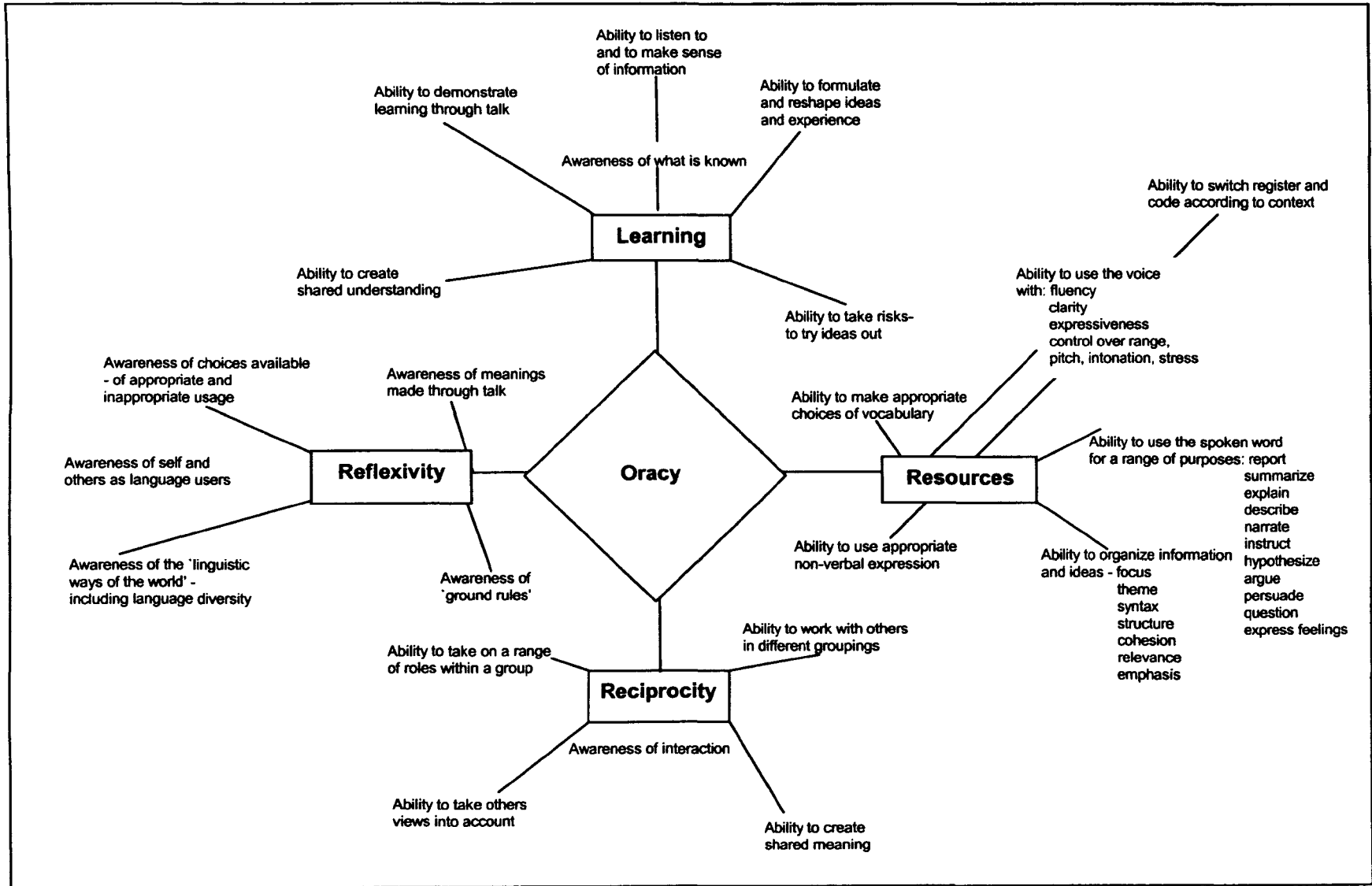
Howe approaches the meaning of speaking and listening from the classroom perspective. He formulates an oracy map to illustrate the four dimensions of oracy which interact with each other as teaching and learning is taking place (Figure 2-15).

‘Learning’ is one of the dimensions shown in Figure 2-15. Howe explains that this dimension represents the idea that students can use speaking and listening to achieve understanding. Each student brings to the classroom personal experience, knowledge, concept and values through previous socialisation, and all these will be assimilated, shaped and reshaped with new experience, knowledge, concepts and values that being met for the first time in the classroom. Howe argues that talking through something can help to clarify understanding (Booth, 1993; Furlong, 1991; Vygotsky 1962), or even generate new ways of thinking about it. According to Howe, talk can be used to compose ideas, to comprehend semiperceived thoughts and bring them into existence.

The second dimension in Howe’s map is ‘resources’. This dimension represents the students’ abilities, which include the ability to use appropriate vocabulary; to use an appropriate voice; to use the spoken language for a variety of purposes; to use non-verbal signs; to ‘organise’ ideas in talk; and to switch register and code according to context.

The third dimension in Figure 2-15 is ‘reciprocity’, which is the ‘interpersonal or social’ side of speaking and listening. Speaking and listening is not a one way process. It is essential to know how to work with others, how to get on with other people, how to be a good speaker and yet at the same time be a good listener. Howe explained that speaking and listening is as much about facilitating the words of others as it is about talking yourself. In ‘reciprocity’ the emphasis is on helping others say what they want to say, in all sorts of ways.

Figure 2-15. An Oracy Map (Howe, 1991)



The fourth dimension is 'reflexivity'. There are two sides to the concept of reflexivity. The first one is to use the spoken language to reflect about learning, about knowledge through talk. In this dimension students reflect on the other two dimensions, 'learning' and 'resources'. The second part is when students reflect on 'reciprocity' and are aware of themselves and others as speakers and listeners.

Based on the map, Howe wrote, "It may be that this map might be a useful starting point when we (teachers) are beginning to think about where children's language might be developing, and how we as teachers might be able to assist in this process" (p. 26). Howe also hoped that students would move towards being more versatile users of the spoken language, being able to make their language meet the demands of a wide variety of situations. For Howe, the key word is 'versatility', that is, the ability of the students to make their language meet the demands of both the current known and the future unknown.

### **2. 5. 2 The Work of Bassett, Whittington and Staton-Spicer (1978)**

In 1977 the Educational Policies Board of the Speech Communication Association established a task force to recommend minimal speaking and listening competencies for high school graduates in United States (Bassett et al. 1978). In the first phase, the task force conducted a computer- based search for books, journal articles, convention papers, grant research, theses and dissertations, and unpublished manuscripts in order to identify the speaking and listening competencies which were considered essential for high school graduates.

In the second phase, the task force obtained from the co-ordinator of language arts programme in each of the 50 states and the District of Columbia a copy of the state's curriculum guide for speaking and listening skills for high school students. The task force

also requested copies of any statement of minimal competencies developed by the states for speaking and listening in their high schools.

The Task Force then selected criteria which a speaking or listening skill had to meet in order to be recommended as a minimal requirement for high school graduation. Mead suggested three criteria: functional, educational and general (cited in Bassett et al. 1978).

‘Functional’ means that speaking and listening are needed by adults to achieve typical purposes in adult life, for example:

1. *Occupational.* To be a contributing member of society an individual should be able to obtain a job, learn job requirements, and perform job tasks adequately.
2. *Citizenship.* The continuation of our form of government is dependent upon a citizen’s ability to understand, discuss, and evaluate laws, governmental policy and the views of other citizens, and to express his/ her viewpoint.
3. *Maintenance.* Maintaining oneself and family requires that adults form and preserve social relationships, manage personal finances, perform consumer tasks, gain and preserve health, avoid injury, and participate in family life and child raising.

(Bassett et al., 1978, p. 296)

Bassett et al. explained that the requirement that speaking and listening skills be ‘educational’ means these skills had to be appropriate for development by instruction in public schools, while ‘general’ means speaking and listening skills are needed by high



school graduates from all regions of the US, irrespective of their cultural and economic background and covering all career and life goals.

The task force identified nineteen competencies that met the criteria of being functional, educational, and general. The nineteen competencies are categorised under subtopics: Communication Codes, Oral Message Evaluation, Basic Speech Communication Skills and Human Relations (Appendix 2-2). One of the members of the task force gave a description of the nineteen competencies in educational context (Appendix 2-3).

The task force members concluded that the nineteen speaking and listening skills are basic to two person interactions either face to face or through telephone, small group discussions and public speaking. The nineteen skills are also applicable to messages from radio, television and films.

### **2. 5. 3 The Work of Littlejohn and Jabusch (1982)**

The definition of communication competence proposed by Littlejohn and Jabusch (1982) is “the ability and willingness of an individual to participate responsibly in a transaction in such a way as to maximise the outcome of shared meaning” (Littlejohn & Jabusch, 1982, p. 29). This definition pertains to both sending and receiving - initiating and consuming - since competency is inevitably a two-way process.

Littlejohn and Jabusch identify four components of communication competency: process understanding, interpersonal sensitivity, communication skills, and ethical responsibility.

Process understanding is the ability of the speaker to understand the components and dynamics of a communication event. The extent of his understanding of a particular communication transaction will enable him to identify the rules of the system within the

transaction. Comparing these rules with the other systems' rules that he has encountered, enables him to manage system flexibility and also determine the degree to which he will participate. Process understanding actually leads to a wider repertoire of behaviour and a greater degree of behavioural flexibility in accordance with social expectations.

Interpersonal sensitivity is the ability to perceive accurately one's own internal feelings, the meanings and feelings of others, and the special demands of the communication situation. Interpersonal sensitivity corresponds to such characteristics as empathic ability, social relaxation, and appropriate response selection.

Communication skills involve the ability to use a particular physical or conceptual operations or set of operations (verbal and non-verbal) in a communication situation to achieve an objective. (See Appendix 2-2, Communication Skills, Bassett et al. 1978)

Ethical responsibility is defined as "an attitudinal set consisting of a concern for the well-being of all participants and a willingness to share the responsibility of the outcome of the transaction with other participants" (Littlejohn & Jabusch, 1982, p. 31).

Considering all four components, competence develops from an increased understanding of the communication process; an ability to sense accurately the meaning and feelings of oneself and others; improvement of skills in speaking, writing, listening and reading ; and finally , a well-defined sense of interpersonal ethics.

If these are the components of which competency is made, how does one become competent? According to Littlejohn and Jabusch, communication competency arises out of the interaction of theory, practice and analysis; through an emphasis on knowledge, sensitivity, skills, and values.

## **2. 5. 4 Definition of Speaking and Listening Based on the Works of Howe,**

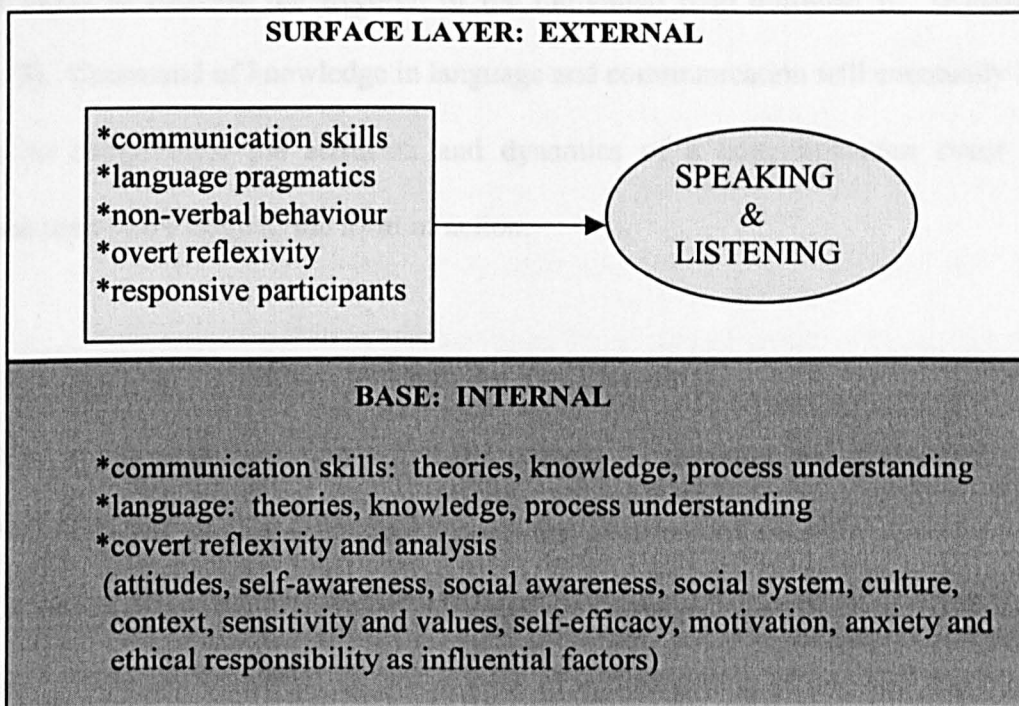
**Bassett et al., and Littlejohn and Jabusch**

Based on the three works, speaking and listening can be defined in the following way:

**The internal and external ability and willingness of a versatile user of spoken language to communicate and to participate responsibly in any situation as a speaker and a listener in such a way as to maximise the outcome of shared meaning.**

Figure 2-16 illustrates the definition. The definition categorises speaking and listening into two layers: the surface or external layer, and the base or the internal layer. The external is the behavioural part of listening and speaking, which is observable (visually and audibly) when the transaction is in process. When students speak and listen, the activity can be observed verbally and non-verbally. Body language, paralinguistic and kinetic features can be seen by the teacher, the examiner or the audience. The participants demonstrate communication skills; in the case of the classroom situation, students will use language to speak and listen. To sum up, the surface is the application of speaking and listening, the practice, the final product. 'Reflexivity', here, is the ability to reflect aloud about learning and also to reflect aloud about oneself and others as speakers and listeners. 'Versatility' is seen when students are able to switch register and code according to purpose, context and audience. For speaking and listening to take place, both participants must be responsive.

**Figure 2-16. Understanding speaking and listening based on the works of Howe (1991), Bassett et al. (1978), & Littlejohn & Jabusch (1982)**



The existence of the external section is actually deeply embedded in the base. In order to function well externally, the internal section must be fully equipped. This is the battery that will energise the outcome of speaking and listening. The cells that make up the battery cover the cognitive and affective areas, wrapped in ethics and values. Taking the analogy of a torch light, if the batteries are weak, the light will be dim; if the batteries are strong, the light will be strong and clear. Consideration might also be given to the Kingman's (1988) assertion that "someone who knows about the forms of the English language can reflect disinterestedly and illuminatingly on a range of questions, observations and problems which crop up in everyday language use" (p. 19). Such is the case with speaking and listening. With sufficient knowledge about speaking and listening, students will be able to "reflect disinterestedly and illuminatingly on a range of questions, observations and problems" which crop up in everyday use of speaking and listening. Kingman stresses that "successful communication depends upon a recognition

and accurate use of the rules and conventions. Command of these rules and conventions is more likely to increase the freedom of the individual than diminish it.” (Kingman, 1988, p. 3). Command of knowledge in language and communication will eventually lead students to comprehend the elements and dynamics of a communication event and crystallise their knowledge in the form of action.

### **2. 5. 5 Summary on Definitions of Speaking and Listening**

The above definition shows that the process of speaking and listening is both external and internal. It is an individual process that goes beyond the individual, for it is a social activity in which the thoughts of one mind are conveyed to another, or the thoughts of another person are absorbed. It is a process of understanding of one self and others, based on the purpose, the context and the expected norms.

The complex nature of the process calls for the teachers to teach speaking and listening to the students not in an impromptu manner, fortuitously, or when the situation arises, but in a very structured way, from knowledge to application. Students, too, must have knowledge about language in order to be competent speakers and listeners (Kingman Report, 1988).

Robinson (1981) conclude her paper by saying;

If we want our children or students to produce utterances which meet their listener’s information requirements by avoiding ambiguity and unhelpful redundancy, rather than merely to speak fluently and confidently, and if we want them to behave appropriately as listeners by recognising their own nonunderstanding and asking questions when appropriate, why not inform them about the requirements of effective communication? (p. 256)

## 2. 6 THE LINK BETWEEN THE DEFINITION OF SPEAKING AND LISTENING SKILLS WITH THE COMMUNICATION MODELS

The definition of speaking and listening skills and Figure 2-16 which illustrates the definition can be linked directly to the communication models discussed in this chapter. Certain models highlight certain aspects of the definition and show the main elements of the communication process: speaker, listener, medium, message and effect; and their relationship. As indicated earlier, there is no perfect model of communication. By understanding the strengths and the weaknesses of each of the models, the user can increase his or her awareness of the intricacies of the whole process and avoid taking speaking and listening for granted.

Lasswell's model (1948) with his famous questions in describing communication: "Who? Says what?, In which channel? To whom? With what effect?", is one of the earliest communication models that explains the whole process of communication or speaking and listening in a very simple way. In the early models (Lasswell, 1948; Shannon and Weaver, 1949; Carroll, 1953), the dialogue proceeds without recognising feedback and is context free. These early models explain only a few features of the communication process. Later models (Dance, 1967; Becker, 1968; Barnlund, 1970), the non-linear models, seek to explain features but at the expense of added complexity.

In the definition of speaking and listening, the "**internal and external ability**"<sup>1</sup> refers to knowledge of communication models such as the elements involved in the communication process, the basic features of linear and non-linear models, the problems of feedback, context and meaning implied in the models, the role of human senses in communication and so forth. Barnes (1976) in *From Communication to Curriculum* says "If we know what we know, then we can change it" (p.19). In other words, if we know

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<sup>1</sup> In this section the words in quotation marks "... " are taken from the definition of Speaking and Listening (p. 66).

what we know, then we can use it. Also with knowledge, one can apply reflexivity, the ability to reflect on what one is doing, so that, by questioning, mistakes arising from false assumptions may be avoided (Barnes and Todd, 1977). So, by knowing and understanding each of the communication models, a user will increase his or her **“internal and external ability”** to communicate – to speak and to listen effectively.

For communication to take place, there must also be **“willingness”** to participate on the part of the speaker and the listener. **“Willingness”** occurs not only in the form of knowledge on communication process describe earlier, but also involves factors such as the immediate social situation, early impressions, previous conversations, the mass media and the layers of explicit and implicit information which will influence the **“willingness”** to communicate (Becker, 1968). **“Willingness”** to participate as speaker and listener also depends on the speaker’s and the listener’s communication skills, attitudes, knowledge, culture and social systems (Berlo, 1960).

Carroll’s Organismic Communication Model (1953) shows that the listener has the choice to participate ‘overtly’ or ‘covertly’: to respond orally in Standard English or in one of the dialects, or to respond in the form of body language. The **“willingness”** and the choice to respond either ‘overtly’ or ‘covertly’, will determine the extent of the communication because, for speaking and listening to take place, both participants must be responsive. Dance’s model shows that the communication process is constantly moving forward and yet is always to some degree dependent upon the past. This shows that **“willingness”** to participate depends on earlier communication, incidents, and other factors, and continues from one communicative situation to another. Mortensen (1972) argues that this model assumes a false degree of continuity. Mortensen stresses the problems of human experience of **“discontinuity, intermittent periods, false starts, and so forth”** (p. 43). Unwillingness to participate on the part of the speaker or the listener, will

result in communication breakdown. The problems of ‘discontinuity’ and ‘noise’ (Shannon and Weaver, 1949) are not highlighted in this model.

The word “**versatile**” in the definition reflects the dynamic nature of communication (Dance, 1967). Versatility is an ability to switch register and code according to purpose, context and audience, as shown in the Barnlund’s and Gerbner’s models, which stresses the importance of environmental factors as part of the complexity of human communication. Thus, speakers and listeners are influenced by their perceptions, reactions to a situation and the context of the message. For example, in formal situations such as in a classroom or at a meeting, speakers are expected to use standard English, whereas in an informal situation, for example, at a market place or at home, speakers have the choice to use dialects.

Berlo’s model (1960) shows that, in order “**to communicate and to participate responsibly**”, one has to realise that speaking and listening or communication is more than just a vocal delivery. Participants’ communication skills, which include non verbal communication, attitude, knowledge, culture and social system, determine the extent to which they want to “**participate responsibly**” in a particular communication situation. Westley and MacLean (1955), in their model, show that communication begins before a person starts to talk. The immediate physical surrounding, the atmosphere, will have an effect on the participants.

The speaker and the listener are the main participants in all the models of communication, which has the aim to “**maximise the outcome of shared meaning**” between them. The communication models try in their different ways to tackle the difficult problem of explaining the “**shared meaning**” in the form of the field of experience (Schramm, 1954), and the importance of feedback (Barnlund, 1970). According to Barnlund, communication both describes the evolution of meaning and aims



at the reduction of uncertainty. The term 'noise' is used by Shannon and Weaver to explain how meaning can be changed due to unintended information. To eliminate 'noise' is one of the ways to **"maximise the outcome of shared meaning"**.

The communication models and the definition of Speaking and Listening try to show the elements involved in the process of communication and their relationships. As mentioned earlier in this Chapter, a model is "a theoretical and simplified representational of the real world" (Bill & Hardgrave, 1973, p. 24), and definition is "the act of defining or making definite, distinct, or clear" (The Random House Dictionary of the English Language, 1987, p. 523). At the same time, we know that in reality the processes involved in Speaking and Listening as a process of communication cannot be simplified or made definite, due to the complexity of human nature. Therefore, models and definitions are invaluable tools to improve one's understanding of the way communication works. With understanding, a teacher or a student could predict and control the outcome of communication.

## **2.7 REFLECTING ON THE TEACHING AND LEARNING OF SPEAKING AND LISTENING SKILLS IN THE CLASSROOM**

In this section we have looked at models and theories of communication, models and theories of speaking and listening skills in the classroom situation and the definitions of speaking and listening. Why do we have to look at different models? Even though, at the beginning of this chapter, Deutsch was seen to have given the answers, let us look further. Mortensen (1972) pointed out that there are strong logical grounds for examining different models of communication. One is to guard against the risks of "oversimplification, confusion of models with reality, and premature closure" (p. 36). Mortenson argued that, by examining different models, we could avoid forming a

prematurely fixed conception of communication. This can be interpreted as avoiding being trapped in the syndrome of ‘the blind men and the elephant’ and failing to see the whole and actual picture of the communication process. Furthermore, different models provide conceptual tools for cross-checking the assumptions, the strengths and weaknesses of any particular model.

The same argument is applicable to classroom theories and models. If teachers are trapped into ‘oversimplifying’ reality, with a limited conception of communication, they might underestimate the complex process of speaking and listening and, instead of supporting speaking and listening, these teachers might hinder the development of these skills.

Liebenau and Blackhouse (1990) wrote that the communication process is effective when the intentions of the sender (here the teacher) are understood by the receiver (the student). As Britton (1971) put it, “We teach and teach and they learn and learn: If they didn’t, we wouldn’t” (p. 81). Teaching is a mode of communication and so is learning. To teach students to communicate through speaking and listening is not an easy task, because normally “teachers speak teacherese, but pupils speak learnerese” (Hodge, 1993, p. 111); they have different voices due to their different fields of experience (Schramm, 1954), different communication skills, attitudes and knowledge (Berlo, 1960).

On a related issue, Barnes (1976) argues that it is misleading to see learning as the adding of new blocks of knowledge to an existing pile of blocks, as though ‘transmitting knowledge’ (p. 20 ) or ‘handing on the culture’ (p. 20). Barnes sees classroom learning as an interaction between the teacher’s meanings, and those of his or her students, so that what they take away is partly shared and partly unique to each of them. Therefore, based on Barnes’ idea, the teaching and learning of Speaking and Listening skills, in order “to

maximise the outcome of shared meaning”, should consider speaking and listening in the classroom in terms of communication and students’ use of speaking and listening in learning.

There are similarities and differences between the models of communication and the models of speaking and listening in the classroom. Therefore, there is a need for teachers to bridge theories of communication with theories of speaking and listening as an aid to understanding classroom events of speaking and listening.

Apart from communication models, teachers also need to look at models of language, in this case, models of speaking and listening, if they want to teach these skills well. As Hodge (1993), Professor of Humanities at the University of West Sydney, Hawkesbury, Australia, writes:

No one doubts that teachers need to know about language and communication. Without communication, no one could teach or learn, or know what had been learned .... Good teaching and good learning alike are so dependent on language and communication that the two are inseparable. (p. 1)

Hodge explained that before communication takes place, the construction of meaning will occur through ‘language’. This is followed by a further stage of ‘communication’ which involves “packaging, presenting and delivery of messages to their destination” (p. x). But the thinking that takes place in language prior to communication is already pre-formed to a certain extent by communication that has happened or is expected to happen, and this process is dynamic through every exchange. Therefore, Hodge argues that it does not make sense to study language and communication separately.

It is also hoped that the combined definition based on the definitions of Howe (1991), Bassett et al. (1978) and Littlejohn and Jabusch (1982) has defined speaking and listening more explicitly so as to create awareness of the internal and external factors involved in speaking and listening. Without awareness and understanding, teachers might underestimate the complex process of speaking and listening and believe that “all teachers have to do is to tell their pupils what they need to know” (Barnes, 1976, p. 14). With awareness and understanding, it is hoped that there will be a change in the classroom communication system, whereby teachers will encourage more participation by the students. Students need to be given better chances to develop their language competence and to be more confident when they leave school. After all, “Learning to communicate is at the heart of education.” (Barnes, 1976, p.20) and the best place to learn how to communicate is in the school.

## CHAPTER 3

### SPEECH, THOUGHT AND LANGUAGE

#### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

The current state of teaching of speaking and listening skills in the school environment is not the result of an isolated influence or incident but the result of serious ideas developed by a number of theorists and practitioners from many different disciplines over the years. Theories on speech, thought and language have directly or indirectly influenced the teaching of language in schools (Maclure, 1988; Wilkinson, 1965). The interest in the field of speech, thinking and language is evident from the number of researches from different fields, but for the purpose of this study, the works of Pavlov (1927), Skinner (1938), Chomsky (1959), Piaget (1926), Vygotsky (1962) and Bruner (1966) have been selected.

#### 3.2 PAVLOV'S CLASSICAL CONDITIONING (1927)

Until the 1960s, the work of Pavlov (1927/1960) dominated our thinking on how to teach children (Husén & Postlethwaite, 1994). Pavlov's well-known experiment involved a dog which had some meat powder placed in its mouth (Pavlov, 1927). The meat powder resulted in the production of saliva. In the language of classical conditioning, meat powder is an *unconditioned stimulus*, because the dog will salivate naturally. Similarly, the saliva is an *unconditioned response*. Unconditioned responses are also called *reflexes*.

During the experiment, each time the meat powder was placed in the dog's mouth, it was accompanied by a ringing of a bell. After a certain amount of time, the dog associated the bell with the meat and the ringing of the bell alone would produce

salivation, without the meat powder being present. The bell is a *conditioned stimulus*, and the saliva is now a *conditioned response*. The dog has now learned, from that experience, to salivate at the sound of a bell (*conditioned stimulus*) as well as at the sight of food (neutral or *unconditioned stimulus*). The whole process, that is the repeated connection of the *conditioned stimulus* with the *unconditioned stimulus* followed by the *unconditioned response* is called reinforcement.

The conditioned response in animals is an observable, and reliable phenomenon. Pavlov studied it in great detail, and with other animals, changing the stimulus, altering the timing of the conditioned and unconditioned stimuli, and measuring the quantities of saliva produced by his dogs under varying conditions. Based on his research, Pavlov found that the greater the reinforcement, the greater the conditioned response will be. It was clearly shown in the experiment that a stimulus, initially without the power to arouse a certain response could get that power by being associated with a stimulus that did arouse the desired response. This well known procedure is called “classical conditioning”. From this perspective, the basic unit of learning is the conditioned response. Indeed, Pavlov held the conviction that all kinds of learning, human and animal, could be explained in terms of classical conditioning. To quote the master:

“It is obvious that the different kinds of habits based on training, education and discipline of any sort are nothing but a long chain of conditioned reflexes.”

(Pavlov, 1927, p. 395)

Pavlov’s research is significant in the field of education because it was the earliest careful laboratory investigations of learning (Hilgard & Bower, 1966). Pavlov’s ‘nurture’ idea has great effects on the teaching of language in the classroom, whereby it is believed

that the greater the reinforcement, the more the students will remember and learn. Changes in human behaviour must therefore be the result of further conditioning.

### **3.3 SKINNER'S OPERANT CONDITIONING (1938)**

Skinner (perhaps the most influential experimental psychologist who ever lived [Walker, 1996, p. 83] ) suggested that much learning takes place in a different way. For example, when a rat in a Skinner box (a piece of equipment developed by skinner) pressed a metal bar, a food pellet was received and by giving food as reward, the inclination for the rat to press the bar is more (Skinner, 1938). A pigeon too will learn to peck a key (lighted plastic disk) if this response is followed by access to a bit of grain. The pressing of the bar and the pecking of the key, which is the conditioned response, becomes associated with the stimulus, the food pellet or the grain, by causing it to appear. As discussed earlier in classical conditioning, learned responses are elicited by a conditioned stimulus. In operant conditioning it is quite different: The learner first emits a response that is operating on the environment, and then associates this action with the pleasant or unpleasant consequences it produces. In this type of learning, there is no reinforcement unless there is a response. Thus an animal learns to operate or manipulate some feature of the environment. This theory of learning is known as operant conditioning.

Skinner's theory also allows for secondary reinforcement where a non-reinforcing stimulus becomes a reinforcing stimulus, by association with reinforcing stimulus. For example, a flash of light is a non-reinforcing stimulus but rats who have received a food pellet simultaneously with a light flash when they pressed a bar a number of times will later increase the pressing of the bar when the light is flashing alone. In this case the flash of light becomes a reinforcing stimulus.

As a learning theorist, Skinner did not differentiate between language and other behaviours. Speech and language are acquired by operant conditioning. It is learning through experience. A baby's earliest words are typically uttered when baby making requests and naming things. In Skinner's terminology, a request is called a 'mand', derived from demand. A 'tact' is a word that names or describes an object, or makes contact with the environment. The acquisition of 'mands' and 'tacts', and other aspects of language, is greatly facilitated by echoic behaviour, the tendency to imitate words that other people say. Thus, infants imitate sounds made by adults through reinforcement, for example, attention and praise by parents. It is believed that the random or imitative sounds made by infants later becomes more like adult sounds through selective reinforcement provided by parental attention and praise. The verbal responses are shaped by the parents; for example, instead of giving an infant a doll immediately, the parents wait until the child says the word 'doll' or produces a sound like 'doll', before giving the doll as a reward to the child.

Skinner explained that verbal behaviour or language acquisition follows the same laws of reinforcement by which animal behaviour is shaped. Skinner emphasises the influence of 'nurture'. Here, the child is seen as being only passively involved in language acquisition. Skinner, however, acknowledged the existence of thought in verbal behaviour (Skinner, 1963, 1989) but he argued that the causes of mental events lie in the environment; therefore, a stimulus-response approach to the study of learning, which highlights the impact of environment on behaviour, is still defensible.

### **3.4 CHOMSKY'S LANGUAGE ACQUISITION DEVICE (1959)**

Chomsky (1959) did not agree with Skinner's Verbal Behaviour or the notion that children learn language only through the meticulous care of adults who shape their verbal



repertoire. Chomsky believes that much of the capacity for learning and memory in both human and nonhuman animals is innate. It is part of the genetic makeup of a species and is relatively independent of after birth experiences. Chomsky sees 'nature' as playing the main role in language acquisition as opposed to 'nurture'. He argued that the structure of language: phonology, morphology and syntax, is, to a substantial degree, biologically programmed which enables individuals to learn and use their language as a natural process equivalent to walking. He said that the structure of even the simplest of languages is too complex to be either taught by parents or discovered via trial-and-error processes by cognitively immature toddlers and preschool children. From Chomsky's (1968) analysis of the acquisition of language he argued that the predisposition to talk and learn a language, and the predisposition to do so according to a certain particular set of grammatical rules, is an inborn characteristic of the human species – and the human species alone. In Chomsky's view, learning language is "something like undergoing puberty. You don't learn to do it ...you are just designed to do it at a certain time" (1968, p. 174).

Chomsky introduced the term Language Acquisition Device (LAD). Each child is born with LAD and this is how the child acquires the grammar of his language. The acquisition is not so much by learning it but by using the speech the child hears and chooses among possible grammars stored in LAD. This innate ability will be activated through the child's experience. According to Chomsky, LAD had as its base a universal grammar or a 'linguistic deep structure' that humans know innately and without learning. Based on the surface structure of natural language, LAD is able to recognise the deep structure (universal grammar). LAD then abstracts the grammatical realisation rules of the local language enabling the child to produce all the well-formed utterances possible in the language. The universal grammatical categories that programmed LAD were in the

innate structure of the mind. So regardless of the language or languages that a child has been listening to, the LAD should allow any child who has acquired a sufficient vocabulary to combine words into novel, rule-bound utterances and to understand much of what he hears (Shaffer, 1996).

Chomsky's view may sound extreme "but in a stroke it freed a generation of psycholinguistics from the dogma of association-cum-imitation-cum-reinforcement" (Bruner, 1983, p. 33). Chomsky's theory was very influential which resulted in an enormous volume of research on language acquisition. It is important to note that Chomsky, a linguist, conducted no psychological experiments himself. Nevertheless, Chomsky, with his LAD, influenced language teaching, especially the teaching of speaking in schools throughout Europe and America, with his idea that instruction activates the innate capacity for language and after the age of 5 language instruction has minimal effect on language learning.

### **3.5 PIAGET'S EGOCENTRIC TALK (1926)**

Piaget, a Swiss biologist turned psychologist, contested the theory proposed by Chomsky. In order to answer problems about language acquisition, Piaget attempted to answer the following question; "What are the needs which a child tends to satisfy when he talks" (1926, p.1). According to Piaget, a normal response to the question on the use of language would be, 'to communicate', but, it was found that even adults talk to themselves covertly and overtly. This shows that language is not used purely for communicative purposes only. Next, he set out to answer questions on the function of the child's language. He wanted to find out how much of children's language is communicative and how much is not, also, the variety and the purpose of non-communicative language.

Based on Piaget's class observation in natural school environment, where he observed two boys for a month, he discovered several varieties of both communicative and non-communicative language. Non-communicative or "egocentric" language is defined as:

...egocentrism is on the one hand primacy of self-satisfaction over objective recognition ... and, on the other, distortion of reality to satisfy the activity and point of view of the individual. In both cases it is unconscious, being essentially the result of failure to distinguish between the subjective and the objective.

(Piaget, 1926, p. 285)

Piaget divided egocentric speech into three types: repetition, monologue, and collective monologue. According to Piaget's records, repetition made up about 1 or 2 per cent of the total number of statements. Individual monologue occurs when the child is alone and yet talks aloud, often at great length. Monologue comprises 5 to 15 per cent of the total number of statements. Collective monologue occurs when two or more children are together and one of them speaks a soliloquy to which the others do not listen. Piaget recorded that collective monologue made up 23 to 30 per cent of the total number of statements. These statements are not communicative. On the whole, egocentric speech represents 37 percent to 39 per cent of children's speech. About 60 per cent of children's speech is communicative or 'socialised', but this happens without the children considering the listener's point of view or even trying to transmit information.

Piaget explained that as children get older there seems to be a decline in egocentrism and an increase in communication. With development and socialisation, speakers becomes aware of the views of others and adapt their speech accordingly. Piaget proposes an interesting hypothesis to explain the decline of egocentrism. When children

are in their infancy, adults take great pains to understand the children's thoughts and desires. As children grow older, they find that older children are not as concerned as adults; other children do not try so hard to understand the vagueness of their language. Older children even argue with and challenge their statements. It is under this social pressure that younger children are gradually forced to adopt better modes of communication. In the attempt to express themselves and to justify their arguments, the younger children eventually learn to take into account others' points of view in order to avoid being misunderstood and losing arguments. In this way, then, does egocentrism diminish. According to Piaget, interaction with other children is the main mechanism through which egocentrism is broken down.

### **3.6 VYGOTSKY'S ZONE OF PROXIMAL DEVELOPMENT (1934/1962)**

Vygotsky (1962) was born in the same year as Piaget, but only worked on psychological problems for the last ten years of his short life. His central interest was the relationship of thought and language, in which he saw the key to understanding the nature of human consciousness. In Thought and Language (1934, English version 1962) Vygotsky explained how thought develops through the internalisation of action and particularly of external speech. Vygotsky argued that language, for the child, has two functions: one, that of monitoring and directing internal thought; the other, that of communicating with other people. So, Piaget's egocentric speech, according to Vygotsky, never completely disappears; instead, it simply goes underground, becoming silent or as inner speech – the covert verbal thought that we use to organise and regulate our everyday activities.

Another significant contribution by Vygotsky is in relation to the fundamental problem of instruction and development in the school-age child. Vygotsky found

psychological research on the problem of instruction during his time to be inadequate because it focused solely on establishing the child actual development. He compared the researcher to a gardener who wished to determine the state of his orchard by only evaluating matured and harvested fruits of the apple tree, without considering maturing trees. Vygotsky argued that in order to “fully evaluate the state of the child’s development, the psychologist must consider not only the actual level of development but *the zone of proximal development*” (pp. 208-209).

Vygotsky said that “research indicates that the zone of proximal development has more significance for the dynamics of intellectual development and for the success of instruction than does the actual level of development” (p. 209). He then illustrated how to consider the zone of proximal development after determining the level of actual development where the child solve tasks independently:

Assume that we have determined the mental age of two children to be eight years. We do not stop with this however. Rather, we attempt to determine how each of these children will solve tasks that were meant for older children. We assist each child through demonstration, leading questions, and by introducing the initial elements of the task’s solution. With this help or collaboration from the adult, one of these children solves problems characteristic of a twelve year old, while the other solves problems only at a level typical of a nine year old. This difference between the child’s mental ages, this difference between the child’s actual level of development and the level of performance that he achieves in collaboration with the adult, defines the zone of proximal development.

(Vygotsky, 1962, p. 209)

From the above illustration, Vygotsky distinguished between two aspects of children's development. Their actual development level is the extent to which they can perform tasks independently. Their level of potential development is the extent to which they can perform tasks with the assistance of a more competent individual. For example, children may be able to listen and speak better when adults are present to guide their speaking and listening skills.

The range of tasks that children cannot yet perform independently, but can perform with the help and guidance of others, is known as the zone of proximal development (ZPD). A child's zone of proximal development includes learning and problem solving abilities that are just beginning to develop within that child – abilities that are in an immature, 'embryonic' form (Ormrod, 1995). Vygotsky proposed that children learn very little from performing tasks they can already do independently. Instead, they develop primarily by attempting tasks they can accomplish only in collaboration with a more competent individual – that is, when they attempt tasks within their zone of proximal development.

Central to the zone of proximal development is the issue of imitation. Based on Vygotsky's research, a child can only imitate what lies within the zone of his own intellectual potential. A similar situation occurs with collaboration where a child solves problems that are proximal to his level of development with relative ease. Further on, however, the difficulty grows. Ultimately, problems become too difficult to resolve even in collaboration. This shows that there is a limit which are determined by the state of development and his intellectual potential. This is a critical stage because "the child's potential for moving from what he can do to what he can do only in collaboration is the most sensitive index of the dynamics of development and the degree of success that will come to characterise the child's mental activity" (Vygotsky, 1962, p. 210).

Imitation according to Vygotsky is the source of instruction's influence on development. The child's instruction in speech, and school instruction generally, is largely the function of imitation. In school, the child receives instruction not in what he can do independently but in what he cannot yet do. He receives instruction in what is accessible to him in collaboration with, or under the guidance of, a teacher. This is a fundamental characteristic of instruction.

What the child is able to do in collaboration today he will be able to do independently tomorrow. Instruction and development seem to be related in the same way that the zone of proximal development and the level of actual development are related. In childhood the only useful instruction is the instruction which moves ahead of development. However, it is only possible to teach a child when he is able to learn, if there is potential for imitation. "This means that instruction must be oriented to the lower threshold of the developmental cycle which has already occurred"(p. 211). We must shift our paradigm from the idea that development cycle must be complete before instruction can be moved forward. Vygotsky advised teachers to plan their work on children's future development in order to bring out those processes of development that now lie in the zone of proximal development.

### **3. 7 BRUNER'S LANGUAGE ACQUISITION SUPPORT SYSTEM (1983)**

In line with Vygotsky ideas, Bruner (1983) takes the view that language plays an important role in conversation acquisition. Bruner approached the issue of language acquisition from three facets. According to Bruner, the three facets of language that a child must master in order to become a 'native speaker' are syntax, semantics and pragmatics which must be learned interdependently. The focus of his theory is on this 'interdependence'. Bruner stressed that language acquisition 'begins' before the child

utters his first lexico-grammatical speech. “It begins when mother and infant create a predictable format of interaction that can serve as a microcosm for communicating and for constituting a shared reality. The transactions that occur in such formats constitute the ‘input’ from which the child then masters grammar, how to refer and mean, and how to realise his intentions communicatively” (1983, p. 18).

Bruner explained that to enable language acquisition, a child must possess a unique and prearranged set of language-learning capacities, for example Chomsky’s LAD which was discussed earlier. Bruner believed, however, that the infant’s LAD could not function without the help of an adult. The function of the adult is to enter together with the infant into a transactional format. The transactional format, initially under the control of adults, provides what Bruner referred to as Language Acquisition Support System (LASS). LASS frames or structures the input of language and interaction to the child’s LAD in a way to “make the system function” (p.19). Here we can see that the interaction between LAD and LASS makes it possible for the infant to be a member of the linguistic community. The importance of culture during the transactional format must be stressed. Bruner said:

I have tried to set forth a view of language acquisition that makes it continuous with and dependent on the child’s acquisition of his culture. Culture is constituted of symbolic procedures, concepts, and distinctions that can only be made in language. It is constituted for the child in the very act of mastering language. Language, in consequence, cannot be understood save in its cultural setting. (1983, p. 134)



Bruner explains that there are four ways in which LASS assures the bridging of prelinguistic to linguistic communication. Since there is concentration on familiar and routine transactional formats, the adult partner first of all is able to highlight those transactional formats that are already salient to the child and that have a basic or simple grammatical form.

A second way is through formating. An adult, according to Bruner, could encourage and show examples such as lexical and phrasal substitutes for familiar gestural and vocal means for effecting various communicative functions. According to Bruner, this is a feature of the child's gradual mastery of the request mode.

The third way is in the form of play formats, which are made of stipulative or constitutive 'events' that are created by language and then recreated on demand by language. Later, these formats take on the character of 'pretend' situations, which are a rich source of opportunity for language learning and language use.

Finally, Bruner said that once an adult is launched into a 'routinized format', various psychological and linguistic processes are brought into play that generalise from one format to another. Naming, for example, appears first in indicating formats and then transfers to requesting formats. Indeed, the very notion of finding linguistic parallels for conceptual distinctions generalises from one format to another. So do such 'abstract' ideas as segmentation, interchangeable roles, substitutive means - both in action and in speech.

Bruner's formats and routine could be seen as underpinning actions by teachers toward students' learning of speaking and listening skills in the classroom.

### 3.8 SUMMARY

The six approaches to language acquisition that have been considered here are based on very different sources of information. Three at least, draw on little more than common observation. Skinner's account is based mainly on an elaboration of his operant conditioning principles, extending on earlier studies by Pavlov. Both of them worked on behaviourism. Chomsky's account, similarly, does not rest on any special observation of young children, but is based on his linguistic work on the structure of language. Piaget, Vygotsky and Bruner on the other hand, based their findings on observations of children in the process of acquiring language. The ideas from Chomsky, Piaget, Vygotsky and Bruner have a cognitivist flavour and they helped pave the way to a wider acceptance of cognitive views of learning.

From the above discussion we saw the mechanistic view of Pavlov with his idea of stimulus-response-reinforcement. His 'nurture' view together with Skinner's are still significant in the classroom. Chomsky, with his Language Acquisition Device, directly influenced the teaching of speaking and listening skills to older children. Piaget stressed the significance of egocentric talk in learning but not on socialised speech. With his 'zone of proximal development' Vygotsky added crucial insight into the adult and more experienced peer role in developing a child's learning. Later, Bruner with his 'Language Acquisition Support System' stressed format and routine between adult and child and the use of talk in learning.

The theories discussed have directly influenced, shaped and reshaped the development of the speech curriculum in schools (Hilgard & Bower, 1966, Husén & Postlethwaite, 1994). As mentioned earlier, in Chapter 2, a theory can be thought of as our understanding of the way things work. With better understanding, we are able to predict and control the outcomes of teaching and learning of speaking and listening skills.

As teachers we are able to shift our paradigm, and see the theories in a positive light, by which to improve not only the teaching and learning of speaking and listening skills but also other language skills and other content subjects in the school curriculum. The approaches taken to teach language in school can be understood in the light of the development of learning theories.

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **OVERVIEW OF PREVIOUS LITERATURE ON SPEAKING AND LISTENING SKILLS**

#### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

Extensive and intensive research has been carried out in the field of speaking and listening, covering areas of human work and thought from the humanities to the mechanical aspects of the work place. In this chapter, relevant literature relating to speaking and listening is reviewed. This literature includes dissertations, reports of various committees set up by the government, journal articles, books, magazines, encyclopaedias, dissertation abstracts, seminal papers, electronic media and references cited in the speaking and listening literature.

In order to assess the literature related to this study, it is necessary first to explore the status of speaking and listening in the classroom and to compare the attention given to speaking and listening on the one hand, and to reading and writing on the other.

This is followed by a review of literature under five sections. The first section covers work and research related to the importance of developing speaking and listening skills in children, teenagers and adults. The second section deals with speaking and listening skills in schools and higher education. The third section covers an area outside the school environment, namely, speaking and listening skills in the work place. The fourth section reviews oracy projects and the final section tries to determine the perception of the government on speaking and listening skills, based on the British government's reports. The main idea of this review is to establish what is known and what has been done in the field of speaking and listening, and to identify issues pertinent to the teaching of these skills in secondary schools, which can be related to the work place.

Before examining the above issues, it is necessary to establish the context with some comment on the importance of speaking and listening skills in England and Wales.

## 4.2 CONTEXT

The future of England depends on the education of her people. Disraeli (Prime Minister of Great Britain in 1868, and again from 1874 to 1880) in 1874 (cited in Department for Education, 1994a, p. 16) said “upon the education of the people of this country, the future of this country depends”. The dependence on education was again acknowledged in a 1987 speech by Margaret Thatcher, then the Prime Minister, to the Conservative Party Conference, when she said, “to compete successfully in tomorrow’s world - against Japan, Germany and the United States - we need well-educated, well-trained, creative young people. If education is backward today, national performance will be backward tomorrow” (Moon, 1991, p. 12).

The function of education in England was highlighted again recently by Dr Nick Tate, Chief Executive of the SCAA. Addressing a gathering of head teachers, he said, “as a nation, we spend a lot of public money on education and tend to see it in terms of developing individuals’ life chances and the country’s economic competitiveness ...” (Daily Telegraph 19 July 1995).

Tony Blair, the new Prime Minister of England, also emphasised the importance of education with his famous line, “Education, education, education”, during his 1997 political campaign.

So, apart from personal development, a school curriculum is designed to cater for the needs of society; to cater for human resource development, for the growth of the economy and for the prosperity of the country. The educational system has accountability for the resources it uses and the outcome it produces. “The global economy has arrived”

(Hodgetts & Luthans, 1997, p. 3) resulting in a changing pattern of employment. The rise of new types of manufacturing and service industries, and new global communication systems creates a need for the right type of workers, with the right type of communication skills. In the 21<sup>st</sup> century, we need to ask the questions: Are the schools producing school leavers that can meet the demand of employers of this country, neighbouring countries and internationally? Are they being fully equipped with communication skills to face future challenges? Can they verbally express themselves, clearly, and get their messages across appropriately and correctly? Can they listen effectively and sensitively in order to digest messages as intended?

One of the ways to understand the present status of speaking and listening is to examine speaking and listening in the classroom.

#### **4.3 THE STATUS OF SPEAKING AND LISTENING IN THE CLASSROOM**

Husén and Postlethwaite (1994) mention that the work of Pavlov (1927/1960) was dominant in the classroom until the 60s. Pavlov put forward the idea that all kinds of human learning can be explained in terms of ‘classical conditioning’ (see Chapter 3). His idea had a great effect on the teaching of language in the classroom (Hilgard & Bower, 1966) partly because his findings were based on laboratory investigations of learning. Based on this theory, it was believed that the greater the reinforcement, the more students would remember and learn.

In the light of the classical conditioning theory, reinforcement, drilling and memorisation were practised in the classroom, and it is no surprise that in 1965, Wilkinson made the statement that, “the spoken language in England has been shamefully neglected” (p. 11). He claimed that teachers and educationists did not consider spoken language as important. The emphasis in relation to oral skill was on reading aloud and the

memorisation of speeches of great orators, with the result that “the ability to put one word of one’s own next to another of one’s own in speech, to create rather than to repeat, has not been regarded as worthy of serious attention” (p. 11).

Another language theory that has influenced practices in the teaching of speaking and listening was proposed by Hockett (1958). Hockett wrote that “by the age of four to six, the normal child is a *linguistic adult*. He controls, with marginal exceptions if any, the phonemic system of his language; he handles effortlessly the grammatical core; he knows and uses the basic contentive vocabulary of the language” (p. 360). Hockett showed that during this crucial stage, children can even accommodate a new language with little emotional difficulty and eventually with a high degree of accuracy. By way of example, he stated:

Children of immigrants to this country, whose exposure to English has been continuous since the age of four or five or so, show little or no trace, as adults, of their original training in some other language. But if the child has passed this crucial biological point, the task of learning a new language is emotionally difficult and learning is hardly ever perfect.

(Hockett, 1958, p. 361)

Hockett’s view, in a way, has influenced the teaching of speaking and listening to children from the age of five or six to adolescence. The impact is that there is an abundance of material relating to language acquisition during the first five years of life, while the remainder of childhood to adolescence is comparatively neglected.

Similarly, Maclure (1988) explains that in the 1960s and a good part of the 1970s, the teaching of speaking and listening was left aside, partly due to the dominant linguistic

paradigm of Chomsky's (1959) transformational grammar (see Chapter 3). Chomsky contested Skinner's (1938) theory of learning, which proposes that speech and language are acquired by operant conditioning, that is, learned through experience. Chomsky did not agree with Skinner's idea, which emphasises on the influence of 'nurture' and sees the child as being passively involved in language acquisition. Even though Skinner acknowledged the existence of thought in verbal behaviour (Skinner, 1963, 1989), he argued that the causes of mental events lie in the environment.

Chomsky, in contrast, saw 'nature' as opposed to 'nurture', as having the major role in language acquisition. Chomsky introduced the term Language Acquisition Device (LAD). He suggested that each child is born with LAD and this is how the child acquires the grammar of his language. This innate ability will be activated through the child's experience. Under Chomsky's LAD theory, it was believed that children had passed many of the major milestones in the development of spoken language by the time they started school around the age of five. Therefore, any support or instruction from adults would be unnecessary. In other words, it was not necessary to teach speaking and listening in the classroom. Probably this is one of the reasons why "the spoken language in England has been shamefully neglected"(Wilkinson, p. 11).

There were also theories of communication which proposed that communication is essentially a matter of information transfer (discussed in Chapter 2). These relatively static and linear concepts, which were universally accepted, when applied to speaking and listening in the classroom situation, were based on the following four assumptions mentioned by Reddy (1979):



1. Language functions like a conduit, transferring thoughts bodily from one person to another.
2. In writing and speaking, people insert their thoughts or feelings in the words.
3. Words accomplish the transfer by containing the thoughts or feelings and transferring them to others.
4. In listening and reading, people extract the thoughts and feelings once again from the words.

(Reddy, 1979, p. 290)

Even 'the school curriculum', explained Barnes (1976), is always misunderstood as implying that teachers plan in advance for their pupils to learn. In his view, this is an inadequate and partial account which is very misleading; a curriculum made only of teachers' intentions would be an insubstantial thing from which no body would learn much.

Based on the linear concept that teachers communicate knowledge to students, it looks as though a teacher's work is made easy, for whatever information he or she wants to convey to students will be transferred in the 'pure' form, but this idea fails to consider didactic constraints. In explaining the didactic constraints on transmission of knowledge content, sociologist Verret (as cited in Forquin, 1995) explains that "what is imparted to a child at school cannot be, for all sorts of pedagogical reasons, the original knowledge but is rather its didactic substitute" (p. 205). Forquin elaborates that with that kind of substitution, an inevitable gap appears between teaching and learning, that is, between 'source' and 'receiver'. One example given by Halbwachs is that "the physicist's physics is not that of the physics teacher" and Halté gives another example, that "the linguist's linguistic is not that of the language teacher" (both cited in Forquin, 1995). This

constraint was not included in the earlier models of communication (Lasswell, 1948; Shannon and Weaver, 1949).

The above problem was highlighted by Francis (1994) at the beginning of her Vernon-Wall Lecture, when she said:

I want to make my real starting point in this paper the notion that learners and teachers have different voices with respect to learning and hear each other through a confusing filter. They do not understand each other very well at the heart of the learning process (p. 1).

‘Voice’, here, according to Francis, represents the learners’ and the teachers’ thinking, feeling and valuing with respect to a theme. In the classroom situation the theme is learning. The student’s ‘voice’ on the value of speaking and listening is very different from his teacher’s, and neither understands the other with respect to the importance of speaking and listening. A study by Lemos (1996) also found that “generally, students’ goals do not match teachers’ goals for the students. That is, there is a mismatch between the direction of students’ behaviour and the direction that the teacher intends to impose on students’ behaviour” (p. 168).

If language lies at the heart of the curriculum, we must always remember that “at the heart of the educational process lies the child. No advances in policy, no acquisition of new equipment, have the desired effect unless they are in harmony with the child” (DES, 1967, p.9). Therefore, for any learning to occur, there must be harmony between the teacher’s ‘voice’ and ‘goals’ on the one hand, and the student’s ‘voice’ and ‘goals’ on the other.

The focus on 'information transfer', the belief that by the age of four to six, the normal child is a 'linguistic adult', and the mismatch between teacher's 'voice' and 'goals' with those of the student, had a profound impact on the teaching of speaking and listening in the 70s and 80s, when priority was given to the development of students' writing skills.

A survey by Her Majesty Inspectors of Schools (DES, 1979) over the years 1975-1978 covering a 10 percent sample of maintained secondary schools (N = 384) indicated that the idea that talk can promote learning was not widely known among the teachers. Thus, most time was spent on reading and writing and less on instruction in speaking and listening. The time spent on talking was dominated by response to questions posed by teachers, and listening meant listening to the teachers, which took too much class time.

The Curriculum from 5 to 16 reports the same finding:

The national secondary survey recorded curricula in many schools, which, especially in years 4 and 5 [now referred to as years 10 and 11], were heavily dominated by writing, largely of a kind requiring notes and summaries. In consequence, talk tended to be squeezed out, especially that type of talk which helps young people to handle new ideas, to develop a reasoned argument, to internalise their experiences and to find personal expression for them (information in [ ] added).

(DES, 1985a, pp. 9-10)

These deficiencies in the Education Service were noted in the White Paper, Better Schools (DES, 1985b). In primary school it was found that "in about half of all classes much work in classrooms is so closely directed by the teacher that *there is little*

*opportunity either for oral discussion or for posing and solving practical problems...*" (p. 6), while in secondary school it was found that "in virtually all schools and departments there is often excessive direction by the teacher of pupils' work, .... *Pupils need more opportunities to learn for themselves, to express their own views and to develop their ideas through discussion*; teachers do too much of the work for them" (p. 7, italics added).

Collins (1981) said that teachers should train the students to use language to construct meaning for themselves and others, and it is the students' task to make the subject meaningful. On the contrary, Collins reported evidence from studies of language interaction in classrooms that teachers said too much and students were often treated as passive recipients of knowledge. He argued that teachers were working too hard. Jones (1988) highlighted the discrepancy between the theory of the previous twenty years and the practice in the classroom. While the theory stressed the centrality of talk in education, empirical evidence suggested that classroom practice had not been significantly influenced by it.

Others might not agree with the idea of allowing students to have more freedom and may even see speaking and listening by students as a threat to classroom order rather than an opportunity for greater learning. Furthermore, "Teachers, parents, and employers often regard classroom talk by pupils as, at best, evidence of modern, casual, and rather trendy methods, and at worst as a sign of indiscipline. Talking is still regarded as a time-wasting, low-status activity, ..." (Tarleton, 1988, p. 1).

Why is talk not encouraged in the classroom? When Howe posed this question to teachers, the following are some of the answers:

1. concern about noise, lack of control or handing over control, discipline problems and so on;
2. syllabus constraints and lack of time, particularly in the secondary school;
3. the exam system: when it comes down to it, in the secondary school particularly, you show what you know you can do by picking up a pen and writing;
4. the difficulty of evaluating what is happening;
5. organisational difficulties to do with space, layout of chairs and so on;
6. the fact that talk has got a life of its own; you cannot guarantee what pupils will do. This is a concern to do with control over knowledge and over what counts as being relevant in the classroom;
7. finally, entrenched attitudes to methodology. In other words, teachers who operate with a model of learning which does not admit that talk is a vital part of the learning process.

(Howe, 1991, p. 28)

Tough (1979) discussed how talk was used in the classroom by teachers and made a comparison with the use of talk by students. On the teachers' side, talk was used to control and to organise students. In addition, teachers used talk as an essential aid in teaching: to inform and instruct, to expound ideas, to question and check on children's learning, to evaluate children's work and behaviour and for many other purposes. Tough explained that in all schools, students were expected to be alert to the meaning of teachers' talk, to interpret it and to respond appropriately. Talk played an important part in schools, in communicating to students what teachers expect of them. Unfortunately, the place given to students' talk by teachers was to answer teacher's questions; they were

not generally encouraged to ask questions and to take part in discussion. Many teachers, indeed, felt that talk obstructed learning and therefore they actively discouraged students' talk in school.

The same problem was highlighted by Francis (1994) in the Thirteenth Vernon-Wall Lecture. According to her, teachers spend much of their time in ensuring that students' talk is under their control; as a result, teachers hear very little from an individual student. With minimal oral feedback, it is hard for teachers to determine the effectiveness of their teaching. Francis reported findings from both beginning and experienced teachers on initial and in-service training courses, which revealed that these teachers were aware of the conflict. Even though the teachers wanted to have more direct interaction with individual students, they experienced a dilemma, wanting to keep students quiet and to maintain discipline, in order to proceed with the lesson, yet also wanting to hear from students how they were getting on. This is a very delicate situation which is faced by all teachers.

Another worried person is Lloyd (1994) who discussed the problem of assessing speaking and listening:

As for assessment of speaking and listening, I could accept that this be weighted as 0% ... That is a personal view, concerned more with recording and administration than education, perhaps. I am open to sweet reason from those who can show me how to increase the amount without losing control of moderation in the eyes of Joe Public.

(Lloyd, 1994, p. 11)

The above quotations from a range of literature, give some insight into the status of speaking and listening generally in classroom. When teachers place administrative problems above educational values, the consequence is that the development of the skills of speaking and listening are jeopardised; speaking and listening will have to compete with reading and writing, even though these skills should be complementary to each other.

So far, we have examined the views of adults concerning speaking and listening in the classroom. What about the students? How do they feel? Below are some of the comments from 15 to 16 year old girls in a survey by Her Majesty Inspectors of Schools (DES, 1979) about their ability to speak and listen in real life contexts:

“Some people have trouble talking and communicating with other people, and this way you can’t make friends and people think you are ignorant.”

“I have got problems with talking to other people.”

“I don’t like going into shops.”

“If the people are posh, you don’t know whether to put on an act or talk your normal self.”

(DES 1979, p. 98)

The above comments reflect the demoralising impact on the girls of their inability to speak well. Without positive self-esteem, it is doubtful if these students can perform well in their school examinations, the work place or society.

The National Oracy Project magazine reports on the thinking and feeling of Cheshire students regarding speaking and listening. Some examples are given below:

“Teachers are always saying, ‘Finish the question you’re on’. The reason I really hate this is that I’ve been stuck on the question for ten minutes and I don’t know the answer.”

“I think there’s too much talking and not enough listening.”

“The best kind of talking is ... chatting to your friends ... working things out ... gossiping ... talking to a pretend friend ... telling people what to do ... quiet voices ... secrets ...”

“The worst kind of talking is ... shouting ... arguing ... interrupting ... hard questions ... when people keep saying the same things ... telling off ... sad words”

“Some grown-ups think children don’t say anything important ... so they don’t listen”

“In the garage:

Dad?

Yes?

Can I help?

No.

Please?



No.

Oh.

If you want to help, go and tidy your bedroom. (He means, 'Get out of my way.')

Teachers say:

Shut up!

Sit up!

Clear up that mess!

Do you do that at home?

Do you want to do the teaching?

Come to the front and read this!

Go to the headmaster!!!

Or they just:

Glare!!!

Point!!!

Clear their throat!!!

Slam rulers down!!!

We just secretly say 'No!'"

(‘Are you listening out there?’ Oracy Issues, 1990, p. 20)

‘Are you listening out there?’ is an appropriate title to ponder on. It is essential for us to listen to the students' needs and problems so that they can be prepared to face the known and the unknown in the future. For more than three decades, the belief that speaking and listening ability is innate (Hockett, 1958; Chomsky, 1959) has deprived students of golden opportunities to develop these skills. Other problems such as discipline, resources and time make it difficult to rectify the problem. Over-emphasis on

writing is partly due to the system of examinations, which has dragged the classroom practice away from speaking towards writing. "Writing remains, and seems likely to remain, the dominant language mode in secondary education" (Hardcastle, McLeod, Mellor, Richmond, & Savva, 1983, p. 209) because in the school environment, success is measured by the achievement of a certificate, which very much depends on writing skills demonstrated by answering examination questions or writing-up course work. Teachers are in a dilemma and forced to adopt a short-sighted approach of 'give them what they want', which results in the loss of rich resources in the development of speaking and listening.

In fact, teachers need to listen carefully to the students, to find out what knowledge they already have, rather than students just "guessing what the teacher has in mind" (DES, 1975, p. 142). Teachers need to be sensitive to the speaking and listening needs of the students, the environment and the demands imposed by economic and social factors. At the same time, the teachers too need to be listened to, they need support to encourage speaking and listening in the classroom because they alone cannot change the paradigm.

#### **4. 3. 1 Speaking and Listening Versus Reading and Writing**

"It is sad to relate that the history of formal schooling in this country shows literacy and oracy at enmity, a state of affairs which has persisted down the present day" (Wilkinson, 1965, p. 44). According to Wilkinson, the situation was strengthened through the Theory of Grammar and the Theory of Literature. "The Theory of Grammar held that the performance of a large number of grammatical exercises disciplined the mind, and improved ability to write composition" (Wilkinson, 1965, p. 45). Even though the belief was false, the theory was popular, reflected in text-books and examination

papers in grammar exercises at the expense of “writing which is part of true literacy” (p. 45) and the oral skills. In contrast, the Theory of Literature is important in education, but the exaggerated claim such as “the quality of a man’s life depends largely on the quality of what he reads” (p. 45) and other claims fail to take into account that “the quality of a man’s life is determined primarily by his human relationships from the moment he is born. And these relationships are established and maintained through speech.” (p. 45). Wilkinson claimed that the Theory of Grammar and the Theory of Literature have reduced oracy to insignificance.

We have seen how speaking and listening have been eclipsed by reading and writing in the classroom for a long time. What is so prestigious about reading and writing? Actually, man became characteristically human when he learned to speak, perhaps 1,000,000 or more years ago (Speech, 1990, In *The New Encyclopaedia Britannica*), but the earliest known writing system appeared less than 5,000 years ago. “Writing is a relatively recent invention” (Bloomfield, 1935, p. 282); it derives from speech, and writing systems are based upon systems of oral language which of necessity develop first. There are about 4,000 languages now in use on earth (Comrie, 1987), but only 5 percent have developed an indigenous writing system.

We learn to read and write only laboriously and with much instruction. This is hardly surprising, because compared with speech, writing is a very recent invention and there is the “persistent myth that the written code is a new ‘language’ that must be taught” (Lieb-Brilhart, 1980, p. 8). Because most children when they enter school have been using the oral code, it has often been assumed that further instruction in the skills of speaking and listening is unnecessary and that the crucial duty of teachers is to develop writing skills.

Kroll and Vann (1981, p. vii) quote the 1902 Harvard Committee, on composition and rhetoric, as considering it “little less than absurd to suggest that any human who can be taught to talk cannot likewise be taught to compose. Writing is merely the habit of talking with the pen instead of the tongue”. To the committee, speaking and writing were similar processes. There have been many works, however, drawing attention to both similarities and differences between spoken and written texts. One such work is by Emig (1977) who identified a number of differences: talk is generally more elaborated, writing more selective; talk requires less commitment to what is said than does writing; talk relies to a great extent on features of the immediate context, while writing must provide much of its own context, specifically the aspects of purpose and audience.

We cannot deny the power of writing, due to its enduring nature. Speech, being intangible, vanishes unless recorded. “To speak is to write on water. Our words make no mark on the colourless surface, and are swept away immediately” (Wilkinson, 1986, p. 1), but written work stands as a monument through time. But we must not ignore the fact that written work “almost always emerges from a prolonged preparation in the oral mode, in the form of seminars, discussion at conferences and the much less formal conversations that occur between peers in the course of conducting experiments, carrying out an archaeological dig, or examining a historical document or the output from a computer analysis of questionnaire data” (Wells, 1992, p. 291). It is also common to see written texts that are intended to be accompanied by speaking and listening (Bowen, Aggertt & Rickert, 1978; Chambers, 1985; Ecroyd & Wagner, 1979; Wells, 1990). Time and time again, we have been guilty of underrating the power of speaking and listening. It is time for us to utilise all our powers of communication to the full.

Vachek (1973) compared speech and writing very carefully and he argued that neither speaking nor writing is primary. They are ‘functionally complementary’ systems:

in some situations speech serves a society's communicative needs better, in other situations writing does. Halliday (1975) argued that oral language, reading and writing should be allowed to take place side by side because they reinforce each other. Thus, it is sad to find speaking and listening being left behind in schools. Howe's (1991) short satire (Appendix 4-1) illustrates simply what has happened to speaking and listening in school. He then further explains that:

Talk has been the Cinderella of the language modes for years and years. It is commonplace in school, we have all recognised it, we have even recognised its usefulness but when it comes to going out in society, when it comes to being invited to the ball, talk has been left behind.

(Howe, 1991, p. 22)

In other words we know that speaking and listening skills are important but we have failed to recognise the centrality of these skills in education.

#### **4. 3. 2 Summary of the Status of Speaking and Listening in the Classroom**

The present high level of investment in education (Dr Nick Tate, Chief Executive of the SCAA, 1995) is proof that the leaders of this country are looking towards the future. The aim of the education system is to prepare people for personal growth and to meet national and international challenges in varied areas. The foregoing review, however, has shown that in the past the teaching of speaking and listening was not the central part of the education system and to a certain extent can be said to have been neglected.

The review shows how early theories in language and communication influenced the development of speaking and listening. In the 60s and the 70s, the thinking behind the pedagogical practice was that it was not necessary to teach speaking and listening after the child reached five to six years, because of the innate nature of language acquisition. Therefore, any support or instruction from adults would seem insignificant. Other factors such as discipline, syllabus and examination pressures, to name a few, have been identified as reasons for discouraging talk in the classroom.

Meanwhile, students have been found to have problems with their inability to speak and listen. They claim that parents and teachers do not encourage them to speak and that adults do not value their opinions.

#### **4.4 THE IMPORTANCE OF DEVELOPING SPEAKING AND LISTENING SKILLS IN CHILDREN, TEENAGERS AND ADULTS**

In this section the later development and recognition given to speaking and listening skills will be examined. This is followed by a discussion of ways in which speaking and listening skills are used by, and are important to, children, teenagers and adults.

##### **4.4.1 The Recognition of the Importance of Speaking and Listening Skills**

The importance of speaking and listening skills can be seen by examining their contributions to mankind. One of the contributions, according to Dance (1975), is that human beings are active when they speak because it links the individual to the environment. Dance argued that speech brings a child into personal contact with the language community, and links language users to each other. This point was further emphasised by Arnold (1980) when he suggested that speech provides the extension of

one's body and mind toward interaction with other bodies of mind. Atherne, Thornber, Fagg and Skelton (1990) explained that all children learn to communicate with their environment and with other human beings by active participation and interaction. The ability to communicate allows them to find out more about their world, themselves and others. Active participation and interaction also allows the children to express themselves. Speech is the basic network of the human community, that permits socialisation and civilisation. Speech is unique to humans (Dance, 1982); therefore speech differentiates man from the other species (Bickerton, 1994; Bolton, 1994; Skinner, 1938; Speech, 1990, In *The New Encyclopaedia Britannica: Macropaedia, Knowledge in Depth*).

Many writers (Dance, 1975; Wilder & Harvey, 1971; Vygotsky 1962) have highlighted the importance of speaking among children. Their works show that children demonstrate their intellect through speaking. Dance (1975) argued that children's experience of the acoustic-oral activities of speaking is vital because this will act as a trigger to higher conceptualisation. Dance's idea was built upon the work of Vygotsky (1962) who, having studied empirically, for ten years, issues related to 'thinking and speech', made the following summary on inner speech:

Inner speech develops through a long cumulative series of functional and structural changes. It branches off from the child's external speech with differentiation of the social and the egocentric functions of speech. Finally, the *structure of speech that the child masters becomes the basic structure of his thinking.*

(Vygotsky, 1962, pp. 119-120, Italics added)

Vygotsky argued that the beginning of speech is the beginning of higher thought. Therefore the basic and necessary condition of learning is speech. The importance of 'talking to oneself' was explained by Wilder and Harvey (1971) who said that "...young children need to talk to themselves during problem solving. This overt dialogue-with-self reflects the child's not yet fully developed internal verbal connections, which mediate problem solving" (p.176).

Crocker (1980), too, noted the value of oral communication in his introduction to Developing Oral Communication Competence, in which he quoted from the New South Wales English syllabus:

Speech is the predominant medium of communication. We live in a speaking and listening world. From birth to death man is almost continually involved in situations, from the simple to the very complex, dependent upon the spoken word. It is certain that an inability to respond adequately to these situations diminishes personal stature, affects social relationships and often frustrates legitimate ambition.

(Crocker, 1980, p. 1)

The recognition of the importance of oral communication can be seen in the action taken by the American Government. In 1978 the US Congress officially added 'effective oral communication' to the basic skills of reading, writing, and mathematics for all schools (Public Law 95-561, amending Title II of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965). This 'basic skill' status given to speech communication "continues to imply knowledge and competencies that are so crucial to becoming a



functional, contributing member of American society that every student should master them” (Most, 1994, p. 197).

In England, similar recognition of basic skills in communication including speaking and listening is reflected by the introduction in 1989 of the National Curriculum English Order which will be discussed in Chapter 5.

#### **4. 4. 2 Role of Speech in Problem Solving, Learning and Generating Ideas**

The use of language in ordinary discourse, according to Bruner (1975), has minimal effect on the thought of its users. Only when language is used with exploitation of its inherent structure of meaning and organisation, will the nature of thought processes be transformed in a special way. In his paper, *Language as an instrument of thought*, Bruner discusses ‘linguistic competence’, ‘communicative competence’ and ‘analytic competence’. His idea of ‘linguistic competence’ is based on Chomskian theories of language acquisition. This competence is said to be innate, so children do not learn to acquire this competence; they just apply it in developing knowledge of language. In relation to ‘communicative competence’, Bruner points that it “involves the achievement of effective Piagetian ‘concrete operation’ ... language is serving as a mode for expressing and representing the structure of concrete thought about things and people” (p. 72). It is in ‘communicative competence’ that a child learns “to make utterances that are ‘appropriate to the context in which they are made’, and presumably the ability to comprehend utterances in the light of the context in which they are encountered” (p. 72). Bruner points out that every normal person can achieve this competence without training. With regard to ‘analytical competence’, Bruner says, “it involves the prolonged operation of thought processes exclusively on linguistic representations, on propositional structures, accompanied by strategies of thought and problem-solving appropriate not to direct

experience with objects and events but with ensembles of propositions” (p. 72). In other words, it refers to the ability to use language for thinking, a capability that is not acquired without experiencing some long-term educational process integrated with interactional language activities, which are rich and complex.

According to Britton (1970), the ability to solve problems and to cope with the world is related to talk during childhood. The connection is between ‘egocentric speech’ (Piaget, 1926) or dialogue, and ‘inner speech’ (Vygotsky, 1962) or thought, which operates to assist the solving of problems.

Barnes (1976) reported research involving talk and problem solving. In one study by Gagne and Smith, it was found that adolescent boys more readily solved physical manipulation problems (to move a pile of discs according to rules which governed their moves) if they were asked to explain, as they made a move, why they were doing it. In a study by Marks, adults who were asked to put into words the ways in which errors could have occurred in the course of a computation, were more likely to reach the correct answer than those who were given written a list of possible sources of error.

Mercer (1995) has summed up the kind of talk which is good for solving intellectual problems and understanding:

It is talk in which (each) partner presents ideas as clearly and explicitly as necessary for them to become shared and jointly evaluated ... it is talk in which partners reason together – problems are jointly analysed, possible explanations are compared, joint decision are reached. (p. 98)

In our daily life we come across adults ‘talking to themselves’ while completing their tasks. According to Modaff and Hopper (1984), a simple problem can be solved ‘in

the head', without speaking, but to solve a difficult problem, it is advisable to talk it through. This simple principle applies widely across many kinds of learning, and Wilder and Harvey (1971) reported that works by Mechanic (1964), Murray (1965, 1966, 1967) and Wilder (1971) have emphasised the role of overt verbalisation in learning.

Carmean and Wier (1967) also found that positive effects were associated with saying items out loud during learning and they said that overt verbalisation has a memorial effect which influences both learning and recall. When Gagne and Smith (1962) carried out an experiment to find the effects on learning and transfer, of having subjects verbalise while solving problems, they found that the verbalisers were highly superior to the other two groups in the experiment. Wilder and Harvey (1971) duplicated Gagne and Smith's experiment to see the effect on learning and transfer of having subjects verbalise overtly; they added an additional component whereby one group had to verbalise covertly. Wilder and Harvey Obtained similar results to Gagne and Smith, that overtly verbalising subjects were superior to control subjects. They found no significant difference in performance of overt and covert verbalisers. These results imply that both covert and overt verbalisation could be superior to silent performance. They said that covert verbalisation may be "the actual mechanism facilitating learning, and having subjects talk out loud during experiments may simply ensure activation of this mechanism" (p. 176). This explanation is consistent with Vygotsky's theoretical account of the internalisation of speech during the course of human development, referred to earlier. Since verbal mediation aids performance in problem solving, Wilder and Harvey proposed that in high school, students should talk, or silently verbalise while solving problems.

Voice is an important factor and Ong (1958) explained that voice is the foundation for role-playing. Role-playing is a complex task mastered through overt verbalisation and

most problem-solving and communication requires that humans play roles. Ong wrote that acting a role is fundamentally a vocal process.

In Language across the Curriculum, Marland (1977) summarises:

The way into ideas, the way of making ideas truly one's own, is to be able to think them through and the best way to do this for most people is to talk them through. This talking is not merely a way of conveying existing ideas to others; it is also a way by which we explore ideas, clarify them, and make them our own.

(Marland, 1977, p. 129)

In the same vein, Booth (1993) gave advice to scientists who wish to write and present their papers:

*Speaking makes you think out your argument*; and listeners' criticisms may prevent your publishing a clanger. Some institutes operate a regular tea club or occasional seminar at which researchers tell colleagues about their work. If your institute has no club, or the programme is filled, invite colleagues to your room to listen to you. Display diagrams. If you have no projector, use a felt-tip pen to draw diagrams and tables on the back of a roll of wallpaper. Hang the paper over a chair on the bench. Do - speak - slowly.

(Booth, 1993, p. 1)

Booth emphasised that in order to clarify ideas in one's mind, the best way is to explain those ideas to others. There is no substitute for speaking to a real audience. Here,

the main concern is not the number of listeners; it can be a group or just one person listening to the speaker; the main concern is for the speaker to speak and to speak to an audience. Through speaking, ideas or arguments can be developed and the listeners' function is not merely to embellish the situation; their response, either verbal or non-verbal, is critical. The feedback will indicate the listener's understanding of the talk, giving the speaker an opportunity, if necessary, to correct himself. By speaking, a person can come to understand his own ideas better, especially if supported by the listener's feedback.

Modaff and Hopper (1984) observed that, in a typical classroom, normally the teacher talks and the students listen. In this situation, bearing in mind the theory of Booth, then the teacher can be expected to learn much more than the students do. Actually, it is the students who should be given more opportunity to talk, so that they will have a better chance to maximise their learning potential.

While creating opportunity for students to talk, teachers need to plan their work in order to create 'real' situations. Dentith (1995) highlighted the basic principle of Mikhail Bakhtin that "communicative acts only have meaning, only take their own specific force and weight, in particular situations or contexts, his is an account of utterance, of the actual communicative interactions in its real situation" (p. 3).

Students also need proper guidance in order to participate in classroom activities. John Dewey (Lucas, 1998) offers step-by-step process for guiding students' discussion in problem-solving groups:

Defining the problem; analysing the problem; establishing criteria for solving the problem; generating potential solutions and selecting the best solution. (p. 467)

### 4.4.3 Scaffolding Literacy

In the area of higher education, many educators agree that literacy is a necessary condition for learning but less attention has been given to the fact that speaking and listening is a necessary condition for literacy (Allen & Brown, 1978). According to Goodman (1967), Teale (1996) and Tough (1977), the child who is beginning to acquire reading and writing skills must build these skills on a foundation of oral communication abilities. Goodman, a noted authority on reading skills in children, took the view that a child's speaking and listening experiences are the basis for reading instruction. For example, a child must be able to identify a word by sound before being able to identify it by sight.

Wilkinson (1971), too, saw reading as dependent on speaking and listening skills:

The ability to read is largely dependent on the skill in the spoken language the learner already possesses; he has to recognise that visual signs represent the language he knows as sounds. The major reading skills are present in the oral language of the young children: learning to read is a matter of drawing upon one's prior knowledge. (p. 202)

The Bullock Report made a similar point that, in promoting differentiated writing, students' "reading interests will be an influential factor, particularly in the early stages. To develop, they must take in written forms of the language and articulate these with their own general language resources, built up by years of listening and speaking" (1975, p. 166).

Fairbairn and Winch (1996) began their Reading, Writing and Reasoning: A Guide for Students with a discussion on talking and writing. They pointed out that if a person does not understand the complexities of speech, that person will be unaware of the very different techniques required during communicating through writing. Oral monologues, which Moffett (1968, p. 30) defined as “the sustained utterance by one speaker who is developing a subject for some purpose” have been claimed by Britton et al. (1975) cited by Johnson (1977, p. 16) to be the best basis for writing. Harpin (1976) acknowledged the general principle of building writing on a background of talk and he noted that the idea “seems to be a sound one; beginning writers are likely to be aided by the opportunity to rehearse in speech, their own ideas and to overhear the thoughts of others” (p.135). Thus “speech certainly has an important role to play in the acquisition of mastery of the written language” (Britton, 1983, p.14)

The discussion so far shows how the development of reading and writing skills depends on speaking and listening skills, and that the understanding of speaking and listening skills helps to understand reading and writing communication. It is also worth noting that in order to improve writing among students, Condon & Clyde (1996) propose a co-authoring technique of composition through conversation, because such opportunity promotes students’ “collaborative talk”. In Constructing Knowledge Together, Wells and Chang-Wells (1992) discussed the fine network underlying “collaborative talk”:

In order to achieve the benefits of having two minds focusing collaboratively on a problem, the participants must achieve intersubjectivity in their representation of the task in hand and of their proposals for dealing with it. Each needs to know the other’s understanding and intentions, and both must take the appropriate steps to ensure that mutual understanding is maintained. There is a need, therefore, to be

explicit. Thus, in order to explain the matter in hand sufficiently clearly for the other participant to make an informed response, *each is forced to construct a more coherent and detailed verbal formulation* than would be necessary if he or she were working on the problem alone. In the process, gaps, and inconsistencies become apparent and can be repaired, with the result that the problem is seen with greater clarity. (pp. 60-61, italics added)

Students' discussions, negotiations and argument; sharing ideas, presenting, opposing, different or divergent points of view, by either working towards agreement or acknowledging disagreement and reaching consensus, will inform and shape and reshape their writing, ultimately producing a good piece of composition. The same idea was forwarded by Andrews (1995), who suggested two metaphors that reveal positive aspects of the practice of argumentation. The first is of dance -"the 'moves' made in exchange of views, the 'positions' taken and the 'steps' necessary for a reconciliation or decision" (p. 19) and the second metaphor is that of construction, which is "more integrated into conceptions of argument, as evidenced in phrases like 'Let's build on that point', 'What is the foundation of your argument?' and 'You can't support your argument with sufficient evidence' " (p. 20). These metaphors of dance and construction offer new views and allow students to see argument as moving to new positions through agreement and building instead of eliminating differences, as in the case of metaphors of war.

The students' success is also due to the conferences which help them as writers to develop their self-awareness of their writing strengths and weaknesses (Calkins, 1994; Graves, 1991; Hansen, 1987). The primary vehicle for learning through such experiences is the quality of the conversation that goes into completing a text (Condon & Clyde, 1991, 1993).



Students should be encouraged to talk in class daily about their writing and that of published writers. This proposal by Cullinan (1993), Newkirk and McClure (1992), Rhodes and Dudley-Marling (1988) and Short (1990) includes having students listen to the writing and reading choices of their classmates with the responsibility of responding as people who read and write themselves. Such talk will build the habit of reading and writing actively and also will provoke students' thinking about the appropriate response to someone who cares and who reads and writes as actively as they do, with the sense of ownership.

So, an important factor in preparing children for independent writing involves extending oral communication skills, and it is more likely that children who are able to use speaking and listening for a variety of communicative purposes will have a firmer basis on which to build written communication skills (Burton, Donelson, Fillion, & Haley, 1975; Cramer, 1978; Kroll & Vann, 1981; Marcus, 1977; Petty, Petty, & Becking, 1976; Rubin, 1975).

The constructivist's view of learning (Barnes, 1992, 1995; Cook-Gumperz, 1986; Dewey, 1938; Piaget, 1976) is rooted in the belief that learners cannot simply absorb information but instead must actively construct their own understandings of the world, and here we can see how conversation plays a significant role in supporting and extending that learning (The Mathematical Association, 1987; Pierce & Gilles, 1993; Rowe, 1994; Watson & Young, 1986). Helping co-authors make the processes of conversation explicit (McIntyre, Kyle, Hovda, & Clyde, 1996) is likely to lead to improving the quality of conversation, the most critical aspect of successful co-authoring. This is a very positive cycle.

As noted earlier, literacy begins with speaking and listening skills, but it does not end there, because these skills and written skills continue to interact in educational ways

throughout the life cycle. Geiger, (1963, p.) writes “...ordinarily the student improves in both textual understanding and expressive action when he works on text and oral interpretation simultaneously.” Thus, as speech can aid much learning, it specifically underlies and aids literate communication.

Because speaking and listening are so vital, Modaff and Hopper (1984) offer the following suggestions about how more student speech can be added to classrooms:

1. ask more questions of students;
2. allow students more time to answer questions you ask;
3. offer opportunities for students to work in small groups;
4. encourage exercises in group speaking aloud, such as choral reading, recitation of exercise material, and singing;
5. let students teach each other in dyads and small groups;
6. explore possibilities for oral testing;
7. respond to students’ speech in terms of content, rather than commenting primarily on form, grammar, dialect, or speech impediment (Such criticism leads too frequently to silence;
8. put students in speaking contexts, e.g., self-government, decision-making, convening groups to make recommendations.

(Modaff & Hopper, 1984, p. 41)

The suggestions by Modaff and Hopper show that there is a need to move from a teacher-centred approach to a more student-centred approach to create opportunities for students to tap the benefits of speaking and listening, and at the same time strengthen their power in reading and writing.

#### 4. 4. 4 Talk as Enhancing Personal Qualities

Speaking and listening are closely linked with personality development (Corson, 1988). Students who have extensive use of speaking and listening will regularly encounter different opinions from other speakers. So, they will be exposed to looking at a problem from multiple perspectives (De Bono, 1990) and they will value the worth of the points of view of others, which eventually lead to the development of critical thinking and analytic competence. Intellectual development involves an increasing capacity to say what one has done and what one will do (Bruner, 1966). Peters (1967) argues that “Given the critical thought about the assumptions in which we are nurtured rather goes against the grain, it will only develop if we keep critical company so that a critic is incorporated within our own consciousness. The dialogue within is a reflection of the dialogue without.” (p. 19-20). This shows that speaking and listening can enhance personal qualities.

Another contribution made by speaking and listening is the development of the speaker’s credibility, especially in the eyes of the listener. Research on the impact of talkativeness on interpersonal perceptions such as source credibility, leadership ability, interpersonal attraction, powerfulness, and attitude similarity has found strong, positive relationships (Daly, McCroskey, & Richmond, 1976, 1977; Hayes & Meltzer, 1972; Hayes & Sievers, 1972). These studies indicate that the more a person talks, the more that person is perceived to be credible, a leader, interpersonally attractive, powerful, and to have attitudes similar to those of the perceiver. This relationship between talk and credibility is found even in excessively high talk levels, such as one person talking 75 to 95 percent of the time in a small group. Plots and tests of the relationships indicate no meaningful decline of positive perceptions even at the most extremely high levels of talking behaviour (Daly et al., 1976). The conclusion is that generally it is good to talk,

and according to Wilkinson (1965) speech is “a central factor in the development of the personality ...” (p. 13) so the more talk, the better.

McCroskey and Richmond (1995), in their study, interviewed students who were identified as ‘talkaholics’ to find out whether the students had perceptions of themselves as being more fluent and articulate than other people. Only a few did, most did not. But it is very interesting to note that, when asked whether others frequently asked them to speak in their place, they reported that it was a very common experience, especially to represent their group in school or at work. In other words, these ‘talkaholics’ had more opportunity to practise their speaking skills, and this opened the avenues even wider for them to be leaders.

The quantity of talk, and the reasons for variability in quantity of talk, have been a central focus of much research. Primary attention has centred on factors believed to result in less talking, such as high communication apprehension, low self-esteem, introversion, and inadequate communication skills (Daly & McCroskey, 1984; Jones, Cheek, & Briggs, 1986; Leary, 1983; McCroskey, 1977; McCroskey & Richmond 1991; Phillips, 1981; Zimbardo, 1977). In modern society, it is obvious that insufficient talk is a problem; hence the importance of being able to talk not only ‘more’ but also with competence.

We cannot deny that speaking and listening help an individual to acquire qualities such as credibility, leadership and other qualities in order to function in society. This applies not only to employment but also to other areas of adult life. Cox (DES, 1989) gave a number of examples of situations where it is necessary to be orally competent so as to function well as a member of society. The first example is how to function in a society that is exposed to mass communication. Through media such as television, radio and cinema, individuals are exposed to a broad spectrum of information which needs to be evaluated and used sensibly for any purpose. Another example is to function as a

consumer, which according to Cox includes information seeking, negotiation and complaining in the proper manner. Another example given by Cox is in the case of jurors or witnesses, voters or representatives of political or interest groups where one needs to know how to judge or present a spoken case, how to differentiate between emotive language and argument, between fact and fiction, and how to marshal facts with clarity and precision. These examples show how speaking and listening enhance personal qualities and help individuals to function well as members of society.

Lieb-Brilhart (1980) appropriately emphasised the importance of speaking and listening skills:

“most noteworthy is the recognition that speaking and listening skills play a vital role in the development of written language skills, mathematical skills, problem solving, and of course, in *skills of personal development* ” (p. 7, italics added.)

#### **4. 4. 5 Summary of the Importance of Developing Speaking and Listening Skills in Children, Teenagers and Adults**

From the above discussion we have seen the significant functions played by speaking and listening in our society. We cannot function without speaking and listening skills. Dance (1982) reflected on the consequences, if speech were to be eliminated in the human race:

Speech is not only of the essence in the genesis of higher mental processes, of self-concept, and of self-esteem but speech also plays an essential role in the maintenance of each of these important human attributes. If speech is eliminated in the individual, there is often a corresponding decrement in one or more of these

attributes. If speech were to be eliminated in the race, what would be the effects upon social conscience, upon the entire human heritage, upon humanness? Examining such negative effects may well suggest results of enhancement of speech for the individual and for society. (Dance, 1982, pp. 5-6)

Dance's reflection, and the discussion so far, demonstrate the meaningful and important contributions made by speaking and listening in our lives. These skills have been the basis of our family, society and civilisation. Through these skills we learn about ourselves, about others and about the whole world. These skills help us to learn, to be literate, to solve problems, to clarify ideas and to achieve higher conceptualisation. They skills help us to develop our personality. They skills also help us to function in society. What is more important, is that these skills are "... closely related to human happiness and well-being" (Wilkinson, 1965, p. 13). Without doubt, speaking and listening are important for us as individuals and as a society.

#### **4.5 SPEAKING AND LISTENING IN SCHOOLS AND HIGHER EDUCATION**

In this section, a review will be presented of goals of speech education, speaking and listening in regard to academic success, the impact of speaking and listening instruction and the content of speaking and listening courses.

##### **4.5.1 Goals of Speech Education**

What are the goals of speech education? Brooks and Friedrich (1973) explained the goals as: helping individuals develop their communication abilities to the fullest possible extent for several types of situations: marital communication, social communication, on-the-job communication, conference and committee work, as well as

public speaking. When a teacher is teaching, she or he should have the future in her or his mind, in other words, the aim should be to prepare the students for their work or to be an active member of the public.

#### **4.5.2 The Relationship of Speaking and Listening with Academic Success**

Smedler and Torestad (1996) carried out a three-year longitudinal project in Sweden, in which 812 pupils age 10 were enrolled and at the age of 13 their basic academic skills were measured by standardised achievement tests in Swedish language (reading and writing) and arithmetic. The results of their study showed that verbal ability is a strong predictor for the acquisition of basic academic skills. According to Smedler and Torestad, children with a relative superiority in verbal ability tend to be 'overachievers', i.e. be more successful in school.

Verbal ability appears to be of particular significance for successful primary and secondary education (Gustafsson & Balke, 1993; Morris, Evans, & Pearson, 1978; Smedler, 1975; Volkoff, 1985). In 1982 the Cockcroft Report on the teaching of mathematics drew attention to the importance of learning through talk. As mentioned earlier, this emphasis has been endorsed by the mathematics and science teachers' associations, and also by the National Association for the Teaching of English and the Association for Primary Education (DES, 1989). Among the prerequisites for college success mentioned by Boyer (1987), are that undergraduates should be able to speak with clarity and listen with comprehension.

According to a study by Conaway (1982), listening is the most critical factor in academic success; deficiencies in listening were found to be the major determining factor of failure in the freshman year of college.

Hawken, Duran, and Kelly (1991) found several links between perceived communication competencies and academic performance. Specifically, students' perceived articulateness predicted grade point average, and their perceived "social confirmation" communication skills predicted drop-out rate. It is not only the actual ability of speaking and listening that determines success in school and higher education; even what the student feels and what others feel to be their ability also count. As Ford and Wolvin (1993, p. 217) so rightly point out, "indeed, communication appears equally important in the academic context as in the career context".

#### **4.5.3 The Impact of Instruction on Students**

Systematic interactions between a teacher and a student facilitate cognitive development. This "courtesy of conversation" or looking at it as "courtesy of good teaching" (Bruner, 1966) shows that students learn language by using language in the company of experienced language users, the teachers.

Increasingly, teachers are being asked to provide evidence that their teaching is both effective and efficient (Knight & Lumsden, 1990). Research on the effectiveness of instructional interventions in communication is sparse, especially at the high school level (Shantz & Wilson, 1972). One method of assessing teacher impact is to determine the level of student development. If students' skills increase as a result of instruction, one supposes, in a well designed study, that the teacher must have had an impact on the skills.

Clark, Willihnganz and O'Dell (1985) reported that instruction focusing on listener needs increases the communication proficiency of young children. They used a pre-test / post-test design to measure the impact that instruction has on children's persuasion skills. They concluded that "even very limited instruction can produce improvements in some form of children's communicative performance" (p. 340).



Most programme effectiveness research has examined instruction's impact on college freshmen. For example, Trank and Steele (1983) used the ACT College Outcome Measure Project test to assess writing and speaking ability both before and after a six-month instructional period. They found that skills improved and students with the lowest entry scores improved the most.

Rubin, Graham and Mignerey (1990) carried out a longitudinal study of college students' communication competence and they reported no immediate pre - and post-class effects of instruction, but found the possibility of a delayed effect; students who had taken a skill class had higher communication skill levels, a year after the course was completed, than those who had not taken the course.

In 1995, Rubin, Welch and Buerkel undertook a study to see the effect of instruction on speaking skills. The assumption was that when instruction is provided, students at the end of a skills class should perform better than at the beginning. The instrument used was the Communication Competency Assessment Instrument - High School Edition (Rubin, 1994) (CCAI-HS, see Figure 6-1).

The results indicated that much of the overall change in 15 skills over time was due to positive changes in the areas of tone of voice, clarity of ideas, introducing oneself, expressing and defending a point of view, asking questions, and describing differences of opinion, i.e. the areas in which students had received instruction. The students had each presented oral interpretations, impromptu speeches, and an informative speech. They had also each participated in an interview in which they both asked and answered questions. Little change was apparent in pronunciation, speech clarity and expression, areas in which many students did not receive instruction. One limitation of this Communication Competency Assessment Instrument - High School Edition is that it assesses speaking and interpersonal communication without the listening component.

Ford and Wolvin (1993) tried to determine whether a basic course in speech communication in which the topics of communication process, intrapersonal communication, verbal and non-verbal communication, listening, interpersonal communication, interviewing, small-group communication and public speaking were the focus, might have a differential impact on students' perceived communication competencies in class, work and social contexts. They found that students' perceptions of their communication competencies improved more in class contexts than other contexts of public speaking, interpersonal communication, group communication, interviewing, and self-confidence. The finding of Ford and Wolvin's study supports continuing efforts to provide speech communication education for undergraduate college students.

Discussing speech instruction within the school environment, Loban writes:

Instruction can best aid the pupil's expression when individual or small groups with similar problems are helped to see how *their own* expression can be improved. This instruction would take the form of identifying elements which strengthen or weaken communication, increase or lower precision of thought, clarify or blur meanings. For the pupils the approach would usually be through models, meaning, and reasoning rather than through the application of rules.

(Loban, 1963, p. 88)

This part of the review has shown that instruction has positive results on students' achievement in speaking and listening skills and also that the impact of instruction on speech improvement has not yet been fully exploited. Students need to be taught the full range of skills and knowledge they require to help them to be competent speakers and listeners.

#### 4.5.4 Speaking and Listening Course Content

According to Brooks and Friedrich (1973) a basic speech course contains several separate units including informative speaking, persuasive speaking, drama, listening, choral reading, voice and diction, delivery, discussion, parliamentary procedure, and debate. Figure 4-1 shows their analysis of content of eleven leading high school texts in the 1960s. The analysis shows that the content of the texts was oriented towards public speaking. All eleven high school texts included topics such as 'verbal tools for expression', 'physical tools, body delivery', 'voice and diction', 'parliamentary procedure', 'radio/television', and 'organization of a speech'. 'Speeches for special occasions' appeared in nine high school texts while 'information informative speech' appeared in seven of the texts. The reality in the school situation, however, is that the number of students who are involved in public speaking is limited and not every student has the chance to deliver a speech to the whole school. In the class situation, if every student was given a chance to deliver a speech in front of their classmates, we could imagine that the frequency with which such an opportunity could be repeated would be limited. Nonetheless, the emphasis towards public speaking is by no means wasted. The content of the speech course would facilitate improving the speaking and listening skills of individual students, though it is better to approach and handle the problem directly.

From Brooks and Friedrich's analysis, other units could also be identified which would facilitate in developing interpersonal and small group communication, for example, conversation, discussion, debate and listening. The orientation improved in the 70's, according to Brooks and Friedrich, because increasing emphasis was placed on principles of communication that are applicable to interpersonal, small group and mass communication.

**Figure 4-1. Content Analysis of Eleven High School Texts  
(Brooks and Friedrich, 1973, p. 5)**

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K
Conversation	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Information informative speech	x	x	x	x	x		x	x			
Verbal tools for expression	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Physical tools, body delivery	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Voice and diction	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Choral reading	x		x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x
Persuasive speaking	x	x					x		x	x	x
Parliamentary procedure	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Discussion	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x
Debate	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Radio/television	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Drama	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Speeches for special occasions	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	
Special difficulties	x										
Audience analysis	x	x					x	x			
Listening		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Organization of a speech	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Speechmaking in free society		x									
Storytelling				x	x	x		x	x	x	
History of speech		x		x			x				
<b>Total</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>13</b>

**Notes:**

- A. Lyman M. Fort and Edward E. Market (1966). Speech for All. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.  
 B. Margaret Painter (1962). Ease in Speech. Boston: D. C. Heath.  
 C. John V. Irwin and Marjorie Rosenberger (1966). Modern Speech. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.  
 D. Wilhelmina G. Hedde, William N. Brigance, and Victor Powell (1963). The New American Speech. Philadelphia: J. P. Lippincott.  
 E. Francis Griffith, Catherine Nelson, and Edward Stasheff (1960). Your Speech. New York: Harcourt, Brace & World.  
 F. Paul Brandes and William Smith (1962). Building Better Speech. New York: Noble & Noble.  
 G. E. F. Elson and Alberta Peck (1966). The Art of Speaking. Boston: Ginn.  
 H. Harlen Adams and Thomas Pollock (1964). Speak Up!. New York: Macmillan.

- I. Charles Masten and George Pflaum (1965). Speech for You. Evanston, Ill.: Row, Peterson.  
J. Karl Robinson and Charlotte Lee (1965). Speech in Action. Chicago: Scott, Foresman.  
K. William Lamers and Joseph Staudscher (1966). The Speech Arts. Chicago: Lyons & Carrahan.

Bassett, Whittington and Staton-Spicer (1978) in their study (see Chapter 3) identified four main categories of speaking and listening competencies for high school graduates. The first category is 'communication codes' which comprise skills dealing with minimal abilities in speaking and understanding spoken English, and using non-verbal signs (e.g., gestures and facial expressions). The second category is 'oral message evaluation', involving the use of standards of appraisal to make judgements about oral messages or their effects. The third category is 'basic speech communication skills'. This set of skills deals with the process of selecting message elements and arranging them to produce spoken messages. The fourth category is 'human relations' which is used for building and maintaining personal relationships and for resolving conflict.

The Bassett et al. (1978) study is significant in the history of teaching-learning speaking and listening skills at high school level, not only because the Speech Communication Association adopted and endorsed the skills constituting these competencies and the scheme itself, but also because it serves as the framework for the association's recommendation for what should be taught in high schools in the United States of America. Bassett et al.'s work was taken as the yardstick for future development of speaking and listening course content at the secondary school.

Muchmore and Galvin (1983) carried out a survey of communication skills focused on 'entry-level personnel' or 'new workers in your field'. Their conclusions and implications were important for those who are planning the syllabus for speaking and listening. They found that individuals who move directly from the community college to the work place will find themselves working with another individual or in small groups.

They said that career advisory personnel rank highly those communication skills related to successful small group performance.

Lockwood and Boatman (1975) and Spicer (1975) found that one of the communication skills that is important for students entering the business field is group communication. Graduates who had been working for one to five years told Di Salvo, Larsen and Seiler (1976) that two of the areas that they wished had been taught in college were small group leadership and problem solving. Carstens (1979), who surveyed business executives in corporations with 1,000 or more employees, came to the conclusion that conference leadership, negotiating and bargaining, and group problem solving need university emphasis. Again, small group meeting skills and dyadic communication were found to be important for college graduates who wish to get employment in business (Smith, 1982).

Spicer (1975), in his study, identified that personal relations and human relations need to be taught to students. His finding is similar to that of Murphy and Jenks (1982) who surveyed 48 persons representing the six largest employment areas in the San Francisco Bay area: service, transportation, communication; utilities; finance and insurance; government; retail; and manufacturing. They found that employers had problems with new, entry-level employees because the new employees lacked interpersonal skills. Murphy and Jenks reported that the employers advised educators to help students develop or improve their non-technical skills: communication, interpersonal communication, and problem solving, help students develop awareness of the demands of the workplace, offer students opportunities to apply their skills through internships or work experience and work co-operatively with representatives of business and industry on employment-related issues.

These findings support the recommendation made by Bassett et al. that 'communication codes', 'oral message evaluation', 'basic speech communication skills', and 'human relations' should be taught in secondary schools, so that students can use these skills for building and maintaining personal relationships. These findings suggest that the speech and listening curriculum should emphasise the social and task skills necessary for working with another person or in small groups.

The findings of Benson (1983), also, emphasise the role of speaking and listening in business settings. Benson, Director of Business and Management programmes at the University of Wyoming-Casper campus, surveyed 175 personnel managers in the greater Wyoming area. His finding indicated that oral skill is important and valuable for graduating business students seeking employment. Muchmore and Galvin (1983), however, found that entry level workers are not likely to find themselves making oral presentations to groups. Career advisory personnel attribute less value to formal presentational speaking skills than to interpersonal or group related speaking skills. These findings suggest that courses focusing solely on presentational speaking skills are not responsive to the needs of the career-oriented student. The Speaking and Listening curriculum must be balanced with the reality in life and in the work place. A curriculum that focuses only on public speaking skills does not cater to the actual needs of students, especially those who are leaving school. The first priority is to help students to be competent speakers and listeners, to help them communicate with other people with different status and also as members of a group.

Another finding by Muchmore and Galvin (1983) is that listening skills are consistently ranked as the most important communication skills for career competence. Many studies have also shown that for anyone who wants to be successful, whether students at college or universities level, employees or those at entry level or who have

been in service for a long time, listening skills seem to be one of the most important factors (Carstens, 1979; Coakley and Wolvin, 1990; Di Salvo, Larsen and Seiler, 1976; Lockwood and Boatman, 1975; Murphy and Jenks, 1982; Smith, 1982; Spicer, 1975). These findings strongly support the need for explicit and extended instruction in listening skills at the secondary school.

The suggestions for the content of speaking and listening courses show the vast area to be covered in this field. Each topic has its own contribution towards the development of individual communication competence. A proper selection has to be made so that the context is balanced and matched to the needs of the students who are leaving to join higher education or the work place.

#### **4.5.5 Summary of Speaking and Listening in Schools and Higher Education**

The goals of teaching speaking and listening are to prepare students for personal development and for their present and future roles in society. Empirical research has shown the positive impact of teaching speaking and listening skills. Because of the vast content area to be covered in speaking and listening, however, there is a need for serious thought on what to teach in secondary schools, in order to provide sufficient background for the students before they leave for employment or further education. There has to be a balance in the syllabus between 'public' and 'group' skills.

#### **4.6 EXAMINING SPEAKING AND LISTENING IN THE WORK PLACE**

In this section, the discussion focuses on the speaking and listening skills needed in the work place, from the perspectives of employers and employees. This section also examines key communication skills for entry-level employees, partly based on the training provided by employers. The aim of this review is to provide general guidelines on the



applications of speaking and listening, thus bridging the world of education with the work place.

#### **4. 6. 1 The Role of Speaking and Listening in the Work Place**

According to Wolvin and Coakley (1991):

Effective communication is a major concern of business and industrial organisations throughout the nation. Internal communication of employees, managers, and executives, as well as external communication to an organisation's publics, are important determinants of productivity and, thus, are considered to be crucial channels for accomplishing the mission of the organization. (p. 152)

Curtis, Winsor and Stephens (1989) say:

“We strongly suggest employers recognise that effective communication skills are tantamount to success in the business organization” (p. 13).

Based on the above quotations it is clear that effective communication contributes to the success of the whole organisation. Yukl (1994) provides a list of skills that characterise a successful leader and one of the skills is being “fluent in speaking” (p. 256). According to Yukl, a leader who is unable to speak well will not gain the confidence of his subordinates; this is taken as a weakness and it reflects badly on his personality.

In his research on public administrators, Murray (1976), found that verbal communication is needed in order to perform effectively in public service. A similar same finding was obtained by Penrose (1976) with samples from banking/finance,

construction, insurance, manufacturing and retailing. Warren (1983), in his review of research by the Midwest College Placement Association, noted verbal communication to be the most important of the eighteen skills identified. Benner and Hitchcock (1986) also found that their sample felt that oral communication to be the most critical skill in their jobs. Joan (1993) studied the skills that managers need in order to become effective leaders. The sample of this study were managers of five banks, seven manufacturing organisations and a shipping organisation. They considered communication to be important in any organisation, and nine of the leaders proposed that verbal forms of communication are the most significant.

In line with the above findings, Koehler, Anatol, and Applbaum (1976) said that an essential ingredient in contemporary business organisations is communication. This view was also taken by Lesikar (1972). He reported that a first-line manager spends about sixty percent of his or her time in communication. Research by Mintzberg (1975) showed that between fifty and ninety percent of managers' time is spent on speaking. Base on a detailed study of five chief executives, Mintzberg (1980) found that they spent 78% of their time communicating orally and that accounted for 67% of their total activities. Research on managerial activities found that lower and middle managers spent from twenty seven to eighty two percent of their time in oral communication, and the figure was between sixty five to seventy five percent for higher-level managers (Yukl, 1994). The above findings show the time scale demand of speaking and listening in managing organisations and this is a clear indication of the positive role of speaking and listening in the work place.

The importance of speaking and listening is illustrated by Wille (1992). Wille reported that when Seymour, who was on an Ashridge Award in connection with her work on the learning organisation, visited Toshiba in Plymouth, she found an open style

of management, based on speaking and listening activities. Every morning, a five-minute meeting was held to discuss the previous day's performance and today's changes and targets. There was a monthly production meeting to discuss the effectiveness of feedback and its impact on production targets and the advisory board held a forum for open discussion, listening to arguments and reaching consensus. Every six months, the managing director addressed the whole company about performance and future plans.

When Wille visited a number of multinational companies in the United Kingdom, he found that there was a lot of talking going on. In fact, according to him, in the early days, Rothmans plants were called "talk shops". The positive side of this is that when the talking finished, the action showed the resultant benefit.

Another example of the need for effective communication was given by Taylor (1992) who quoted Richard Squires, Texaco's Customer-related quality programmes manager at Swindon as saying:

Research has shown that we have to communicate better with all our customers, internally and externally, and the best way to do this is face-to-face. We bring groups of retailers, distributors and commercial customers together, not only to air their views about Texaco products and services, but also to discuss problems that they encounter on the site, some of which are thorny.

(Taylor, 1992, p. 13)

In closed-style management, for example, in a bureaucratic structure, verbal communication is largely the role of the superior and there is little opportunity for the lower levels of the organisational hierarchy to contribute. In the bureaucratic structure, the principles of classical management theory are employed. Three such examples are:

**“An employee should receive orders from only one superior.”**

**“The line of authority from superior to subordinate, which runs from top to bottom of the organization; this chain, which results from the unity-of-command principle, should be used as a channel for communication and decision making.”**

**“Staff personnel can provide valuable advisory services, but must be careful not to violate line authority.”**

**(Morgan, 1997, p. 19).**

These principles are mainly concerned with the control of the workers. In 1911 Taylor who pioneered Scientific Management Theory, which strengthened the bureaucratic structure, was fond of telling his workers, “You are not supposed to think. There are other people paid for thinking around here.” (Cited in Morgan, 1997, p. 25). If the workers’ thoughts were not appreciated, then there were no necessity for them to speak, because nobody was going to listen.

The bureaucratic organisation still exists today, but more and more organisations came to adopt a more open-style management in the 90s (Wille, 1992; Taylor, 1992). Organisations in the 90s demanded that staff be competent speakers and listeners because, in adopting open-style management, employees have their ‘voice’ in the management of their organisation, resulting in more verbal communication.

Another important communication skill that has been identified in the work place is listening. Smeltzer (1979) found poor listening habits to be one of the barriers to effective communication for first-line supervisors. Crocker (1979), who studied personnel directors in business and industry, also found that accurate listening is the most

important skills. Other researchers who have identified listening as an important skill in the work place are Smith (1978) and Warren (1983).

Based on a survey of 113 respondents in companies ranging in size from 1,000 to 50,000 or more employees, Warren (1983) concluded that among the skills needed in order to be successful in business, are interpersonal skills. Warren quoted the President of a Pennsylvania firm who, he felt, best described the need for interpersonal skills thus:

Interpersonal skills and development of *two-way communications* are much more important than learning how to read a balance sheet or how to develop a five-year business plan.

(Warren, 1983, p. 14)

From the above quotation, it is understood that interpersonal skills are vital for job competence. Crocker (1979), on the basis of study of personnel directors in business and industry, rated sensitivity to others as important because in dealing with external public, an organisation needs to establish good public relations, which also include relationship building, interpersonal skills and being sensitive to others.

Other skills that have been identified as important are interpreting a message to another person, persuading, organising ideas clearly, a clear and distinct voice (Crocker 1979) and instructing (Smith, 1978).

The importance of speaking and listening is not restricted to business organisations only. Spicer (1979) reported that one out of six skills identified by journalist-oriented communication specialists as important in their careers, was speech communication.

Erickson (1972) in his study found that technicians or engineers spent 30% of their working hours on oral communication. South (1974) who studied early career performance of engineers, identified six vital components to determine their success, of which two were written/oral communications and relating to others/getting along.

Fitch (1980) studied scientists in petroleum, chemical and biological research institutes and in contract research groups. He found that oral communication skills are important among young scientists. Fitch identified the following oral communication skills needed by young scientists (in descending order of importance):

1. routine information exchange
2. formal paper presentations (using visual aids)
3. small group techniques
4. discussion leadership
5. instructing/teaching techniques
6. public speaking before a large group
7. formal paper presentation (without visual aids)
8. parliamentary leadership

In the field of medicine, Spence (1960) wrote that despite all the recent technical developments in medicine, consultation remains the indispensable unit of medical practice. During consultations, doctors and patients communicate with each other, so that the doctor obtains a full insight into the patient's problems and the patients can understand the problem and accept the doctor's conclusions and advice.

A study of doctors by Byrne (1976) found communication to be a problem among young doctors. They reported that patients were dissatisfied with their consultations

because doctors had limited interviewing skills to the extent they sometimes failed even to find out the main reasons why patients had come to see them. Ten years later, a study by Maguire, Fairbairn and Fletcher (1986) also showed that young hospital doctors were poor in giving information. The doctors were aware of their weaknesses and claimed that they had not been taught how to speak and listen to their patients.

The gravity of this situation can be seen when Fletcher and Freeling (1988), in an overview of studies, found that between 10 and 70 percent of patients (average 50%) do not take their prescribed medicines and reject their doctor's advice about a change in life-style. They came to the following conclusion:

Taking a conservative estimate that in Britain 30 per cent of prescribed drugs are not taken or are incorrectly taken, it may be estimated that some £900 million is wasted in the NHS every year as a result of poor communication.

(Fletcher & Freeling, 1988, p. 17)

Hill (1978) surveyed people in nursing, technical/professional, supervision, and administrative professions in hospitals. The following communication skills were identified by the sample as being important for job effectiveness: listening skills, getting feedback and interpersonal communication.

Baird, Bradley, and Nightingale (1978) studied subordinates in eleven units in hospitals. The subordinates were asked to identify their preferences for the communication style used by managers. Their preferences included listening carefully, being attentive to others when talking and being physically/vocally active when communicating.

The review shows that effective managers and professionals in all walks of life, whether they be business executives, health personnel, public administrators or organisational consultants, all need communication skills. The shift of management style also means that not only top managers need to be competent speakers and listeners, but every employee in operating teams, administrative teams and technical teams needs communication skills. From the review, the skills that have been identified to be important in the work place are oral communication: public speaking and small group techniques and discussion, listening, interpersonal communication, persuasion, interviewing, small group problem solving, routine information exchange, instructing and parliamentary leadership

#### **4. 6. 2 Key Communication Skills for Entry-level Employees**

Eman, Enholm, Fritz, and Heck (1978) carried out a content analysis of classified advertisements in the Sunday edition of newspapers from different regions of the United States, based on 160 newspapers and 6300 advertisements. Two of the six communication skills most frequently mentioned in the advertisements were verbal communication and interviewing. Murphy and Jenks (1982) also reported that good verbal communication skills were often cited by employers as important qualities that many jobs applicants lack. Howe (1983) reported as a significant finding that in interviews, employers attached importance to candidates' answers to open questions which invited them to express and develop ideas in a sustained way, and to their ability to engage in a discussion and exchange views.

Jones (1988) surveyed 25 employers in Leicestershire, varying from national corporations to those that employed only a dozen or so people, and it was found that



'performance in an interview' was the most important factor when selecting young people for jobs.

Hafer and Hoth (1983) studied students entering the job market to see how accurately they perceived the priority employers placed on certain hiring characteristics. They sampled 250 students and 55 business firms from manufacturing to public service. The findings revealed that both students and employers agreed on oral communication and motivational skills as the two most important characteristics.

Generally, a new employee will face a number of problems. Woodcock reported (1979) that oral communication was found to be one of the problems faced by managerial trainees, their secretaries, and immediate supervisors. Hunt and Cusella (1983) found that a problem faced by training managers was related to listening, and this was attributed to lack of feedback about listening skills, lack of knowledge and lack of openness in the organisations.

To overcome such problems, many organisations provide in-service training. The type of training provided reflects the importance attached to it by the employer. The type of training also establishes the key communication skills for entry-level employees.

In Meister and Reinsch's (1979) study, it was found that, when training was offered, it very frequently (92% - 81 respondents) included communication skills covering listening, speaking and conference techniques. In a finding by Weinberg and Thon (1979), it was stated that oral communication training such as group discussion, marketing, persuasion and public speaking provided by consulting firms for new employees, is one of the ways to solve or reduce the problems of oral communication. This too reflects the importance which business organisations attach to good communication skills.

Howe (1983) confirmed the central part that talk plays in learning the job. At Marks and Spencer, he reported that the on-the-job training is all oral. Hanna (1978) in trying to determine speech communication training needs in the business community identified five important skills: communication skills involved in motivating people, delegating authority, listening, direction giving and group problem solving.

Curtis, Winsor and Stephens (1989) found that the skills most valued in the contemporary job-entry market are communication skills such as oral communication (interpersonal and public) and listening.

Lohr's (1974) study of recent Iowa State University graduates in various careers revealed that important communication activities in descending order, are giving information to one person, making decisions with one person, giving information to a group, persuading one person, listening to requests or difficulties, making decisions with a group, and persuading a group.

#### **4. 6. 3 Summary on Speaking and Listening Skills in the Work Place**

Boettinger (1978) said:

Just as artists need to master their crafts, business managers need to perfect their skills in dealing with people and in expressing themselves verbally; just as artists need vision and passion to realise them, managers need imagination and audacity to redesign their organisations; and just as great masters communicate their visions, great leaders inspire those who work for them. (p. 36)

It is not only business managers who need to perfect their skills in dealing with people; everyone in the work place has the same need. Everyone needs to express

themselves verbally and to communicate their thoughts. Everyone needs to listen, whether they are the employer or the employee, in order to achieve collective objectives. The review shows that speaking and listening are important in the work place (Crocker, 1979; Lockwood and Boatman, 1975; Murray, 1976; Taylor, 1992; Warren, 1983; Wille, 1992) but there are problems due to lack of ability to communicate on the part of new employees (Byrne, 1976; Maguire, et al., 1986; Murphy and Jenks, 1982). To overcome such problems, training is provided in the work place. Apart from that, employers scrutinise candidates for their communication skills during job interviews. Candidates' success very much depends on their oral skill performance. Employers are also suggesting that educators take note of this problem and train students in this field, so that they can cope with the demands of the work place.

Employers' views must be taken into consideration. Wainwright (1992), who has been an Associate consultant with the British Institute of Management since 1974 and also the Chairman of P.R.E. (Sunderland) Ltd., an industrial and leisure complex, commented that we spend at least ten years of our early lives at school and yet most of us are not very good at using the essential skills we need to make our way in life, due to lack of direct tuition. Four out of the twelve essential skills he mentioned are: how to listen; how to speak effectively in public (not on grand occasions, but for family affairs like weddings, for business presentations to clients and for communications with employees); how to use body language; and how to take part in meetings and to run them ourselves.

On listening, Wainwright (1992) says:

No communication skill has been more neglected than listening. We receive almost no training in listening in our schools and colleges. Such little training as does occur takes place incidentally during training in oral expression. Yet our ability in aural comprehension probably provides us with the basis of most of our knowledge and awareness of the people and the world around us. (p. 77)

Walther (1993), a professional speaker and trainer and an international authority in the field of communication, has said that the words we use have tremendous power. He encourages speakers to use the right words and phrases so as to “achieve greater *professional success*, more harmonious relationships with friends and colleagues, a happier family life, better emotional and physical health ...” (p. 3, italics added).

#### 4.7 ORACY PROJECTS

The term ‘oracy’ was coined by Wilkinson in 1965 by analogy with ‘literacy’. Prior to that, there was no single word that could describe the ability to speak and to listen as one entity. T. H. Pear (1930), came up with a term, ‘euphasia’, to describe ‘deliberate adequate verbal expression’ but this term does not indicate the interdependence between speaking and listening which is now found in the term ‘oracy’. Thus, the oracy project is, in fact, the ‘speaking and listening’ project.

In this section, the National Oracy Project will be outlined briefly and also three of its members at the Local Education Authorities level: the Wiltshire Oracy Project, the Staffordshire Oracy Project and the Gateshead Oracy project, will be introduced to show the different activities that were carried out by the teachers.

#### **4. 7. 1 The National Oracy Project**

In 1986, the Department of Education and Science offered over £3,000,000 of Education Support Grant for establishment of school-based projects on speaking and listening in seven local education authorities. From this initiative, the National Oracy Project which was proposed by Keith Kirby to the Schools' Curriculum Development Committee (DES, 1986), was launched in September 1987. The Project was supported by Her Majesty's English Inspectorate led by Graham Frater, and its direction by John Johnson and his team, resulted in the active involvement of over half the local education authorities in the UK. From September 1988 the Project was administered by the National Curriculum Council.

The aims of the National Oracy Project were:

- to enhance the role of speech in the learning process 5-16 by encouraging active learning;
- to develop the teaching of oral communication skills;
- to develop methods of assessment of and through speech, including assessment for public examinations at 16+;
- to improve pupils' performance across the curriculum;
- to enhance teachers' skills and practice;
- to promote recognition of the value of oral work in schools and increase its use as a means of improving learning

(Norman, 1992, p. xii)

During the development phase from 1987 to 1991, thirty five local education authorities in England and Wales were involved in the project. Under each local education authority, certain number of schools were selected with one or two teachers to co-ordinate activities. The project covered nursery, infant, junior, middle, secondary, tertiary and special schools.

At the beginning of the project, most of the teacher members were English teachers but later, there was involvement from other subject teachers. The teachers were asked to identify an aspect of oracy of interest to them and to investigate and develop this within their own classroom. In the project, teachers identified areas that needed immediate attention, such as the role of the teacher, resources, classroom organisation, collaborative talk in the classroom and monitoring and evaluating talk.

To co-ordinate local development, an advisory teacher was appointed to support classroom-based work of the teachers. Teachers met regularly in their local groups to share and reflect on their investigations.

The project had the main team at national level to support the local developments and also to take charge of publications and national conferences. It collaborated with the Open University and the National Council for Educational Technology on joint publications. The project published the journal Talk, a newsletter Oracy Issues, occasional papers and books and also produced audio and video materials.

During 1991-93, the work of the project was widely disseminated and further developed through links with local education authorities not previously involved. At this stage, nearly all local education authorities in England were involved. The work was co-ordinated by two National Curriculum Council Professional Officers who also continued the schedule of publications. The idea of dissemination was to decentralise the activities of the project after it had been established and to allow more centres to be involved

actively with the concept of oracy development. After the dissemination period, the aims of the National Oracy Project were then to be carried out at local education authorities all over England. At local education authorities, various activities were undertaken to promote oracy. In the following section, three examples of local education authorities' oracy projects are examined, to highlight the diversity of activities undertaken by the teachers involved in the projects.

### **The Wiltshire Oracy Project**

The Wiltshire Oracy Project was a three-year project, funded jointly by the Department of Education and Science and the Wiltshire Local Education Authority. It began in September 1983 and was targeted specifically at students with low attainment in the fourth and fifth years (Year 10 and 11) of the secondary school. According to Alan Howe, as the Project Director, "the Project was designed to promote and encourage an emphasis on oracy, primarily for this target group, but also in a wider sense, for all ages and abilities in schools" (as cited by King, 1985, p. 8).

As regards the assessment of talk, the Wiltshire Oracy Project supported the use of "spoken course work". In a pamphlet of guidelines on 'Spoken Coursework and its Assessment', Howe and Gardiner made the point that "success and confidence in spoken coursework depends on plenty of opportunities for pupils to use talk as a means of both learning and communicating ideas throughout their education." (cited by King, 1985, p. 8).

As mentioned earlier, in oracy projects, teachers need to identify areas that require immediate attention. One of the areas identified by the Wiltshire Oracy Project was 'monitoring and evaluating talk'. The Project then identified three possible types of spoken coursework: talking on one's own to a tape recorder, solo talk to a live audience

and group discussions. The Wiltshire Oracy Project focused on the second type of spoken coursework; solo talk to a live audience, based on oral 'interview'. The term 'interview', here, did not indicate that the roles and relationship of the participants were simply those of the interviewer and interviewee. The Wiltshire Oracy project offered some advice on the role of the interviewer in spoken coursework, and stressed the importance of his or her contribution to the success of the students. Even though the Wiltshire Oracy Project developed the coursework in the context of solo talk to live audience, they made it clear that assessing pupils in pairs or groups would produce a much better result because the talk produced in those contexts was more likely to have the characteristics of the spoken language than that in a one-to-one interview.

### **The Staffordshire Oracy Project**

Staffordshire Local Education Authority was a member of the National Oracy Project from 1988. The Staffordshire Oracy Project members identified the 'role of the teacher' as one of the areas that needed immediate attention. The members used action research to explore the teacher's role in creating a possible range of audiences and the ways in which these might be enhanced in geography lessons. According to Halsey (1972) action research is "small-scale intervention in the functioning of the real world ...and the close examination of the effects of such intervention" (p.165). Another feature of action research is that it is situational, normally diagnosing a problem in a specific context and trying to solve the problem in that particular context. In this case, the members intended to tackle the issue of the audience in the classroom. In action research, normally there is collaboration between participants for example in educational settings, teachers with researcher(s) or adviser(s), taking part directly or indirectly in implementing the research. In the Staffordshire Oracy Project, teachers of English and Geography



worked co-operatively along with students, mainly in the 7-14 age range, with the help of an advisory teacher whose duty, as mentioned earlier, was to co-ordinate local development of oracy projects. The teachers themselves were the evaluators. They carried out their own modifications to teaching processes in order to achieve their objectives. Research was carried out in three primary schools, one junior school, one middle school and three high schools.

The members of the Staffordshire Oracy Project believed that if they adopted different roles and teaching approaches, they had the capacity to offer students a wide and varied range of audiences for their work. In doing so, the members hoped to enable students to have more control and responsibility for their own language learning and a greater sense of ownership over the learning process. According to Carter (1991), then the Staffordshire County Inspector for Geography, the teachers in this project were exploring the following issues: What constitutes a wide and varied range of audiences? How could a wide and varied range of audiences be made available to pupils in the classroom? What implications does this wide and varied range of audience have for the teaching and learning process, and for the role of the teachers? What implications does this wide and varied range of audience have for the teaching of subject content?

Based on their mass of transcript and video evidence and adopting the audience model identified by Britton et al. (1975), the Staffordshire members offered teachers another alternative to create a wide and varied range of audience for students in the form of an Audience Model for Classroom Practice (Figure 4-2).

The Figure shows that the child is seen at the centre of the model relating to the teacher in a variety of ways. The normal way in which he/she relates to a teacher is with 'teacher as examiner'. This is the traditional role, and probably the one with which teachers are most familiar. Another way to relate to a teacher is with a 'teacher as trusted

adult', depending upon the student's perception of the teacher concerned. The student may seek advice or knowledge if the teacher is seen as approachable. Carter said this is possible if there exist mutual respect, warmth and interest in the child as a person.

**Figure 4-2 Talk for Learning: An Audience Model for Classroom Practice (Carter, 1991)**

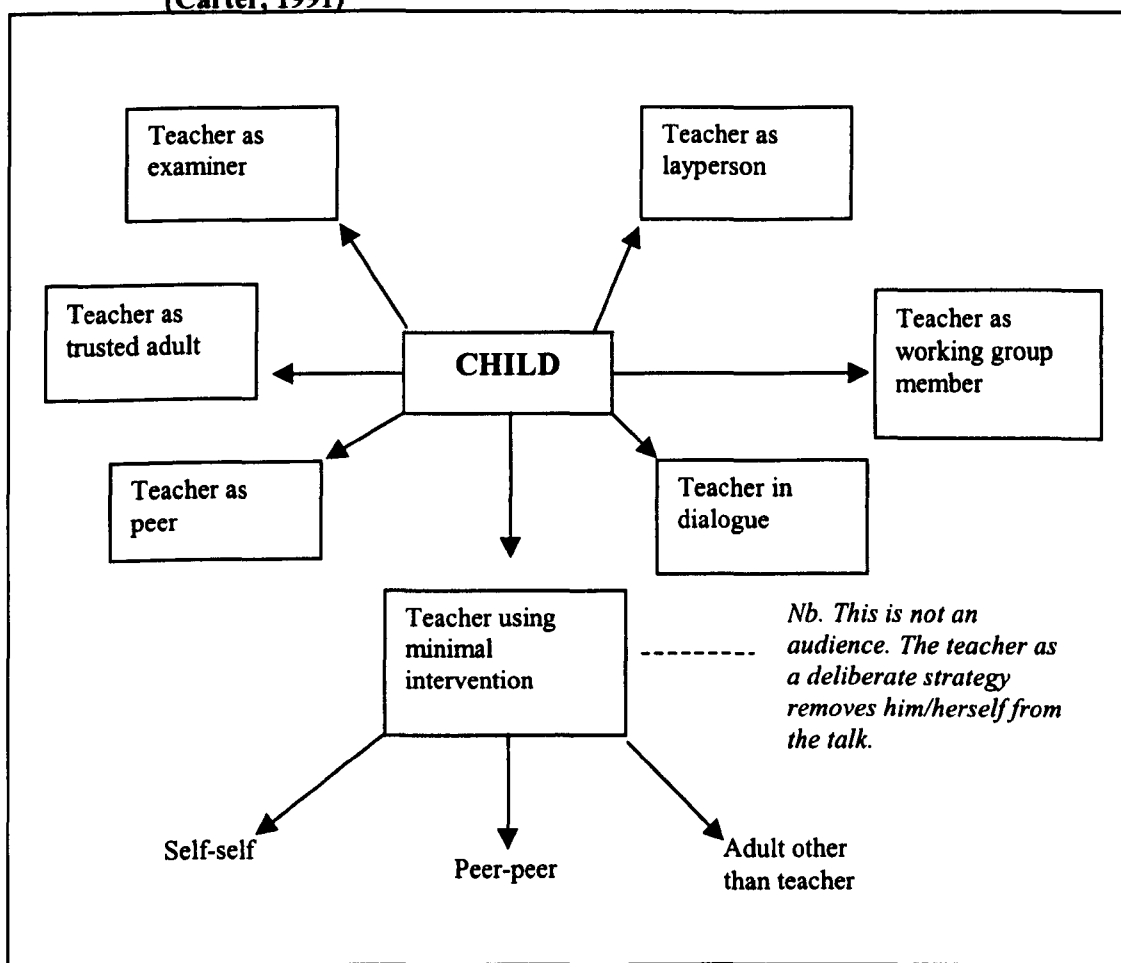


Figure 4-2 also shows the 'teacher as lay person'. In this context, the student is given the opportunity to become an authentic expert or, if the situation does not permit, then the teacher can refrain from overtly controlling the activity, hiding his or her own expert knowledge of the subject.

In the context of 'teacher in dialogue', the teacher plays a role in the learning process, but not in a dominant way. The teacher needs to negotiate and allow the students

a certain amount of autonomy within defined boundaries. In order to achieve this audience, Carter stressed that “the teacher must be prepared to adopt a variety of roles as provider, facilitator, negotiator and counsellor” (p. 9).

Another form of audience is ‘teacher as peer’ or ‘teacher as working group member’. The teacher as a member of the group participates in discussion on an equal basis with the students. Overall authority is absent from this context. Each member’s view, whether that of the teacher or the student, may be challenged, evaluated, accepted or rejected.

Another alternative to create audience is ‘teacher using minimal intervention’. One way is in the form of an ‘adult other than teacher’. Here, the teacher relinquishes even more authority by being an audience or withdraws entirely when another adult is invited to take charge. The student must be aware that the real focus is the visitor. Again, another situation where the teacher gives up authority is the ‘self to self’, where the student has full control of learning. ‘Peer to peer’ also presents the same situation, in that a group of students is given responsibility for work and once the task is set up, the teacher should withdraw.

Carter explains that some audiences are used more than others. The audiences should not be seen as separate, occurring only for a specific teaching time. In fact, the teacher cannot predetermine a strategy to provide a particular audience, since the audience depends entirely upon how the students relate to the teacher. The audiences overlap and change, depending on the direction of the discussion. What the teacher can do is to try to provide as wide a range of audiences as possible, because if there is a variety of audiences, there are opportunities for a variety of talk by students. Carter explains that when the teacher moves away from being the holder of knowledge, then a whole range of interactional, imaginative, heuristic language opens up for students.

## **The Gateshead Oracy Project**

Gateshead is part of the Tyne and Wear consortium which includes South Tyneside, Newcastle and Sunderland. Gateshead has been involved in the National Oracy Project since September 1988. The Gateshead Oracy Project approach was cross-phased, with two groups comprising of two secondary schools, twelve primary schools and one special school. The main aim of this project was to increase awareness of the value of spoken language in its own right and the contribution it makes to the learning process.

Diverse activities were employed in the Project. Teachers and students were involved in using drama and oral storytelling to provide real and meaningful contexts within which spoken language could be used. Using the theme of Communication as the basis for a cross-curricular project Oracy in Mathematics - using talk to investigate mathematical concepts, the Project also explored various combinations of groupings for talk: developing interview techniques for secondary school students from Vocational Guidance groups, using a video camera; Special Needs - exploring a variety of strategies to stimulate and enrich special needs children's capacity for language. One school visited Beamish Museum, as part of their project on Life in the Past and had 'hands-on' experience of baking scones on the kitchen range, working in the smithy, dentist's surgery and coal-mine, resulting in a lot of purposeful and enthusiastic talk. Their oral stories were then transcribed onto a word-processor (Oracy Issues, 1990).

The Gateshead Oracy project, too, worked on the establishment of assessment criteria and methods of record keeping. Apart from disseminating ideas throughout the whole school, this project also formed links with the Durham Oracy Project in order to widen their scope of comparison.

The teachers involved in the projects became more aware of the importance of creating a wide variety of contexts for talk in a classroom environment, to enable students

to work with confidence in developing spoken language, as a means of learning and communicating.

#### **4. 7. 2 Summary of the Oracy Projects**

The National Oracy Project was not established to carry out traditional research. According to Johnson, Hutton & Yard (1992) the Project had no standard formats for data-collection, no 'control groups' and no statistical analyses. What the Project had was committed teachers. Thousands of teachers, in exploratory and innovative ways, carried out personal and school-based studies and developments. Together, the teachers and their local co-ordinators shared their findings and reflected on them to bring about changes in their pedagogical practice. In this way, the oracy projects contributed greatly to the teaching and learning of speaking and listening skills, because the management was not in the normal 'top-down' direction; instead, the teachers were working with the principal purpose of supporting changes in pedagogical practice which would benefit students' oral work and learning.

Johnson (Baddeley, 1992) relates his meeting with Richard Landy, co-ordinator of the National Writing Project in Mid-Glamorgan, who informed Johnson that in the early days of the National Oracy Project, teachers entered such projects with many questions in mind, to which they hoped to find answers. His experience had been that rather than finding answers to these questions, teachers had found out what the 'real' questions were. This experience was reported by Baddeley, then the Project Officer for the National Oracy Project. According to him, after co-ordinators had begun to gather a rich harvest of information about talk, audio and video records of talk, ideas about the talk of the teacher, about appropriate groupings, of extended audiences, all this served to raise fresh issues and led to the next battery of questions: "What is this information telling us about the

relationship between talking and learning? How does talking develop? What are the differences between talk at 4 and at 14? How do we begin to make judgements about talk? What can we say about a child's progress in using talk to learn? And every question is echoed by the same question about the quality of listening" (Baddeley, 1990, p.1).

The oracy projects widened and deepened the teachers' awareness; for an example, they began to recognise the value of the narrative mode of language. "They found ways of using narrative to enhance their pupils' learning. They also saw in storytelling a powerful context for the development of language (both spoken and written) itself" (Howe & Johnson, 1992, p. vii). The oracy project was a valuable counterbalance to the 'top-down' model of curriculum planning represented by the National Curriculum (Latham, 1992) and provided a platform for teachers to 'practise what they preach' (Kemeny & Norman, 1992). The National Oracy Project was established with the hope that after the dissemination period, the teachers would keep the ball rolling.

## **4.8 SPEAKING AND LISTENING SKILLS IN THE BRITISH GOVERNMENT**

### **EDUCATIONAL REPORTS**

The main purpose of reviewing the major educational reports is to trace the formal development of speaking and listening in the school curriculum. The importance attached to speaking and listening in different years of educational change can also be determined from these documents. The reports play a significant role in determining the status of speaking and listening in the classroom.

The reports also should be seen in the light of the development of communication and language theories (Chapter 2 and 3) because these developments had a profound influence on education and the practice in the classroom (Hilgard & Bower, 1966;

Maclure, 1988; Walker, 1996). The thinking of Pavlov (1927), Skinner (1938) and Chomsky (1959) on language acquisition influenced the thinking behind the government reports in the early stages. In the later reports, the works of Piaget (1926), Vigotsky (1962), Bruner (1966), Bakhtin (1981), Barnes (1976), Britton (197) were significant influences, as well as the oracy projects that were active in the 80s.

Note should be taken that the reports, especially the early reports, had no direct influence on the teaching and the learning in the classroom; this was left entirely to the school. However, the reports do reflect the governments' beliefs, attitudes and support at that time.

#### **4. 8. 1 The Education of the Adolescent (1926)**

The Education of the Adolescent, also known as The Hadow Report –The Secondary School (DES, 1926), is one of the earliest of the principal education reports. The report encouraged the idea of English across the curriculum and proposed that students be given training to express their ideas in accurate and appropriate language, not only in English but also in other subjects, in oral and written work. According to the report, there was a need to supervise carefully the use of English in all subjects.

In the area of speaking and listening, the main aim was “to secure clear and correct speech” (p. 190). The training proposed for the students included “distinct articulation and the proper use of the organs of speech” (p. 190) and “elements of phonetics” (p. 191). Students at the age of 11 plus, at a Modern school or a Senior Class, were to follow speech training which consisted of: The study of phrasing; enunciation; reading aloud and recitation; and systematic development of the power of extemporaneous speech.

The important role of the teacher as a role model was stressed. It was said that the teacher should provide frequent occasions for natural conversation between himself and individual students.

The committee suggested that one of the most effective means of practising oral speech is the encouragement of debates for older children, followed by student lectures and class discussions. The general aim should be to train pupils to express themselves on familiar subjects clearly, fluently and concisely.

It is very interesting to note that as early as 1926 it was realised that 'undue emphasis has hitherto, in many instances, been laid on written exercises' (p. 191) because the examination system demands proficiency in writing answers. To the committee, however, effective speaking was nearly as important as effective writing.

There is no doubt that the proposed content teaching in relation to speaking and listening proposed were more to do with speaking correctly than with communicating effectively. During this period, the work of Pavlov (1927) and Piaget (1926) were not known to the Western thinking. What was dominant (especially in the classroom) at this time was the Theory of Grammar and the Theory of Literature discussed earlier (Wilkinson, 1965). Nevertheless, the importance of speaking and listening was recognised in the school curriculum and associated with working life, as it was mentioned in the report that " education fails in part of its aim, if it does not prepare children for a life of active labour and social co-operation...' (p. 41).

#### **4. 8. 2 The Primary School (1931)**

The Primary School, also known as the Hadow Report – The Primary School (DES, 1931), stated that the aim of teaching English teaching was to form correct habits of speaking and writing, rather than the abstract and analytic study of the language. In



this respect, the idea about the teaching of speaking and listening was no different from that expressed in The Education of the Adolescent (1926)

The report, however, also stressed the importance of oral expression more than exercises in written English and argued that the instruction of reading and writing “must largely miss its purpose, if it is not made subsidiary to well-planned and systematic training in the direct use of oral expression and communication” (p. 95).

#### **4. 8. 3 Secondary Education (1939)**

Secondary Education or the Spens Report (Board of Education, Consultative Committee, 1939), highlighted the fact that many students passing through the Grammar school and even the university, were unable to express themselves in English. So, to counter the problem, it was suggested that “the first aim of all English teaching should be to enable a child to express clearly, in speech or writing, his own thoughts, and to understand the clearly expressed thoughts of others”. (p. 219)

In this report, the purpose of teaching speaking and listening was seen as being to enable students to express their thoughts clearly. At this time, the centrality of speaking and listening to all aspects of social and intellectual growth was not highlighted.

#### **4. 8. 4 Half Our Future (1963)**

It was the Newsom Report, Half Our Future (Central Advisory Council for Education [CACfE], 1963), which started to give recognition to the development of powers in the spoken language in the educational system, and to relate it positively to the human condition:

There is no gift like the gift of speech; and the level at which people have learned to use it determines the level of their companionship and the level at which their life is lived (paragraph. 330)

Newsom highlighted the problems of employers who were faced not only with employee's poor attainment but also with their inadequacy in speech and inability to deal with other people. This is a very serious matter and the point made by the report was that communication affects all aspects of social and intellectual growth;

“There is a gulf between those who have, and the many who have not, sufficient command of words to be able to listen and discuss rationally; to express ideas and feelings clearly; and even to have any ideas at all. We simply do not know how many people are frustrated in their lives by inability ever to express themselves adequately; or how many never develop intellectually because they lack the words with which to think and reason. This is a matter as important to economic life as it is to personal living; industrial relations as well as marriages come to grief on failures in communication”. (p. 15)

The Newsom Report viewed speaking and listening as the principal means of human communication and also intellectual growth, through thinking and reasoning. More than a decade later, the Bullock Report renewed the emphasis of Newsom by stressing that all schools must have, as a priority objective, “a commitment to the speech needs of their pupils and a serious study of the role of oral language in learning”. This report will be discussed below.

#### 4. 8. 5 A Language For Life (1975)

In 1975, Sir Alan Bullock reported that many allegations about lower standards at that time “come from employers, who maintain that young people joining them from school cannot write grammatically, are poor spellers, and generally express themselves badly” (DES, 1975, p. 3). He quoted some observations made fifty four years earlier in the Newbolt Report (DES, 1921) to show that the problem was not a new one:

- i. Messers. Vickers Ltd. reported about “great difficulty in obtaining junior clerks who can speak and write English clearly and correctly, especially those aged from 15 to 16 years”.
- ii. Messrs. Lever Bros. Ltd. Reported that “it is a great surprise and disappointment to us to find that our young employees are so hopelessly deficient in their command of English”.
- iii Boots Pure Drug Co. remarked that “ teaching of English in the present day schools produces a very limited command of the English language ... our candidates do not appreciate the value of shades of meaning, and while able to do imaginative composition, show weakness in work which requires accurate description, or careful arrangement of detail”.

(DES, 1975, p. 3)

Based on his findings, Bullock recommended the teaching of speech in schools. A Language for Life or The Bullock Report (DES, 1975) provides a more comprehensive report on speaking and listening compared to previous reports. The Bullock Report not only acknowledged the importance of speaking and listening in the school curriculum but also recommended the teaching of speaking and listening in schools in England and Wales. Its recommendations covered the learning process, the teacher’s contribution, examinations and future research.

The Report recognised that exploratory talk and discussion by students are crucial in the process of learning. This was seen as an opportunity to investigate and illuminate a subject. To ensure the success of oral work, the report emphasised small group situations, although students could also work in big groups. The purpose, it said, was to create opportunities for pupils to participate and at the same time to overcome any problem of anxiety.

Group discussion as a vehicle for learning is crucial for students in the secondary school. According to Corson (1988), at this stage, the student should be encouraged to discover their own meaning. Barnes (1976) explained that in group discussion, exploratory talk is usually marked by “frequent hesitations, rephrasings, false starts and changes of directions” (p. 28). Talk is used here for controlling thinking or “inner speech” (Vygotsky, 1962). Barnes argued the importance of learners taking an active part in learning and to bringing what they learn into interaction with that view of the world on which their actions are based.

Cognitive psychologists such as Piaget (1960) and Bruner (1966) viewed knowledge as series of systems for interpreting the world. Based on this paradigm, learning is a matter of changing the system by which interpretation is carried out. Therefore, by exploratory talk, students can fit new knowledge into their interpretative categories, a process that Piaget termed ‘assimilation’. The students then can discover their own meaning by modifying their knowledge to explain new events adequately, which Piaget termed ‘accommodation’.

‘The more a learner controls his own language strategies, and the more he is enabled to think aloud, the more he can take responsibility for formulating explanatory hypotheses and evaluating them’ (Barnes, 1976, p. 29). This is the idea behind the proposal for discussions and exploratory talk in the Bullock Report.

The Report also emphasised the need for students to develop their awareness and flexibility, to build up their linguistic repertoire for language and to be able to speak and listen appropriately according to context. In the process of learning speaking and listening, students were also required to use standard English and in order to avoid misunderstanding the Report stressed that students should be allowed to use their accent.

The influence of the teacher's speech on the students was mentioned in the report. In the line of teaching, the main role of the teacher is to carry out "planned intervention" (p. 145), whilst "conscious policy", "deliberate strategies" (p. 151) and "structuring opportunity" (p. 526) were also highlighted. The message was clear; teachers should not base their teaching on intuition but they must plan and evaluate, to confirm that learning is taking place. According to the Report, the process of teaching and learning must be supported by audio-visual resources.

The Report felt that there was a need for teachers to study as part of their professional development because they need "an explicit understanding of the process at work in classroom discourse; the ability to appraise their pupils' spoken language and to plan the means of extending it" (pp. 526-527).

In the area of examinations, the Report expressed the belief that "External examinations in oral language are of value where they minimise artificiality and help the process of developing ability in a wide variety of uses" (p. 526).

The Report said that future research was needed in the area of children's spoken language development, promoting spoken language and in the area of assessment.

It is of interest, to note, however, that one of Bullock's own committee members did not agree that the teaching of speaking and listening would benefit students much. He wrote a note of dissent:

It is doubtful if children's talk in school does much to improve their knowledge, for free discussion as a learning procedure at any age is notoriously unproductive....I believe the committee is in error in putting undue emphasis upon talking as a means of learning language. It has its place, but in my view, one of the causes of *the decline in English standards today is the recent drift in schools away from the written to the spoken word*. As one author has said: 'The cynic may well see the modern trend to use the spoken language in teaching English, rather than reading and writing, as an implied failure of our educational system to teach reading adequately'. I fully agree with this conclusion.

(DES, 1975, pp. 558- 559, italics added)

It is true that the Bullock Report has been an inspiration to the teaching of speaking and listening in England and, according to Lieb-Brilhart (1980), it also has been the inspiration to the changes in approaches to oral instruction in America and Australia. In England, unfortunately, its recommendations had no financial backing, because it was published at a time when Britain was facing what was possibly the most serious financial crisis since World War II. Therefore, the inspiration was left only to those who were totally committed and these, sadly, were very few in number.

#### **4. 8. 6 The Cockcroft Report (1982)**

The focus of this report was on the teaching of mathematics. In this report, however, attention was drawn to the importance of learning mathematics through talk. (Committee of Inquiry into the Teaching of Mathematics in schools, 1982).

In 1979, A School Council Working Paper had shown in three case studies: "Mathematics: Long division, Long division and the interpretation of graphs, and

Learning to ask the right questions” (pp. 109-115) how small group discussion work could be incorporated as an approach in the Maths lesson. The principle behind learning mathematics through talk is ‘Language Across the Curriculum’ as proposed by the previous report, A Language for Life or The Bullock Report (DES, 1975). Corson (1988) in explaining the policy, quoted the Ontario Ministry of Education in Canada:

*Language Across the Curriculum*

Language plays a central role in learning. No matter what the subject area, students assimilate new concepts largely through language, that is, when they listen to and talk, read, and write about what they are learning and relate this to what they already know. Through speaking and writing, language is linked to the thinking process and is a manifestation of the thinking that is taking place. Thus, by explaining and expressing personal interpretations of new learnings in the various subject fields, students clarify and increase both their knowledge of the concepts in those fields and their understanding of the ways in which language is used in each. (pp. 12-13)

The three principles of ‘language across the curriculum’ underlying this report are that language develops through its purposeful use; that learning often occurs through talking and writing; and that language contributes to cognitive growth (Fillion, 1983).

#### **4. 8. 7 White Paper, Better Schools (1985)**

Two deficiencies in the Education Service related to speaking and listening skills were identified in the White Paper, Better Schools (DES, 1985b).

One of the deficiencies was said to occur in primary schools:

“In about half of all classes much work in classrooms is so closely directed by the teacher that there is little opportunity either for oral discussion or for posing and solving practical problems. Pupils are given insufficient responsibility for pursuing their own enquiries and deciding how to take their work” (p. 6).

Similarly, in the secondary school it was found that:

In virtually all schools and departments there is often excessive direction by the teacher of pupils’ work, and there are too many lessons where class work and homework are unimaginatively set. Pupils need more opportunities to learn for themselves, to express their own views and to develop their ideas through discussion; teachers do too much of the work for them (p. 7).

According to Better Schools, one of the principal functions of the school is to prepare students to become confident speakers and listeners:

“One aim of education is the development of good powers of oral ... communication. In the day-by-day formal and informal work of the school opportunities should be deliberately provided for the use of the spoken word in a variety of ways so that pupils may become confident listeners and talkers” (p. 42).

It is important to note that although Better Schools talked largely in subject terms, it stated that “such a description implies no particular view of timetabling or teaching



approach. Nor does it deny that learning involves the mastery of processes as well as the acquisition of knowledge, skills and understanding". So it was left to the school and the teachers to decide what is important for their students and what teaching approaches should be used, and this meant that the prevailing neglect of speaking and listening continued. The two deficiencies in the Education Service related to speaking and listening skills which were identified by Better Schools were not rectified immediately.

#### **4. 8. 8 The Kingman Report (1988), Report of the Committee of Inquiry into the Teaching of English**

The aim of the Kingman Report, Report of the Committee of Inquiry into the Teaching of English (Kingman, 1988) was to recommend a model of the English language as a basis for teacher training and professional discussion, and to consider how far and in what ways that model should be made explicit to pupils at various stages of education.

The committee stated their starting point as follows: "It must be a primary objective of the educational system to enable and encourage every child to use the English language to the fullest effect in speaking, writing, listening and reading" (p. 4). This implies that all the four language arts have the same status in the educational system and the committee acknowledged that such mastery is possible without knowing about the structure of the language but "there is no positive advantage in such ignorance" (p. 4). So in addition to proficiency, another main criterion for the teaching of English, is the teaching of the language per se, not only as a tool to achieve other objectives.

Since language is governed by a series of conventions related to the varying audiences, contexts and purposes of its use, the committee argued that "successful communication depends upon a recognition and accurate use of the rules and conventions. Command of these rules and conventions is more likely to increase the freedom of the

individual than diminish it.” (p. 3). In other words, learning about the language will help students to speak and to listen more effectively.

The committee explained in great detail how speakers and writers adapt their language to the context in which the language is being used. The committee appreciated the “understanding of the complex ways in which context affects our use of language” (p. 23).

From the Report it can be deduced that the main proposal was the teaching of knowledge about language in order to enable students to use the four language arts effectively. Speaking and listening were regarded as having equal status to reading and writing. The emphasis on communication was based on the knowledge about language. However, the Kingman Report clearly stated that no one model could encompass all aspects of English language.

#### **4. 8. 9 Cox Report (1989), English for Ages 5 to 16**

The Kingman Report was published in March 1988 and on 29 April 1988, the National Curriculum English Working Group was set up by the Secretary of State for Education and Science. The Cox Committee’s task was to advise on attainment targets, programmes of study, and assessment for English in the National Curriculum. The working group’s task, however, did not include assessment arrangements.

The Kingman Committee’s remit was confined to knowledge about language whilst the Cox Committee’s remit was much wider, covering all elements of the English curriculum. The Kingman Committee had to pay considerable attention to what both teachers and students need to know, but the Cox committee focused more on students.

The Cox committee felt strongly about the importance of speaking and listening:

Both within and outside education, this interest in - and commitment to - talk as a means of learning has, during the 1980s, come from an increasingly wide spectrum of society. Our inclusion of speaking and listening as a separate profile component in our recommendations is a reflection of our conviction that these skills are of central importance to children's development

(DES, 1989, p. 34)

The attainment target set for speaking and listening was "the development of pupils' understanding of the spoken word and the capacity to express themselves effectively, in a variety of speaking and listening activities, matching style and response to audience and purpose" (para 15.24). There were 10 levels of attainment and from level 7, pupils should be using Standard English, wherever appropriate, to meet the statements of attainment.

The Cox Report acknowledged that "In addition to its function as a crucial teaching and learning *method*, talk is also now widely recognised as promoting and embodying a range of skills and competence - both transactional and social - that are central to children's overall language development (para 15.4) and "the broad purposes- individual and social, educational and cultural, in school and in adult life- that underlie the curriculum and attainment targets that we recommend. Recent surveys have drawn attention to the importance of talking and listening both in obtaining employment and in performing well in it" (para 15.5).

Although the Cox Report supported the teaching of speaking and listening in addition to the teaching of reading and writing, its recommendations did not materialise because the Government believed that the first suggestions of the Cox Report were not sufficiently prescriptive, and asked for a renegotiated version of its orders. The revised

version was a clearer statement of the content favoured by the Government, with firmer emphasis on skills. (See Chapter 5 for further information)

#### **4. 8. 10 The Dearing Report (1994)**

In April 1993, the Secretary of State for Education, John Patten, commissioned Sir Ron Dearing to conduct a review of the National Curriculum and its assessment. His duty was to tackle the four key issues:

- i. the scope for slimming down the curriculum;
- ii. how the central administration of the National Curriculum and testing arrangements could be improved;
- iii. how the testing arrangements might be simplified; and
- iv. the future of the ten-level scale for recognising children's attainment.

The result of Sir Ron's review was the version of English Orders published in 1995. It was declared that these orders would be the basis for a five-year period of no further change in the curriculum. The place of speaking and listening was secure, for at least five years.

#### **4. 8. 11 Summary of the Government Reports**

From the government reports, it is clear that the importance of speaking and listening has long been recognised in the teaching of English and other subjects. The recognition of their usefulness is not limited to the classroom situation but goes beyond the students' present situation to their future. The government reports also reflect the theoretical development of speaking and listening of that particular period.

Most of the early reports recognised that there were problems in these areas, but it is only in 1975, with the Bullock Report, that serious consideration was given to teaching speaking and listening, and even then, it was still not sufficient to receive financial backing. The impact of most of the reports was minimal, probably due to feelings that have been expressed in the words of Keiner (1992), “the prospect of a class full of children talking to each other has traditionally been a threatening one for many teachers, signalling loss of control and even failure” (p. 248).

The issue of speaking and listening was taken up seriously by Kingman (1988) but from a different perspective, i.e. approaching from ‘knowledge about language’ which is an important contributor to communication competency. Later, the Cox committee continued work into the teaching of speaking and listening, this time more from the students’ perspective and later it was revised under The Dearing Review. The result was the National Curriculum English Order (see Chapter 5), in which officially, speaking and listening receive equal status with reading and writing.

#### **4.9 SUMMARY OF OVERVIEW OF PREVIOUS LITERATURE**

The review shows that it is generally agreed upon that the future of England depends on the education of her people. The government has invested a lot of public money in education, yet there are still a great number of school leavers who have not acquired the skills of speaking and listening.

The review shows that the neglect of speaking and listening skills in the classroom occurred partly because early theories about education and communication influenced classroom practices. When new theories developed and offer evidences to support the teaching of speaking and listening, other factors and constraints such as discipline, time, syllabus, examination, evaluation and organisation emerged to hinder the teaching of

speaking and listening skills. The focus in teaching language was and is on reading and writing, but the review has shown that none of the language arts has primacy; instead, they are complementary to each other.

From the review it can be deduced that speaking and listening are important in our life. What differentiates man from other species is his capacity for thinking. According to Vygotsky (1962), the speech structures of a child form the basic structures of his thinking. This evidence shows the importance of speaking and listening to an individual, to enable him to be part of the society, as an active participant. The review shows how overt and covert verbalisation assist in learning, clarifying ideas and problem solving. In this way, speech contributes to academic success, and helps students to obtain employment, to perform successfully on the job, and have opportunities for advancement to higher levels of responsibility in job performance.

The review of the oracy projects shows how teachers, in their own capacity, have tried to reinstate speaking and listening skills to their proper place in the classroom and to reflect on the process of learning through talk. The timely coincidence between the introduction of the National Curriculum and the founding of oracy projects created a good ground for speaking and listening to flourish in the classroom. As the saying goes, the National Curriculum provides the backbone while the oracy projects act as the nerves.

From the review of the British Government reports, we can see that the government has long realised the importance of speaking and listening skills, but no immediate and effective action was taken, even after the idea of introducing a core curriculum was raised by Prime Minister Callaghan in 1976, to raise the standard of Education in England, although the Bullock Report had been published in the previous year. In fact it was, the Cox Report (1988) and finally the Dearing Report (1994) that

finally actualised the teaching of these skills in the schools, backed by the Education Reform Act 1988.

The British Government, with a large investment, has taken a big step in introducing the National Curriculum so as to equip students to meet the needs of a changing society and their future jobs. The National Curriculum requires that the teaching of speaking and listening, as well as reading and writing, be made part of the core subject of English for all students. On paper, at least, speaking and listening skills now enjoy equivalent status to reading and writing in the English curriculum and across the curriculum. Is this translated into practice in classrooms? Has the National Curriculum managed to change teachers' attitudes and practices, previously shown to be so resistant, in a matter of a few years? Why are there still so many "concerned voices" about the speaking and listening skills of school leavers?

The only way to find out what is happening in the teaching of English in classrooms today is to enter the life of the students and the teachers in the school environment, to look at how speaking and listening in the National Curriculum are translated in the classroom, in relation to the work place.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **SPEAKING AND LISTENING SKILLS WITHIN THE NATIONAL CURRICULUM FOR ENGLISH**

#### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

As mentioned earlier, in Chapter 1, the National Curriculum was implemented by law for all pupils registered in state-maintained schools, including grant-maintained and grant-maintained special schools, in England and Wales on and after September 1989 (Education Reform Act 1988). In this chapter, the development of the National Curriculum will be outlined and discussed briefly, to highlight major events that resulted in the introduction and implementation of the National Curriculum. The focus is on English in the National Curriculum with reference to the introduction of Speaking and Listening skills. The links between Speaking and Listening skills in the National Curriculum with Speaking and Listening skills at work place will be discussed too.

#### **5.2 EVENTS LEADING TO THE INTRODUCTION AND IMPLEMENTATION OF THE NATIONAL CURRICULUM**

There were many events that led to the introduction and implementation of the National Curriculum. In this section some of the major events will be discussed briefly.

##### **5.2.1 The Ruskin College Speech and the Great Debate**

The movement towards a national curriculum can be dated to 18 October 1976 when a speech was made at Ruskin College by James Callaghan, then the Prime Minister. In his speech, a number of concerns on 'educational matters' were identified.



One of the Prime Minister's concerns was the need for higher standards than in the past, in the field of general education. He said:

It is not enough to say that standards in this field have or have not declined. With the increasing complexity of modern life we cannot be satisfied with maintaining existing standards, let alone observe any decline. We must aim for something better.

(Callaghan, 1976, p. 322).

Prime Minister Callaghan found it disturbing that new recruits from the schools did not meet the needs of industries because they lacked the basic tools required to perform well on the jobs available. He suggested a more technological bias in science teaching that would call for more practical applications in industry, rather than towards academic studies. In the speech, he mentioned a need for a core curriculum in general education, with universal standards. He explained that the goals of Britain's education are to equip children, to the best of their ability, to play a lively, constructive place in society and also to fit them for the work place. The tools to accomplish the goals are "basic literacy, basic numeracy, the understanding of how to live and work together, respect for others, respect for the individual" (Callaghan, 1976, p. 333).

To achieve his vision he called for full co-operation from all sectors:

"I repeat that parents, teachers, learned and professional bodies, representatives of higher education and both sides of industry, together with the Government, all have an important part to play in formulating and expressing the purpose of education and the standards that we need"

(Callaghan, 1976, p. 322)

The Ruskin College Speech was one of the turning points in the curriculum development of England, and the 'Great Debate' was initiated. One of the activities was a series of conferences around the country. No immediate outcome could be seen from the Great Debate, but it started the ball rolling.

### 5. 2. 2 Better Schools

When the White Paper, Better Schools (DES, 1985a) was published, the first two paragraphs set the context of the next part of the debate which was to result in the introduction of the National Curriculum. Better Schools states:

The quality of school education concerns everyone. What is achieved by those who provide it, and by the pupils for whom it is provided, has lasting effects on the prosperity and well-being of each individual citizen and of the whole nation ....The Government's principal aims for all sectors of education are first, to raise standards at all levels of ability; and second, since education is an investment in the nation's future, to secure the best possible return from the resources which are found for it .... There is much to admire in our schools; many of them cope well, and some very well, with their increasingly exacting task. But the high standards achieved in some schools throw into relief the shortcomings, some of them serious, of the others. Nor are the objectives which even the best schools set themselves always well matched with the demands of the modern world.

(Better Schools, 1985a, p. 1)

Better Schools then established a general objective and explained the Government's own responsibility:

By the time they leave school, pupils need to have acquired, far more than at present, *the qualities and skills required for work in a technological age*. Education at school should promote enterprise and adaptability in order to *increase young people's chances of finding employment* or creating it for themselves and others .... The Government has a duty to take a lead in securing improvement .... The duty of the Government is to ensure as far as it can that, through the efforts of all who are involved with our schools, the education of the pupils serves their own and the country's needs and provides a fair return to those who pay for it.

(Better Schools, 1985a, pp. 3-4, italics added)

Statements within Better Schools reminded the schools that one of their principal functions was to prepare students for working life. Acknowledging current economic problems and the need to compete at international market, Better Schools stressed that British workforce must possess the right skills and attitudes and be able to adapt accordingly to the advancement of technology.

### **5. 2. 3 Economic Crisis**

After the General Election of May 1979, the Conservative Government which returned to power introduced economic policies to combat inflation and to increase the efficiency of British Industry. Contrary to the wish of the government, instead of an economic boom, there was widespread growth of unemployment and the youth population was particularly badly affected. The implication was that the educational system had failed to equip young people with the appropriate knowledge and skills to function effectively in working life.

Action had to be taken to improve the educational system and especially to ensure that it would support students with average and below average ability. Thus, in 1981 Sir Keith Joseph, the Secretary of State for Education and Science, felt that a new examination system was needed with precise definitions of desired levels of attainment. With clear definitions of what to be achieved, there would be concrete targets for the teachers and the students to aim at.

The Government's fundamental objectives were to improve the quality of education and to raise standards of attainment by stretching and stimulating pupils throughout the ability range. So on 6 January 1984, while addressing the North of England Conference in Sheffield, Sir Keith Joseph set a long-term aim of raising pupil performance at all levels of ability so as to bring 80 to 90 per cent of all 16 years old pupils at least to the level of attainment currently achieved by pupils of average ability in individual subjects as reflected in CSE grade 4 (i.e., the level expected of average performers); and to do so over a broad range of knowledge, understanding and skills in a number of subjects. He agreed to introduce the GCSE with the condition that it would be subject to "National Criteria" (DES, 1985c, p. 5).

### **5.3 THE NATIONAL CRITERIA**

The 'national criteria', which comprise general criteria and subject-specific criteria, are nationally agreed guidelines with which all GCSE syllabuses, assessment procedures and examinations must comply. They were drafted by the Joint Council of GCE and CSE Boards, and revised in the light of comments by related sectors (schools and colleges, teachers' associations, subject associations, higher education, employers' organisations, the local authority associations, the Secondary Examinations Council, the Secretaries of State and others) and approved by the Secretaries of State on the advice of

the Secondary Examinations Council. National criteria are needed in order to ensure that syllabuses in important subjects have sufficient content in common, that assessment is conducted according to common principles, and that pupils, parents and other users of examinations will be better informed and have a clearer understanding of what a given GCSE certificate attests. According to the criteria, syllabuses and examinations are required to be free of political, ethnic, gender and other forms of bias, and to take account of the linguistic and cultural diversity of candidates. By comparison with GCE-O and CSE examinations, the national criteria place a new emphasis on oral and practical skills and course-work, on reasoning and on the application, as well as the acquisition, of knowledge and understanding.

The Secondary Examinations Council, acting in consultation with the Examining Groups, was made responsible for keeping the national criteria under regular review and proposing revisions and additions as necessary for approval by the Secretaries of State and the Education Departments.

#### **5.4 TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION INITIATIVE**

The issue of the knowledge, understanding and skills required of school leavers prompted the Government to establish the Technical and Vocational Education Initiative (TVEI) which was not under the Department of Education and Science. TVEI was directly under Manpower Service Commission part of the Department of Employment. TVEI offered broad general education with a strong technical element aimed at 14-18 years old.

When TVEI was first introduced in 1983, the aim was to produce a flexible and adaptable workforce able to cope with change. Later TVEI has broadened its remit to include many subject areas including English:

“English plays an essential part in pupils’ overall development as they prepare to enter the world beyond compulsory education be it training, further or higher education, or employment. The effective use of the English language is required in such areas as: decisions making, working in teams, making things happen, persuading people, helping people organising and in information.”

(Developing English for TVEI, 1990, University of Leeds)

The link between school and employment was thus further strengthened with the introduction of TVEI.

## **5.5 THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE NATIONAL CURRICULUM**

The GSE ‘O’ level which was introduced in 1953 and the CSE which was introduced in 1965, between them had 20 separate examinations boards each awarding its own certificate, many hundreds of subjects titles, and nearly 19, 000 syllabuses. In 1986, this two-tier examination system was abolished in favour of a new, unified examination system which was common to all, irrespective of ability.

After the announcement, the Government then published a consultation document:

The National Curriculum 5-16 (DES, 1987):

The Government now wishes to move ahead at a faster pace to ensure that this happens and to secure for all pupils in maintained schools a curriculum which equips them with the knowledge, skills and understanding that they need for *adult life and employment*. (p. 3, italics added)

The National Curriculum would “enable schools to be more accountable for the education they offer their pupils, individually and collectively...” (DES, 1987, p. 4) and “*employers too will have a better idea of what a school-leaver will have studied and learnt at school*” (DES, 1987, p. 5, italic added).

The 1987 document continued: “The Government has concluded that these advantages and consistent improvement in standards can be guaranteed only in within a national framework for the secular curriculum. To be effective, that must be backed by law...” (p. 5). Thus, the Education Reform Act was passed by Parliament and given Royal Assent on 29 July 1988.

The 1987 document recognised that legislation alone would not raise standards of education. “The imaginative application of professional skills at all levels of the education service, within a statutory framework which sets clear objectives, will raise standards” (DES, 1987, p. 5).

The National Curriculum Council (1989) noted that the National Curriculum would provide teachers with clear objectives. It would also allow students to identify targets for their learning, while parents would be able to gain access to accurate information about what their children could be expected to know, understand and be able to do, and what they were actually achieving. According to the National Curriculum Council, the result of implementing the National Curriculum would be higher expectations and more effective progression and continuity throughout the years of full-time education.

The Report of the Records of Achievement National Steering Committee January 1989 recommended that records of achievement be introduced for all pupils, at least in the secondary sector, by the early 1990s.

The Report identified five general skills which run across the curriculum:

1. information handling
2. organising work
3. communication skills
4. working with others
5. personal qualities

All the five general skills are related to the study of Speaking and Listening. Information handling is vital in order to be a competent speaker and listener since it involves knowing how to receive and transmit information. The converse is also true, one needs to have listening and speaking skills in order to manage information. In the case of organising work, the role of speaking and listening is highlighted in the Cox Report (DES, 1989) and the Report “drew attention to the *importance of employees’ being able to cope - in both work and other activities - with a variety of complex situations through talk*” (para 15.6, italic added).

By analogy with the comment of Dr Walter D. Loban, Professor Emeritus at the University of California at Berkeley, that students listen to a book a day, speak a book a week, read a book a month and write a book a year (Buckley, 1992), definitely, the main components of communication skills are speaking and listening. All the four other skills identified by the Report of the Records of Achievement National Steering Committee are based on personal qualities such as body language, taking turns, considering audience needs and so on.

What the Report of the Records of Achievement National Steering Committee had identified are five general skills which run across the curriculum and which are directly



related to the Speaking and Listening skills. This shows the importance of Speaking and Listening skills in the National Curriculum and also in the work place.

## **5. 6 MAJOR INITIATIVES IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF SPEAKING AND LISTENING IN ENGLISH**

During the nineteenth-century revolution in linguistics, language was rediscovered and was made the object of systematic study in its own right. Foucault, writing at that time in *The Order of Things*, stated that “language is no longer linked to the knowing of things, but to men’s freedom” (as cited in Emerson, 1980, p. 21). The new status of language has changed and challenged Western thinking on language and thought, language and knowledge, and language and learning.

As for the current state of teaching of speaking and listening skills in the school environment, it is the result of serious ideas developed by a number of theorists and practitioners from different disciplines since the 1920s (see Chapter 3). The works of Pavlov (1927), Skinner (1938), Chomsky (1959), Piaget (1926), Vygotsky (1938/1962), and Bruner (1966), to mention just a few, have directly or indirectly elevated the status of speaking and listening in the school curriculum in the United Kingdom, Australia, New Zealand, America and Canada.

In England and Wales, the statement made by Anthony Adams (1988) reflects the difficult scenario and the worthwhile effort of introducing Speaking and Listening skills into the National Curriculum:

“...the fight that took place to establish oracy as a compulsory component of the new examination (and one that is ultimately to be extended to other subjects besides English) was a vital one .... the inclusion within an external examination structure, gives an accolade and status to the subject that carries downwards into the rest of the school curriculum.” (p. ix).

### 5. 6. 1 Evidences of the Centrality of Talk to Learning and Working

As the saying goes, “Rome wasn’t built in a day”, and the same goes for Speaking and Listening, which were only recognised and formally introduced after more than three decades of evidences and “a powerful consensus” (Jones, 1988, p. 23) about the centrality of talk to learning and the work place (DES, 1963, 1975, 1979, 1982; Howe, 1983; Adams, 1988; Jones, 1988).

The quotations below are some of the evidences found in the literature during the 60s-80s:

There is no gift like the gift of speech; and the level at which people have learned to use it determines the level of companionship and the level at which their life is lived.

This matter of communication effects all aspects of social and intellectual growth. There is a gulf between those who have, and the many who have not, sufficient command of words to be able to listen and discuss rationally; to express ideas and feelings clearly; and even to have any ideas at all. We simply do not know how many people are frustrated in their lives by the inability ever to express themselves adequately; or how many never develop intellectually because they lack the words with which to think and reason. This is a matter as important to *economic life* as it is to personal living; *industrial relations* as well as marriages come to grief on failures in communication. (DES 1963, p. 15, italics added)

Pupils, like adults, need to talk over new experiences, returning to them again and again maybe, finding new elements and connections. The potential meaning of an experience – an outing, a visitor, an experiment - is not always clear at once. It needs to be worked over, “realized” again through language, shared and modified .... Talking it over, thinking it over ... can be natural parts of taking account of new experience (cognitively and affectively) (Dixon, 1967, p. 28).

We are saying that it is as talkers, questioners, arguers, gossips, chatterboxes, that our pupils do much of their most important learning. Their everyday talking voices are the most subtle and versatile means they possess for making sense of others, including their teachers. School should be a place in which we can hear the full sound of 'the conversation of mankind' (Barnes, Britton, & Rosen, 1969)

Discovering comes in seeing the meaning of what is new in terms of what is familiar; in his talk he creates for the new a personal context; nobody else can do it for him because it has got to be in relation to his own experience. And he does that, above all, in his talk. (Britton, 1970a)

Thus, it is above all in expressive speech that we get to know one another, each offering his unique identity and (at our best) offering and accepting both what is common and what differentiates us (Britton, 1970b).

He [the child] cannot talk without learning something about the content of the talk, for this is the goal of the communicators. (Tough, 1973, pp. 111-112, explanation added)

Talking that is relevant to his experience may ... provide the child with a meaning for the experience different from that which it would have had if it had happened without the accompanying talk (Tough 1973, p. 112).

We welcome the growth in oral language in recent years, for we cannot emphasise too strongly our conviction of its importance in the education of the child ... its essential place in preparing a child for reading, its function as an instrument of learning and thinking, its role in social and emotional development. In today's society, talk is taking on an ever-growing significance. People are surrounded by words which are playing upon issues that will affect their lives in a variety of ways .... In recent years many schools have gone a very long way to asserting this aspect of education as one of their most important responsibilities. But there is still a great deal to be done. A priority objective for *all* schools is a commitment to the speech needs of their pupils and a serious study of the role of oral language in learning (DES 1975, p. 156).

It is important that children talk freely about the subjects in which they are interested but if their ability to use language as an instrument of learning is to be developed, the teacher must consciously structure his pupils' assignments in order to increase the complexity of their thinking and the Committee considers that this is best achieved by large and small group work. (National Union of Teachers, 1976, p. 21)

One of the major functions of language that concerns teachers is its use for learning: for trying to put new ideas into words, for testing out one's thinking on other people, for fitting together new ideas with old ones ... which all need to be done to bring about new understanding (NATE, 1976).

The major means by which children in our schools formulate knowledge and relate it to their own purposes and view of the world are speech and writing...The importance of language...is that it makes knowledge and thought processes readily available for introspection and revision. If we know what we know, then we can change it. Language is not the same as thought, but it allows us to reflect upon our thoughts. The metaphor contained in 'reflect' is here highly appropriate: what we say and write mirrors our thought processes, and enables us to take responsibility for them. Thus children and adults alike are not only receiving knowledge but remaking it for themselves. (Barnes, 1976, pp. 19-20)

I call this groping towards a meaning 'exploratory talk' ... It is usually marked by frequent hesitations, re-phrasings false starts and changes of direction. I want to argue that it is very important whenever we want the learner to take an active part in learning, and to bring what he learns into interaction with that view of the world on which his actions are based. That is, such exploratory talk is one means by which the assimilation and accommodation of new knowledge to the old is carried out (Barnes, 1976, p. 28).

... [Pupils] need more experience as participants in genuine discussion, in which they attend to the contribution of others, learn to discriminate between the relevant and the irrelevant and to expand, qualify and range in and around a subject (DES 1979, p. 107).

Interaction between teacher and child is not necessarily beneficial: the quality of thinking conveyed and transmitted through interaction is the crucial element. The teacher's development of skills of using dialogue can not only bring insight into the process of teaching and learning but, when carried into practice, brings greater effectiveness to both teaching and learning. The use of dialogue can make an invaluable contribution to teaching methods and is applicable in every area of the curriculum (Tough, 1979, p. 112).

The project team considers that talk has a vitally important part to play in the secondary-school classroom, because the team's researches have clearly indicated that using speech in the shaping of meaning is a valuable element in the learning process (School Council, 1979, p. 18).

There is also now a sizeable body of evidence to support the prime importance of language, and particularly talk, in learning. For the student who wants to succeed not only in understanding the broader problems of living through the twentieth century, but also in the more immediate task of passing examinations, there is no substitute for the understanding that grows from free and informal conversation

with fellow students and teachers. The open school should buzz regularly with the exploratory talk of a learning community (Watts, 1980, p. 93).

The primacy of the spoken word in human intercourse cannot be too strongly emphasised. Important though the written word is, most communication takes place in speech; and those who do not listen with attention and cannot speak with clarity, articulateness and confidence are at a disadvantage in almost every aspect of their personal, social and *working lives*. *It is salutary to note during this period of high youth unemployment that many employers complain that school leavers lack just these abilities*. It is suggested that improvement of education in the spoken word should be a particular concern of schools and of all agencies of initial and in-service training. (DES, 1982, p. 5, italics added).

What school should provide, therefore, is the opportunity to develop and extend these conversational skills by putting them to use in the exploration of the new ideas and experience that the more formal curriculum provides. (Wells, 1984)

A fuller understanding of the nature of linguistic interaction, whether at home or in classroom, is leading us to recognize that, to be most effective, the relationship between teacher and learner must, at every stage of development, be collaborative. (Wells, 1985)

All children, we would argue, will learn most effectively when there are frequent opportunities for collaborative talk with teachers and with fellow pupils. (Wells, 1985)

Talk is a potent and natural means of learning .... To talk something through with others is an important way to grasp new ideas, understand concepts and to clarify your own feelings and perceptions about something. (Groby Oracy Research Project, as cited in Jones, 1988, p. 163)

In adult life and in the world of work talk is far more important than reading and writing and makes increasingly complex demands on individuals. If schools neglect talk they will not only deny young people a vital means of learning but they will be failing to equip them for life. (Groby Oracy Research Project, as cited in Jones, 1988, p. 164)

Children leaving school behind, who are not confident in using "talk" in all the major settings that life is likely to cast them into, will unavoidably fail to project themselves adequately in those settings. This can be an insurmountable obstacle for young people thrown into a *job market*....(Corson, 1988, p. 25, italics added)

We know from a number of surveys that the young school-leaver needs spoken English skills in the *work-place* much more than he or she needs those of the written form. (Adams, 1988, p. x, italics added)

The quotations above are some of the examples found in the literature that show the importance of Speaking and Listening in the classroom and in the work place and, indirectly, contributed to the introduction and implementation of Speaking and Listening skills within the curriculum.

### **5. 6. 2 Support by Individuals and Institutions**

The support provided by individuals and institutions was one of the main factors that led to the introduction and implementation of Speaking and Listening in the National Curriculum.

Special acknowledgement should go to Professor Andrew Wilkinson at the School of Education, University of Birmingham. As discussed in Chapter 4, Wilkinson and his associates came to coin the term ‘oracy’ by analogy with ‘literacy’ and ‘numeracy’, thereby giving new life to Speaking and Listening. Wilkinson’s research team: Alan Davis, Dorothy Atkinson, Jean Price, Leslie Stratta, Peter Dudley and Pauline Roberts, were “at the time responding to pioneering briefs, and nothing remotely like them had been produced in the UK before” (Wilkinson et al., 1990, p. 2).

We must acknowledge that the work of Wilkinson and his associates works became a catalyst and a cornerstone of promoting speaking and listening in the England and Wales. According to Wilkinson, the acceptance of ‘oracy’ is also due to the work of others who had similar vision: Michael Halliday, Douglas Barnes, James Britton, John Dixon, Joan Tough, Harold Rosen, John Sinclair, Malcolm Coultard, Leslie Stratta and Gordon Wells.

As discussed in Chapter 4, the formulation of the National Oracy Project which was supported by the School Curriculum Development Committee and Her Majesty’s English Inspectorate, resulted in the active involvement of over half the LEAs in the UK.

This support was definitely very conducive to the growth of speaking and listening in the curriculum.

The support given by The National Association of Teachers of English (NATE) in the form of research and publications helped to strengthened the role play by speaking and listening in the classroom.

The National Curriculum Council which backed the principle of equal weighting for speaking and listening with reading and writing in the National Curriculum, has played a significant role in promoting the teaching and learning of speaking and listening.

### **5. 6. 3 The Cox Reports (DES, 1988; 1989)**

The two Cox Reports; *English for Ages 5 to 11* and *English for ages 5 to 16*, gave Speaking and Listening skills new status, equal to that of Reading and Writing in the National Curriculum.

The Cox Committee states clearly that:

“Our inclusion of speaking and listening as a separate profile component in our recommendations is a reflection of our conviction that they are of central importance to children’s development.” (DES, 1989, para 15.1, DES, 1988, p. 34)

When the National Curriculum Task Group on Assessment and Testing recommended that the attainment targets should be grouped in a small number of profile components, the committee set up groups based on the language modes – speaking, listening, reading and writing. They “allocated speaking and listening to one profile component since they are essentially reciprocal, interacting activities and, as such, best

taken together. **All three profile components are equally important**" (DES, 1988, p. 2, original emphasis)

The Cox Committee in their report, referred to the Cockcroft Report (1982), the mathematics and science teachers' associations, the National Association for the Teaching of English and the Association for Primary Education, to illustrate the value of talk in other subjects as a medium for promoting students' understanding, and of evaluating their progress. The committee also pointed to the findings from surveys that had shown the importance of talking and listening both in obtaining employment and in performing well in it.

"In addition to its function as a crucial teaching and learning *method*" (DES, 1989, para 15.4), the committee acknowledge the recognition that talk can promote a range of skills and competence, transactionally and socially that are central to children's overall language development.

According to the Cox Committee, the main aim of the English curriculum is to enable all pupils to develop their maximum ability to use and understand English; in other words, to be able to speak, listen, read and write effectively. Underlying this main aim are two interrelated purposes: First, English contributes to the personal development of an individual child and secondly, English contributes to preparation for the adult life.

Their conviction on the importance of speaking and listening and the relationship with literacy is shown below:

"In a child's development (language) listening precedes talking; talking precedes literacy. Each feeds the other and is in turn developed" (DES, 1988), para 2.1)



It is the Cox Committee that opened the door to welcome Speaking and Listening skills on equal footage with Reading and Writing in the National Curriculum.

## **5.7 SPEAKING AND LISTENING IN THE NATIONAL CURRICULUM**

The Education Reform Act 1988 identified English as one of the core subjects, central to a planned curriculum, both as a subject in its own right and as a service to other areas of learning. English in the National Curriculum cites five attainment targets with associated statements of attainment. The attainment targets are defined as the knowledge, skills and understanding which pupils of different abilities and maturities are expected to have by the end of each key stage. In English, these pertain to speaking and listening, reading and writing. They are concerned with 'what' the children should achieve, but there is no constraint regarding 'how'.

English in the National Curriculum (DfE, 1995a) has the following sections as a framework to teach speaking and listening skills:

- General Requirements for English: Key Stages 1-4 (Appendix 5-1)
- The Speaking and Listening Programme of Study for Key Stages 1-4 (Appendix 5-2)
- English Attainment Target 1: Speaking & Listening (Appendix 5-3)

The above sections in the English Order are very important because, as mentioned earlier, the purpose of this study is to see the teachers are teaching speaking and listening skills in secondary schools and the relationship with the work place. The above sections of the Order are the main guideline on these matters.

## 5. 8 SPEAKING AND LISTENING SKILLS IN RELATION TO WORK PLACE

In this section the Guidelines for Minimal Speaking and Listening Competencies for High School Graduates (Appendix 2-2) and Speaking and Listening Skills which Industry Requires of its 16+ Entrants (Appendix 9-1) are used as guidelines to relate Speaking and Listening skills stated in the National Curriculum with Speaking and Listening skills at the work place.

In the General Requirement (Appendix 5-1), English is required “to develop pupil’s abilities to communicate effectively in speech ... and to listen with understanding” (DfE, 1995a, p. 2). These are Speaking and Listening skills which industry requires of its 16+ entrants (see Appendix 9-1), for example, “talk easily to foreman, supervisor or manager, explaining problems and asking questions; discuss his/her job constructively with colleagues and fellow workers; and listen to instructions, asking any necessary questions”.

Also in the General Requirement, the ability to speak in standard English is related to “public, cultural and *working life*” (DfE, 1995a, p. 2, italics added). Students are required to speak in standard English, fluently and accurately, so that in the future they can participate confidently in working life. Therefore, school leavers are expected, for example, to “use appropriate language during employment interviews” or to “conclude a conversation with your employer”, two formal situations where an interviewee or an employee are expected to use standard English. In short, the General Requirement for English is applicable for work place - the present and the future.

The two examples of occupational function above are taken from the Guidelines for Minimal Speaking and Listening Competencies for High School Graduates (Appendix 2-2) to illustrate the link between the General Requirement and the work place. As discussed in Chapter 2, the Guidelines for Minimal Speaking and Listening Competencies

for High School Graduates were recommended by a task force established by the Educational Policies Board of the Speech Communication Association (SCA), in the United States. The SCA Task Force concluded that adults use speaking and listening skills to achieve three main aims: Occupational, Citizenship and Maintenance, and these aims represent guidelines for the development of curricula in speaking and listening. For this study the focus is on the occupational function.

Figure 5-1 shows some of the range of the key skills of Speaking and Listening skills in the classroom situation for Key Stage 3 and 4 Programme of Study (Appendix 5-2). The Figure links the use of Speaking and Listening skills in the work place with the occupational function of the Guidelines for Minimal Speaking and Listening Competencies for High School Graduates.

For the purposes of higher education and job application, the minimum requirement for Speaking and Listening is Grade C (19-21 marks). Based on the Northern Examinations and Assessment Board's *Syllabus for 1995, 1996 and 1997 English 1611*, the band descriptor is as follows:

The candidate will **convey information or ideas clearly and effectively** when dealing with unfamiliar subject-matters, s/he will **discern and respond appropriately to obvious assumptions and biases** displayed by others. S/he will show **judgement in the choice of style and delivery** when evaluating ideas or expressing a personal response, **matching language to purpose, topic and audience**, and showing confident use of standard English in situation which require it." (original emphasis, p.17).

**Figure 5-1: Linking Speaking and Listening Skills (Key Stage 3 and 4 Programme of Study) with Speaking and Listening Skills at Work Place.**

The Speaking and Listening Programme of Study for Key Stages 3 and 4: (Appendix 5-2)	Guidelines for Minimal Speaking and Listening Competencies for High School Graduate: Occupational (Appendix 2-2)	
	Competencies	Occupational
Listen attentively	Communication Codes: Listen effectively to spoken English	Understand directions given by job supervisor; understand complaints and needs of customers; understand suggestions and questions of fellow workers
Choice of words and the effectiveness of their expression. Pupils should be taught to be fluent, accurate users of standard English vocabulary and grammar	Communication Codes: Use words, pronunciation and grammar appropriate for situation	Use appropriate language during employment interviews; use words, pronunciation, and grammar which do not alienate co-workers; use words understood by co-workers;
Use gestures and intonation appropriately.	Communication Codes: Use non verbal signs appropriate for situation	Use appropriate gestures and eye contact during employment interviews; use appropriate facial expressions and tone of voice when conversing with a supervisor; use gestures which aid a co-worker in learning to perform a production task.
To distinguish features of presentation: explanatory, persuasive, amusing, argumentative.	Oral Message Evaluation: Distinguish facts from opinions	Obtain factual information about job opportunities; distinguish between facts and opinions in customer complaints or in labour-management dispute
	Oral Message Evaluation: Distinguish between informative and persuasive messages.	Distinguish between informative and persuasive messages in a job interview; distinguish between informative and persuasive messages from a union organiser; distinguish between informative and persuasive messages of management.
To talk for a range of purposes and to talk in a range of context .	Basic Speech Communication: Express ideas clearly and concisely	Make a report to your supervisor; explain job requirements to a new employee; state clearly relevant information about your work experience when applying for a job.
Adapt presentation to different audiences	Basic Speech Communication: Organise (order) messages so that others can understand them	Use a chronological order to explain a complex business procedure to a co-worker; use a topical order when explaining production problems to a supervisor; use a problem-cause-solution order when making a suggestion to a supervisor.
Participate in role-play.	Human Relations: Express feeling to others	Express personal reactions to changes in job conditions to your supervisor; express satisfactions to a co-worker about his/her job; express feelings of dissatisfaction with co-workers regarding the quality of work interactions
	Human Relations: Perform social rituals	Introduce yourself at the beginning of a job interview; greet customers; conclude a conversation with your employer.
Take different views into account	Human Relations: Describe another's view point	Describe the viewpoint of a supervisor who disagrees with your evaluation of your job performance;
	Human Relations: Describe differences in opinion	Describe differences in opinion with co-workers about work related issues; describe differences in opinion with customers about product performance.
Ways of negotiating consensus or agreeing to differ.	Basic Speech Communication Skills: Express and defend with evidence your point of view.	Express and defend your view in a union meeting; express and defend your suggestions for changes in job conditions; express and defend your reasons for job absence to your supervisor.

School leavers who had achieved a Grade C will be able to function comfortably at the work place. They will be able to “**convey information or ideas clearly and effectively**” even though they are not familiar with the subject. They will also know how to handle negative information or fallacy by “**responding appropriately**” using language and body language. Some of the examples given in the occupational function of the Guidelines for Minimal Speaking and Listening Competencies for High School Graduates are “distinguish between facts and opinions in customer complaints or in labour-management”, “distinguish between informative and persuasive messages in a job interview”, “distinguish between informative and persuasive messages from a union organiser”, and “distinguish between informative and persuasive messages of management dispute”.

For “**show judgement in the choice of style and delivery when evaluating ideas or expressing a personal response**”, the work related examples given by the Guidelines for Minimal Speaking and Listening Competencies for High School Graduates are “express personal reactions to changes in job conditions to your supervisor”, “express satisfactions to a co-worker about his/her job” and “express feelings of dissatisfaction with co-workers regarding the quality of work interactions”.

In addition, in the future the school leavers will be able to “**match language to purpose, topic and audience**”. They can use the right register when dealing with senior managers, co-workers or customers. At the school level, English in the National Curriculum (DFE, 1995a) supports this function by stating clearly that “pupils should be given opportunities to make different types of contributions in discussions, adapting their speech to their listeners and to the activity” (p. 17). In short, using speaking and listening to cope is a vital skill at the work place.

For a Grade A (25-27 marks) student, the band descriptor is as follows:

The candidate will be able to **argue persuasively**, responding cogently to the views of others or to written materials, and will **empathise with real or imagined experience**, sometimes using **tone and/or gesture consciously unmatched to choice of language to express irony or to indicate detachment**. S/he will show **an assured use of standard English** in a range of situations and for a variety of purposes, **sensitively using speech styles appropriate to audience, topic and situation** in establishing an atmosphere conducive to effective communication.

(Northern Examinations and Assessment Board's *Syllabus for 1995, 1996 and 1997 English 1611*, p. 17)

Even though Figure 5-1 and mark/band descriptors (Grade C and Grade A) show clear link between Speaking and Listening in the National Curriculum and their future use at work, Anthony Adams (1988) reminds us that "...no narrowly conceived 'skills' model of listening and talking competence will meet our needs" (p. x). Speaking and Listening skills in the National Curriculum are not implemented solely to focus on employment.

There are a number of perspectives from which Speaking and Listening skills in the National Curriculum can be viewed, but for the purpose of this research, the frame of reference is the work place.

## **5.9 SUMMARY OF THE INTRODUCTION AND IMPLEMENTATION OF THE NATIONAL CURRICULUM WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO SPEAKING AND LISTENING SKILLS**

The above chapter has discussed the events that led to the introduction and implementation of the National Curriculum, and provided information on English in the National Curriculum, with a focus on speaking and listening. One of the reasons for the introduction of Speaking and Listening skills in the National Curriculum was to raise the standard of education and to ensure that school leavers have the basic communication skills required at work place. The other reason was a strong consensus on the centrality of talk in learning, and extensive evidence that speaking and listening are essential in order to function effectively and confidently in the work place (see Chapter 4). Support from individuals and institutions, and the strong conviction shown by the Cox Committee, led to the strong emphasis on Speaking and Listening skills in the National Curriculum.

## **CHAPTER 6 RESEARCH DESIGN, METHODOLOGY AND PILOT STUDY**

### **6.1 INTRODUCTION**

The purpose of this chapter is to explain the aim and objectives of the empirical study, and the multi-method approaches adopted by the researcher in gathering information. This chapter also describes the population, the sample and the instruments for collecting data. This is followed by the description of the administration of pilot study and of its findings.

### **6.2 AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT**

As mentioned in Chapter 1, the main question addressed in this research is, “What are the links between the learning of speaking and listening skills in secondary school, and the future use of speaking and listening in the work place?”. This question was explored through the following objectives:

- (i) To find out whether there is any link between students’ perception of learning speaking and listening in school, and the future use of speaking and listening at work place.
- (ii) To find out whether there is any link between teachers’ perception of learning speaking and listening in school, and the future use of speaking and listening at work place.
- (iii) To find out whether the students perceive speaking and listening as important in working life.



In order to answer the above question, it is essential to obtain first hand knowledge about the teaching and learning of speaking and listening skills in secondary schools of England and Wales after the introduction of the National Curriculum in 1989. To facilitate the research question, this study also seek to answer the following question:

What is the present situation in the teaching and learning of speaking and listening skills in secondary schools of England and Wales after the introduction of the National Curriculum in 1989?

### **6.3 THE POPULATION OF THE STUDY**

The County of Humberside has 66 secondary schools and 15 special schools (DfE, 1995b). The secondary schools are divided into four types. The County Schools (N=51) are maintained by the local education authority (LEA). The LEA is generally responsible for admissions. The Voluntary Aided Schools (N=5) are maintained by the LEA, with a generally religious foundation which appoints the governing body. The governing body is generally responsible for admissions. The Voluntary Controlled Schools (N=4) are maintained by the LEA, with a foundation which appoints some, but not the majority, of the governing body. The LEA is generally responsible for admissions. Independent Schools (N=6), have no relationship with the LEA and normally charge fees.

For the County Schools, 48 are co-educational, two are girls' schools and one is a boys' school. In the case of the voluntary aided schools, three are co-educational while the other two are boys' schools. All the voluntary controlled schools and all the independent schools are co-educational.

At the start of the 1995/96 school year, there were 59,784 students registered at secondary schools in the County of Humberside, and based on Secondary School performance Tables 1996 for East Riding of Yorkshire (DfEE, 1996a), Kingston Upon Hull (DfEE, 1996b), North East Lincolnshire (DfEE, 1996c) and North Lincolnshire (DfEE, 1996d), there were 10,161 students aged 15 joining Year 11. The academic year started on September 6, 1995. The students took the GSCE examination during the period from March 1996 until June 1996. The 1995/96 session marked the end of their 11 years of compulsory education.

The target student population had had the experience of learning English in the National Curriculum since Year 5 (9/8 year old) in the primary school, when the National Curriculum was formally introduced. They had then followed English in the National Curriculum in secondary school from Year 7 (11/12 year old) starting in September 1991. This target population was thought to be appropriate because they had experienced no break with the National Curriculum in the secondary school and should be able to respond to questionnaires and thus provide the data that will help to answer objectives (ii), (iii) and (iv).

According to The International Encyclopaedia of Education (Husén & Postlethwaite, 1994) in the United Kingdom “the majority of pupils leave full-time education for good at age 16 - a phenomenon not found elsewhere in Western Europe” (p. 6522). Another finding reported in Statistical Bulletin 9/13: Education Statistics for the United Kingdom (DES, 1991) showed that some 20 percent of students in the age group 16-18, stay on at school beyond the statutory leaving age, and 33 percent take up full-time courses in further education. This means that the majority of these Year 11 students would have been about to go to work or into further education and so might be considered capable of providing the answers to objectives number (vi) and (vii).

Independent Schools (N=6) were excluded from the study because students of these schools did not represent the student population of schools in the county of Humberside. The students registered in the Independent Schools generally have different backgrounds; in particular, very few of these students would be expecting to leave school for work.

For similar reasons, Special Education Schools (N=15) were left out in the study. It is important to note, however, that the implementation of the National Curriculum gave, for the first time, a legal entitlement to all children to share a set of common curricular experiences, "...but there is little evidence to suggest that the curriculum has often been designed with their [students with special needs] needs in mind" (Beveridge, 1993, p. 57, explanation in [ ] added). Beveridge stressed that a rigid approach to the delivery of the National Curriculum will not meet all students' needs. In the County of Humberside, the students from special schools represent a small percentage of the population and they are not representative of those who leave school after compulsory education to join the work force.

The target teacher population was teachers who are teaching English in Year 11 and the Heads of English Departments (HoDs) in schools teaching the target students. The Year 11 English teachers and the HoDs also contributed to the development of the objectives of the study. During the pilot study, their ideas also contributed to the development of the frame of action in order to carry out the study. The practitioners had been teaching all the language arts, so they were thought to be able to provide the answers to objectives (i), (ii), (iii), (iv) and (v).

In addition to the HoDs and the English teachers, others related to the teaching of English were also interviewed for the purpose of shedding light on the issues explored in this study. A moderator who was from one of the examination boards was interviewed

because he could provide some insight on objectives (i) and (ii). Two of the Humberside LEA Careers Officers and two representatives of employers were also interviewed in order to supply information in relation to objectives (v), (vi) and (vii), which concern the work place.

#### 6.4 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

In this study, the procedures for collecting data were used independently of each other. Each technique was used whenever it was deemed to be appropriate. Events were looked at from multiple points of view, namely, the heads of English departments, the English teachers, the students, the moderator, careers officers and the employers.

In the process of gathering information for social and educational research, one of the major problems faced by a researcher is the appropriateness of methodology to the problem under investigation. According to Kerlinger (1973, p. 153) the researcher “has a choice of research designs, methods of observation, methods of measurement, and types of analysis”. The choice, however, is not arbitrary, it has to be systematic in order to avoid error in the interpretation of the data because research is “the *systematic, controlled, empirical and critical* (italics added) investigation of hypothetical propositions about the presumed relations among natural phenomena” (Kerlinger, 1973, p. 11). Kerlinger stressed that “adequacy of interpretation is dependent on each link in the methodological chain, as well as on the appropriateness of each link to the research problem and the congruence of the links to each other” (p. 154). Therefore, methods are important in research because methods become plans of action to move from theory to reality. Different ‘plans of action’ may lead to significantly different conclusions.

### 6. 4. 1 Triangulation

Given the choice and acknowledging the statement made by Stubbs & Delamont (1976) that “no single technique or theory can capture the complexity of classroom life” (p. 3), this research adopted a multi-method approach, sometime known as a “triangulation technique”.

The early concept of triangulation was the use of multiple methods in the study of the same object (Campbell and Fiske, 1959; Webb, Campbell, Schwartz, & Sechrest, 1966). Later, the concept was defined as “inspection of different kinds of data, different methods, and a variety of research tools” (Van Lier, 1988, p. 13) in a single research project.

Denzin (1970a, 1970b, 1989) identified four basic types of triangulation. The first is ‘data triangulation’ (Denzin, 1970a, p. 472) which has three subtypes: time, space (social situations) and person. According to Denzin, person analysis, in turn, has three levels: aggregate, interactive and collectivity. (According to Brannen, 1992, different data sets may be obtained through different methods and/or the same method at different times or with different sources). Data triangulation attempts to gather observations with multiple sampling strategies. In this way, a theory or hypothesis is tested in more than one way.

The second is ‘investigator triangulation’ (Denzin, 1970a, p. 472) which consists of using multiple observers rather than single observers of the same object. According to Denzin, there are advantages in employing multiple observers. One of the advantages is that tests of the reliability of observations can be quickly made and the extent observer bias can thus be judged.

Thirdly, there is 'theoretical triangulation' (Denzin, 1970a, p. 472) which consists of using multiple rather than single theoretical perspectives (models) in analysing the same set or sets of data.

Finally, there is 'methodological triangulation' which can entail 'within-method triangulation' and 'between-method triangulation'. This type of integration of different research methods is referred to by Isaac & Michael (1981) as 'triangulation of measurement'.

In educational research, triangulation of measurement is particularly crucial because "there are serious risks in making recommendations based on a single criterion which fails to consider the whole educational outcome of an educational process" (Isaac & Michael, 1981, p. 92). In this way the question of 'adequacy of interpretation' mentioned by Kerlinger (1973) and the problem of over reliance on a single method (Patton, 1990), are overcome by the triangulation technique. Triangulation has an important advantage since it allows corroboration, elaboration, and illumination of the issue in question (Rossman & Wilson, 1985).

In educational settings different instruments are needed so that each can supplement the other in order to generate more sufficient and meaningful data. This strategy is supported by Lin (1976) who states that "to obtain precise and generalisable data, the multi-method approach to data collection is most desirable" (p. 203), because "the more the multi methods differ, the more confidence a researcher has in the found relationship" (p. 203). By utilising different procedures, greater depth is given to the data and this will increase researcher understanding (Croll, 1986). It can also "greatly strengthen the study's usefulness for other settings" (Marshall & Rossman, 1989, p. 146).

In the present study, "between-method or across-method triangulation" (Denzin, 1989, p. 243) was used. The rationale for this strategy according to Denzin (1989) is that

“the flaws of one method are often the strengths of another” (p. 244). Therefore by combining methods, researchers can achieve the best of each while overcoming their unique deficiencies. Three techniques were used to obtain information. The interview technique was used to elicit information from the HoDs, the English teachers, and those who are related closely and actively to the schools systems; moderator, careers officers and employers. The observation technique was also employed to observe teaching and learning in the classroom and also the evaluation process during moderating meetings. The questionnaire technique was used to elicit information from students.

#### **6. 4. 2 The Methodology of Using Questionnaires**

Cohen and Manion (1994) write that an ideal questionnaire has the same properties as a good law. They quote Davidson thus:

It is clear, unambiguous and uniformly workable. Its design must minimize potential errors from respondents ... and coders. And since people’s participation in surveys is voluntary, a questionnaire has to help in engaging their interest, encouraging their co-operation, and eliciting answers as close as possible to the truth.

(Davison, as cited in Cohen & Manion, 1994, pp. 92-93)

Designing a questionnaire is not as easy as it looks but, according to Evans (1984) “the only qualifications needed for success are the ability to think clearly and to ask plain questions in simple unambiguous terms” (p. 49). Moser and Kalton (1971) make further suggestions:

In choosing the language for a questionnaire the population being studied should be kept in mind. The aim in question wording is to communicate with respondents as nearly as possible in their own language. A survey of the members of a particular profession, for instance, can usefully employ the profession's common technical terms; not only are such terms part of the informant's common language, but they also normally have a single precise meaning, unlike everyday terms, which particularly to professionals are often vague and ambiguous.

(Moser & Kalton 1971, pp. 319-20)

In the present study, the language and the question wording for the student questionnaire had to match the students' language competence and their knowledge. This consideration was essential because the students were in mixed ability groups.

Through questionnaires, a greater number of respondents can be reached than by means of interview (Tuckman, 1978). Tuckman also highlighted the fact that the rate of return for questionnaires is generally poor. Considering the HoDs and the English teachers were busy covering the English syllabus, because the Year 11 students were taking their GCSE, the researcher decided to hand in the questionnaire personally to the HoDs and to collect the completed questionnaires from the office or the HoDs, in order to minimise the problem of non-response.

#### **6. 4. 3 Interview**

A research interview has been defined by Cannell and Kahn (1968) as "a two-person conversation initiated by the interviewer for the specific purpose of obtaining research-relevant information, and focused by him on content specified by research



objectives of systematic description, prediction, or explanation” (cited in Cohen & Manion, 1994, p. 271).

On the other hand, Denzin (1989) suggested that an interview should be approached as a conversation between two or more persons “with a purpose” (Kahn & Cannell, 1957, p. 149). The main focus derives from the questions that make up the interview schedule. Denzin also proposed that the conversation “should not end until the interviewer has received satisfactory answers to the research questions. This suggests that many times the interviewer will have to return to a specific respondent” (p. 109). This is the ideal way to conduct interviews. But often constraints, such as work schedule, money (e.g. travel costs) and maturation (changes in perspective following reflection on the interviews) have caused this situation to be impossible. Researchers should therefore take this into consideration. Again it must be remembered that “that the interview conversation is primarily a gift of time and information; and it is given by the respondent, not the interviewer” (Denzin, 1989, p. 109).

According to Cohen & Manion (1994), there are four kinds of interviews: structured, unstructured, non-directive and focused. Fontana and Frey (1994) give slightly different terms: structured, unstructured, semistructured and open. Fontana and Frey’s ‘semistructured interview’ is equivalent to Cohen and Manion’s ‘unstructured interview’. In this study, the researcher refers to the technique employed as ‘semi-structured interview’. This technique contrasts with both the fully structured and unstructured approaches. The former have much in common with questionnaires, particularly in the manner in which they influence interviewee’s responses. In a structured interview, preestablished questions are treated as “a theatrical script to be followed in a standardized and straightforward manner” (Fontana & Frey, 1994, p. 363). As a result, each respondent receives the same set of questions in the same order.

Johnson (1994) explains that the semi-structured interview has a similar aim to a structured interview, that is, to get information from a number of people. The only difference is that it places less emphasis on a standardised approach. The style is more flexible, “adapted to the personality and circumstances of the person being interviewed” (Johnson, 1994, p. 45).

The non-directive or unstructured interview gives more freedom for the interviewee to express his or her feeling fully and spontaneously, thus minimising the role of the interviewer.

Whatever the type of the interview, there is always the danger of bias. Selltitz, Jahoda and Deutsch (1951, p. 583) pointed out that “interviewers are human beings and not machines”, and their manner may have an effect on the respondents. “Where a team of interviewers is employed, serious bias may show up in data analysis, but if one researcher conducts a set of interviews, the bias may be consistent and therefore go unnoticed” (Bell, 1987, p.73). Many factors can influence responses, one way or another. Borg (1981), Borg and Gall (1989), Bradburn (1983) and Weiss (1988) draw attention to a few of the problems that may occur, including the response effect: the difference between the respondent’s answer and the ‘true’ answer to the interviewer’s question. Some of the common reasons for respondent bias are; a wish to please or to annoy the interviewer; suspicion of the research project, lack of motivation, lack of knowledge and desire to impress.

Even though this study was not a threat to the teachers and others involved, the question of bias and lack of motivation to take part in the study were discussed with the supervisor and steps were taken to reduce the incidence of these. The schools were contacted by phone, a letter of explanation was prepared and an English lecturer at the Department of Education, University of Hull, who has close contact with schools, was

approached for advice. Because the teachers involved with the interviews were professionals with long-standing experience, a minimum of such problems was expected.

Note was also taken of the potential problems resulting from the interviewer effects. According to Weiss (1988) such problems include: lack of rapport with interviewee; lack of sympathy with purpose or methodology of the research; interference from own or other previous opinions, and interference via expectations of respondents (e.g. in terms of age, ability, ethnic grouping).

Gavron wrote, "It is difficult to see how this [i.e. bias] can be avoided completely, but awareness of the problem plus constant self-control can help" (Gavron, 1966, p. 159, cited in Bell, 1987, p.73). Therefore, interviewers must be aware of respondent differences and must be flexible enough to make proper adjustments for unanticipated developments (Converse & Schuman, 1974). After all "there is no single interview style that fits every occasion or all respondents" (Converse & Schuman, 1974, p. 53).

#### **6. 4. 4 Observation**

Interviews, as Nisbet and Watt (1980) point out, provide important data, but they reveal only how people perceive what happens, not what actually happens. Direct observation may be more reliable than what people say, in many instances.

There are two principal types of observation - participant observation and non-participant observation. In the former, observers engage in the very activities they set out to observe. Often their 'cover' is so complete that as far as the other participants are concerned, they are simply one of the group.

Non-participant observers, on the other hand, stand aloof from the group activities they are investigating. "The best illustration of the non-participant observer role is perhaps the case of the researcher sitting at the back of a classroom coding up every three

seconds the verbal exchanges between teacher and pupils by means of a structured set of observational categories” (Nisbet & Watt, p.109).

In this study, neither of the above techniques was employed. Instead, unstructured non-participant observation was carried out to observe classroom and moderating meetings.

The moderating meetings were important because whatever requirements were agreed in the evaluation process would guide the practice in the classroom. Therefore, observation of this process was carried out to support findings based on the interviews and questionnaire.

#### **6. 4. 5 The Instruments for Collecting Data**

The main instruments for collecting data for this study were:

- i. the student questionnaire;
- ii. interviews with English teachers, the Heads of the English Department, the moderator, careers officers and employers’ representatives, regarding the importance of speaking and listening; and
- iii. researcher observation of classes and moderating meetings.

#### **Construction of student questionnaire**

During the formulation of the study, a search was carried out for instruments to be used in this study. One of the instruments found was the Communication Competency Assessment Instrument - High School (CCAI-HS) which was developed by Rubin (1994). This CCAI-HS (Figure 6-1) was based on the guidelines for minimal speaking and listening competencies for high school graduates (Bassett et al., 1978; see Chapter 2 in this study).

**Figure 6-1. The CCAI-HS contains 15 skill assessments in Communication Codes (CC), Oral Message Evaluation (OM), Basic Speech Communication Skills (BS) and Human Relations (HM), adapted from Rubin (1994)**

<b>Skills</b>	<b>Statement of skills</b>
CC1	Use pronunciation that is understood by others
CC2	Use appropriate tone of voice when conversing with your instructor or fellow students
CC3	Use appropriate clarity when speaking with others
OM4	Distinguish between informative and persuasive messages in a class report
BS5	Present the thesis and main points of a class report clearly and concisely
BS6	Express and defend your view in a classroom report
OM7	Recognise when others do not understand your explanation of a concept reported in class
HM8	Introduce yourself appropriately and concisely at the beginning of the term in class
BS9	Obtain information about a career
BS10	Answers completely and appropriately an instructor's question about your classroom performance
HM11	Express satisfaction or dissatisfaction to an instructor about a course you have taken
BS12	Use a chronological order to explain your activities throughout the day
BS13	Give accurate and concise direction to others
HM14	Describe the viewpoint of a fellow student who disagrees with your evaluation of a class that you have both taken
HM15	Describe differences in opinion about the steps necessary to accomplish your academic or vocational goals

Another questionnaire for the same purpose was developed by Corder (1990). In his study on 'A Survey of Presentation Skills Training In Fortune 500 Industrial Companies, Corder was interested in presentation skills training, that is, any organised attempt to improve presentational speaking ability, with or without presentation aids. For example, presentational speaking ability training that was provided in-house, through vendor companies, or by other means were all considered presentation skills training. Even though his target samples were company employees - executives, middle managers, supervisors, human resource staff, sales staff, secretarial staff, technical staff and hourly wage workers - the subject areas were thought by the researcher to be appropriate as a guideline to develop the students' questionnaire because they were related to the work

place. Corder identified the essential subject areas and the types of training aids that are listed during presentation skills which can be seen in Figure 6-2.

**Figure 6-2. Subject Areas and Type of Training Aids Identified by Corder (1990)**

SUBJECT AREAS	TRAINING AIDS
audience analysis	lectures
gaining audience attention	structured discussions
establishing common ground	case study
thesis statements	material developed in-house
preview of main points	group participation exercise
organization technique	college textbooks
establishing credibility	video tapes
handling speaking fear	audio tapes
handling questions	role play
evidence/ supporting material	
use of visual aids	
physical delivery	
vocal delivery	
handling objections	
theories of communication	
theories of rhetoric (persuasion).	

In addition to the work of Rubin and Corder, other works were reviewed in order to obtain a broad idea of the items to be used in the student questionnaire. One of the examples was the Bullock Report (1975), which looked at the classroom situation. The activities recommended by Bullock can be seen in Figure 6-3.

**Figure 6-3. Bullocks' (1975) Recommended Activities in the Classroom**

debates
lecturettes
mock interviews
class discussion (teacher chosen topic)
class discussion (pupil chosen topic)
group discussion (teacher chosen topic)
group discussion (pupil chosen topic)
improvised drama
drama from printed text
listening to broadcast /record /tape

Another example of work was by Hunt (1981) which represents the public speaking section. Hunt in his Public Speaking covered topics of importance for those who want to improve their public speaking. The topics are presented in Figure 6-4.

**Figure 6-4. Topics in Public Speaking, Hunt (1981)**

listening analysing the audience choosing and researching a topic outlining and organising the topic thinking critically and logically building introduction and conclusions using visual aids building speaker credibility using language and style delivering the speech informing an audience persuading an audience speaking on special occasions speaking and careers
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Self-evaluation checklist based on student-set standards has often been recommended (Kopp, 1967). The example of the checklist is given in Figure 6. 5.

**Figure 6-5. Students Self-evaluation Checklist, Kopp (1967)**

Do others listen when you tell a personal experience? Can people follow the directions you give? Can you take part in discussion without becoming angry or making others angry? Are you tolerant and respectful of others' viewpoints? Can you ask for information so that it is willingly given? Are you accurate and thorough in reporting what you hear or read so that you give true understanding to others? Do you like to listen when others talk?
---

From the instruments by Rubin (1994) and Corder (1990), suggestions by Bullock (1975), the work of Hunt (1981), self-evaluation checklist by Kopp (1967), and also the information from the review of the literature (see Chapter 4), basic questions were drafted in order to elicit information from the students (Figures 6-6, 6-7, 6-8, 6-9, 6-10, 6-11, 6-12, and 6-13).

**Figure 6-6. Students's Perception of English Lesson in the Classroom**

1. Are you more familiar with the term 'oracy' or 'listening and speaking'?
2. Do you learn listening and speaking skills in your English class?
3. How about reading and writing?
4. Out of the 4 skills, which one do you learn most frequently in your English class?
5. Apart from your English class, in which other classes do you learn listening and speaking?
6. What type of activities are used during your listening and speaking classes?
7. Which activities do you enjoy the most?
8. Which activities do you find most useful?
9. Have you attended any course on listening and speaking?
10. Have you attended any course on reading and writing?
11. Are you satisfied with your listening and speaking level?

Figure 6-6 shows the type of questions asked about the teaching of English in the classroom. The purpose of these questions was to fulfil objective (i) regarding how speaking and listening are being taught in school and objective (iv) on whether any differences exist between the perceptions of teachers and students regarding the teaching and learning of speaking and listening. From the review of literature in Chapter 4, the term 'oracy' was found to be used frequently at the national level (Howe & Johnson, 1992; Maclure, 1988; Norman, 1992; the National Oracy Project, see section 4. 7) and also at the international level (Crocker,1980; Lieb-Brilhart, 1980). The purpose of the first question was to find out with which of the two terms, oracy, or speaking and listening, were the students more familiar and comfortable.

Table 6-7 was based mainly on Corder (1990). Some of the content areas also appeared in Hunt (1981). The purpose of this multi part question was to find out students' knowledge about speaking and listening skills and whether they were aware of the content areas that they might be studying.



**Figure 6-7. Students' Knowledge in Speaking and Listening**

12. Can you identify the content areas in the subject of oracy that you have learned:
  - a. audience analysis
  - b. gaining audience attention
  - c. establishing common ground
  - d. thesis statement
  - e. preview of main points
  - f. organization technique
  - g. establishing credibility
  - h. handling speaking fears
  - i. handling questions
  - j. evidence/supporting material
  - k. use of visual aids
  - l. physical delivery
  - m. vocal delivery
  - n. handling objections
  - o. theories of speech communication
  - p. theory of rhetoric (persuasion)
  - q. eye contact
  - r. body language

**Figure 6-8. Student's Perceptions of Learning Speaking and Listening**

15. Is it necessary for the pupils to learn the content area on the subject of listening and speaking?
16. Some people have a flair for listening and speaking without training - so listening and speaking need not be taught. Do you agree with this statement?

From the questions in Figure 6-7 and Figure 6-8, it was hoped to fulfil objectives (i) and (iii). This was possible by examining students' perception of the importance of learning to speak and listening.

**Figure 6-9. Students' Perceptions of Speaking and Listening Outside the Classroom.**

17. Are there any co-curricular activities in your school directly involved in fostering oracy?  
Please state: \_\_\_\_\_
18. Do you take part in any programme to improve communication skills arranged by the careers office?
19. Have you had any advice from the careers office?
20. Is listening and speaking taken into account during the advice?

Reflecting on the work of Rubin and Bullock related to classroom teaching, and the work of Corder which focused on the work place, the researcher thought it was appropriate to ask questions that would reveal any connection between schools and the work place. Co-curricular activities in schools may link students with the work place. Another important link was the Careers Officers. From the questions in Figure 6-9, it was hoped that the answers would show other school activities that encourage speaking and listening, in addition to what is going on in the classroom. By including questions on curricular activities, for example 'debating club', the students' attention was drawn to perceiving their involvement in these skills outside the class and relating them to future use. Discussing speaking and listening skills with careers officers would also show the relationship of these skills to future use in the work place, thus providing answers to objective (v) and also objective (vii) on whether the students perceive speaking and listening as important in working life.

**Figure 6-10. Students' Perceptions of Speaking and Listening Skills Generally**

21. Do you think girls acquire listening and speaking skills better than the boys at your school?
22. Do you agree with the following statements:
  - a. Oral language is general in nature, so there is little use in teaching it.
  - b. Speech and thinking are highly related.
  - c. Language affects personality and personality affects language.
  - d. Home environment will influence the development of oracy.
  - e. School environment will influence the development of oracy.
  - f. The right time to teach oracy is when the child is 5 years and below.

The answers to the questions in Figure 6-10, it was hoped, would reflect the students' perceptions of learning speaking and listening skills, and thus help in providing answers to objectives (i), (ii) and (iii).

**Figure 6-11. Students' Perception of Future the Use of Speaking and Listening at Work Place**

23. Do you think oracy is important for students seeking jobs?
24. Are you involved in work training at the work place?
25. What are your problems pertaining to listening and speaking while at training?

The questions in Figure 6-11 were included to allow the researcher to examine students' perception on the importance of learning speaking and listening in school and to relate to the work place. This was thought appropriate because, as mentioned earlier, these students were about to leave school and the majority of them would be entering the job market.

**Figure 6-12. Students' Perceptions of Their Speaking Skills**

**SELF EVALUATION: Speaking skills**

26. How do you sound?
  - a. Is your voice pleasant to hear?
  - b. Can others understand the words you say?
  - c. Is your voice too loud/ too soft?
27. Is your speech interesting to others?
  - a. Do you use a variety of expressions and words?
  - b. Do you explain things so others understand your ideas?
  - c. Do you use language correctly for each speaking situation?
  - d. Do you remember to take your turn to speak?
  - e. Do you talk too much?
28. Do others listen when you tell a personal experience?
29. Can people follow the directions you give?
30. Can you take part in discussion without becoming angry or making others angry?
31. Are you tolerant and respectful of others' viewpoints?
32. Can you ask for information so that it is willingly given?
33. Are you accurate and thorough in reporting what you hear or read, so that you give true understanding to others?
34. Do you like to listen when others talk?
35. Do you think that the school have done enough to foster the learning of listening and speaking skills?

It was also hoped that the questions in Figure 6-12 and Figure 6-13 would allow the researcher to examine how students felt about their own level of speaking and listening skills, how they rated their ability to speak and to listen and how, if at all, they practised these skills, thus providing the answers to objectives (i), (ii) and (iii).

**Figure 6-13. Students' Perceptions of Their Listening Skills**

<b>SELF EVALUATION: LISTENING SKILLS</b>		<b>YES</b>	<b>NO</b>
36. Did you remember to get ready for listening?		_____	_____
a. Were you seated comfortably where you could see and hear		_____	_____
b. Were your eyes focused on the speaker?		_____	_____
37. Were your mind ready to concentrate on what the speaker had to say?		_____	_____
a. Were you able to push other thoughts out of your mind for the time being?		_____	_____
b. Were you ready to think about the topic and call to mind the things you already knew about it?		_____	_____
c. Were you ready to learn more about the topic?		_____	_____
38. Were you ready for "take-off"?		_____	_____
a. Did you discover in the first few minutes where the speaker was taking you?		_____	_____
b. Did you discover the central idea so that you could follow it through the speech?		_____	_____
39. Were you able to pick out the ideas which supported the main idea?		_____	_____
a. Did you take advantage of the speaker's clues (such as first, next, etc.) to help organise the ideas in your mind?		_____	_____
b. Did you use your extra "think" time to summarise and take notes - either mentally or on paper?		_____	_____
40. After the speaker finished and the facts were all in, did you evaluate what had been said?		_____	_____
a. Did this knowledge seem to fit with the knowledge you already had?		_____	_____
b. Did you weigh each idea to see if you agreed with the speaker?		_____	_____
41. Are you satisfied with your listening skills?		_____	_____

### Initial revision of the student questionnaire

Altogether, there were forty one basic questions. Each question was examined with the help of the supervisor. After lengthy discussion, the following revisions were made:

Questions 9 and 10 on attending courses in speaking, listening, reading and writing were found to be inappropriate because such courses are normally available only for school leavers, during training in the work place or in higher education. The courses are not provided for students in Year 11 because speaking, listening, reading and writing have been incorporated in the curriculum.

The purpose of question 12 was to ask students to identify the content area related to the subject of oracy. This sort of question was more suitable for teachers or college students. As an alternative, one question was included in order to know whether the students were aware of the content area. The questions was:

Which of the following items reflect the meaning of 'body language': tick all that belongs)

	Yes	No
The look on your face	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The way you use your hands	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Tapping your feet	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sitting facing the speaker	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Looking alert	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Question 15 was deleted because the students were not the right sample to be asked about the necessity to learn the content area of speaking and listening. Probably the question would have been more appropriately addressed to teachers, examiners, and careers officers.

The answer to Question 16 also was beyond the knowledge of the students. This concerns a flair for speaking and listening. Their answers would not be valid because they might resort to guessing.

Question 17 was also not suitable for the students because the right persons to give the information were the teachers involved with co-curricular activities .

Questions 18, 19 and 20 were amended as follows:

Have you had a private talk with

(No. of times) –	0	2	3	4	5	more
The careers officer	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The careers teacher	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Was there any discussions about speaking and listening skills with

	Yes	No
The careers officer	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The careers teacher	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Question 21 was deleted because the purpose of this study was not to compare boys and girls and also it is beyond their knowledge to know the influence of gender on speaking and listening or on language competence as a whole.

Statements 22 a, b, c, d, e, and f were considered not suitable for the students because the statements were too theoretical and probably suitable only for language teachers and communication specialists.

Questions 24 and 25 on work training were expanded because the pupils would have had work experience during their Year 10 and they would know the skills that were used during their work experience. The questions, after being reformulated, were as follows:

When you were on work experience, do you have to speak and listen?

Were you satisfied with your speaking and listening skills while you were on work experience?

Of the 4 skills, which ones were most used during your work experience?

After your work experience, do you feel that you need a special class to improve your speaking and listening skills?

For question 26, an amendment was made to give context to the students according to their daily life and experience. Three questions were considered:

Have you listened to your voice on tape or video?

Do you think your voice is the same as when others hear you ?

How do you sound? - (on tape/daily)

Question 27a was deleted because it was very similar to question 27c.

The word 'angry' in Question 28 was changed, because it has negative connotations. The new version of this question was:

Can you take part in discussion calmly and not making others get too excited?

Question 32 was thought to be open to a number of interpretations, so this question was modified to:

You can easily get what you want to know from others?

Another question was added to see the students' feeling about their level of speaking and listening skills. The question was:

Do you think that you will do well in a job that requires a great deal of speaking and listening, for example answering the telephone or dealing with customers?

Question 34. Are you satisfied with your speaking skills? This question was to discover students' self perception of their speaking and listening skills.

The section on listening skills covering questions 36 - 41 in the initial format was deleted because the questions were too difficult for students at Year 11 to tackle. They were related to a public speaker, not to a class situation, and some of the questions were covered directly or indirectly in the speaking skills questions.

The revised instrument is in Appendix 6-1



## **6.5 PILOTING THE STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE**

One of the purposes of the pilot study was to validate the student questionnaire by talking to the HoDs and the English teachers. The purpose of the discussion was to shed some light on the processes of teaching and learning of speaking and listening skills and help the researcher to get a clear picture of what is taking place in the classrooms.

The researcher also wanted to give the teachers, copies of the students' questionnaire to be administered to Year 11 students. The pilot study also would allow the researcher to familiarise herself with the actual situation in the school because even though the researcher had experience of teaching language in secondary schools, in teacher training college and in a university, she had no experience of teaching in a school in England.

### **6.5.1 The Administration of the Pilot Study**

Three schools agreed to be involved in the pilot study. The researcher talked to HoDs and teachers of English in those schools.

Before the pilot study, the researcher went to one of the schools to make an appointment to see the head of the school. The researcher was familiar with this school, the head and also the teachers, because her children were studying in the school. For the other two schools, appointments were made through phone calls to contact the HoDs and it was agreed that he would inform the school head about the researcher's visit. During the pilot study, three heads of English Departments and three senior English teachers were contacted on Monday 12<sup>th</sup> December 1994, Tuesday 13<sup>th</sup> December 1994 and Monday 20<sup>th</sup> January 1995. The discussions were carried out in the offices of the HoDs and a coffee room. These discussions gave further insight into what was going on in the teaching of speaking and listening skills in schools.

The teachers were asked to help to administer the Student Questionnaire. The aim was to ensure that students understood the questions. Only two schools were able to administer the student questionnaire. The other school felt unable to continue because the HoD of English was moving to a new school. The researcher personally gave the Student Questionnaire to the heads of English. An arrangement was made for the researcher to collect the completed Student Questionnaire.

A total of 55 students participated in the pilot study, 27 students from one school and 28 students from the other school.

### **6. 6. 2 Findings from the Pilot Study**

One of the findings was that the term 'oracy' was not familiar to respondents. Based on this finding, the researcher realised that the term 'oracy' was not widely accepted at all levels of the educational hierarchy, even though it has been used for about three decades in England, and was highly popular among supporters at higher institutions and was used in national projects. Based on this finding, Question 1 was deleted because it did not serve any purpose, since the students and the teachers were using the term, 'speaking and listening' in accordance with the National Curriculum.

Based on the discussions, too, it was found that there was no clear specification, in the teaching, of the separate language components. They were not recorded in teachers' record books. The researcher was told that teachers were aware of the need for coverage of the four language skills, and that all the skills would be used in the lesson; reading would involve listening and speaking and the same goes for writing. There was no special division in teaching the profile components. During the study period, one of the schools was focusing on writing letters but during the process, other skills: speaking, listening and reading were utilised. One of the HoDs said that this integrated method was used

throughout the year, in accordance with the requirements of the National Curriculum. What the researcher could see was the teacher concentrating on writing skills. Since activities were co-ordinated, other classes in Year 11 in that school were also doing letter writing.

Another finding was that the methods of teaching, teaching aids and organisation of activities were not directed at specific skills. The reason was the integrated teaching of speaking, listening, reading and writing; whatever the approach taken by the teacher, it should cover all the language skills.

Further, some of the teachers did not explicitly teach the content area of speaking and listening. One of the teachers said that “public speaking is the product but in the classroom situation it is more important to concentrate on the process”. The teaching of ‘public speaking’ was not important because this involved performance more than process. The teachers agreed that at the school level the process should be stressed so that the students were more prepared to enter society, with skills such as how to work in a team, to negotiate etc. In another school, one of the teachers taught certain aspects of speaking and listening, for example, ‘body language’, to her class as early as year 7. She said “one of the ways to create awareness among students is to teach them the content area”. She gave the researcher some materials that she used to teach the content area of speaking and listening.

On the issue of assessment, the evaluation of students’ performance was found to be subjective because it depended totally on the teachers’ impression. Based on the three schools in the pilot study it was found that an English teacher would normally take the same class in successive years in order to know the students well. The teacher would build up a picture of each student’s speaking and listening skills and award marks at the

end of Year 11. In GCSE English, 20 marks are allocated for speaking and listening, out of the total of 100 marks.

The teachers said that students' speaking and listening skills were not homogeneous in each class. There were often large differences between the performances of poor and good students. For example, some students had to be taught not to shout in order to get attention from the teacher. One of the teachers suggested that this was probably a result of having to shout at home in order to get attention from the adults.

The teachers agreed that it was important for the students to acquire a certain standard of speaking and listening before they enter employment.

One of the teachers said it was not necessary for teachers to attend courses on the teaching of speaking and listening skills unless they faced problems. It was thought that teachers who had been teaching for a year or more would have enough experience to conduct classes.

After the discussion with the teachers, examining the responses and discussion with the supervisor, a few more amendments were made to the Student Questionnaire.

#### **6. 6. 4 Amendments to Student Questionnaire after the Pilot Study**

Amendments made to the Student Questionnaire are discussed below. In the pilot instrument the students were asked about home language to know whether the students were homogenous or not. If they spoke other languages at home, that would probably mean they were from different ethnic backgrounds. The population of the area under study was made up of a number of races. But from the pilot study as shown in Table 6-1, it was quite obvious that it was not necessary to ask this question because the students all had an English speaking background. So Question 3 was deleted.

**Table 6-1. Speaking Other Languages at Home**

	Students' response	
	No	%
Yes	4	7.3
No	49	89.1
No response	2	3.6
<b>Total</b>	<b>55</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Question 4 was found to duplicate question 11. Question 4 was to find out about the subjects taken for GCSE and this did not fit into the purpose of the study. The main aim was to find out about learning speaking and listening skills in other subjects. It was decided that only question 11 would be retained.

Questions 8 and 9 were also amended. Group discussion and debate were combined because in the pilot study it was found that these activities were of the same nature. For the same reason the activity 'drama' was combined with 'role-playing'.

The term 'lectures' in question 8 and 9 was not appropriate in a school class environment and was changed to 'listening to another pupil giving a talk' and 'giving a talk to the class', covering both speaking and listening.

In Question 10 on the meaning of 'body language', the cues given in the original questions were all correct answers, so it was thought that two distracters should be introduced: 'speaking clearly' and 'not having an accent'. The correct answer, 'sitting still', replaced 'the look on your face'. This change was thought to be appropriate because 'looking alert', which is another right answer given in the cue, also involves

facial expression. 'Sitting still' also contrasts with active activities such as 'the way you use your hands' and 'tapping your feet' which were given in the cues.

For question 11 another column was introduced for students to use if they were not sure about whether speaking and listening skills were learned in other subjects in the school.

For questions 12 and 13 it was found that the students did not understand that the meaning of 'speak' in question 12 is different from that in question 13. To reinforce the distinction, question 12 was modified to become question 11 and question 12 as follows:

11. In school how often do you speak to

	Very often	Quite often	A few times	Occasionally	Never
your teacher	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
the whole class	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

12. How often have you given a short talk or speech to

	Very often	Quite often	A few times	Occasionally	Never
The whole class	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The whole school	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
A group of visitors or parents	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Outside school	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Question 14 was retained with modification to the columns. 0 - 2 or more was felt necessary instead requesting pupils to indicate more because only 24 (43.6%) of the

students had met the Careers Officer once, 5 (9.1%) of the students met the Careers Officer twice, while only 3 (5.5%) met him three times. Twenty two (40%) of the students had never met the Career Officer and 1 (1.8%) did not respond.

During the pilot study it was found that there were students who had not had any work experience, so a column on 'No work experience yet' was added.

Questions 24 and 25 were deleted because students did not listen to talks on the radio, so the question on whether they stopped work to listen was not valid.

Question 27 was modified from 'Do you think your voice is the same as when others hear you?' to 'When you heard it did you wish your voice sounded better?'. This was on self-evaluation on the quality of one's voice. It is very difficult to compare self-perception of one's voice to others' perception of one's voice. Therefore, only one measure, self-perception, was requested.

Question 40 'You can easily get what you want to know from others' was vague due to the ambiguity of the words 'easily' and 'others'. This question was changed to 'My friends listen to my suggestions'.

Two more items were included for the main study. The items were formulated as:

'You talk more loudly than others' and 'You talk more quietly than others'. This would give the students a basis to compare themselves with other students.

The final form of the Student Questionnaire used can be seen in Appendix 6-2.

## 6.7 THE INTERVIEWS

As mentioned earlier, in order to answer objectives i, ii, iii, iv and vi, interviews were conducted, targeting different groups. The first groups consisted of English Teachers and Heads of English department, the next groups the moderator, the careers officers and the employers.

### 6.7.1 Interview: English Teachers and Heads of English

Figure 6-14 below shows a set of questions prepared by the researcher as a guideline for the interviews. Although the set of questions give the impression of a structured interview, the interview itself was unstructured. After the first general question or general request, the following questions or requests depended on the flow of the respondent's explanation.

#### Figure 6-14. Set of Questions for Teachers as a Guide Line

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##### Section 1: The National Curriculum

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1. Do you follow the National Curriculum? To what extent?
  2. How far do you think that the National Curriculum has provided a guide in teaching?
- 

##### Section II: The Teaching of Speaking and Listening Skills

---

1. a. Do you think your students will learn better when you focus on specific skills?  
b. What are the percentages allotted to speaking, listening, reading and writing?  
c. How frequently do you teach speaking, listening, reading and writing?
2. What type of teaching aids are most suitable for enhancing the learning of speaking and listening?
3. What type of activities do you propose for speaking and listening?
4. Do you think the following components should be taught to students? (Body language, eye contact)
5. Do you think speech courses should be introduced into the school curriculum?
6. What do you think of the level of speaking and listening skills of your students?
7. How well can the students adapt their speech to their listeners and to the activity?
8. Do they show the ability to listen attentively?
9. Can they respond appropriately?

Are there any problems faced during teaching speaking and listening skills?

(money; text books; teaching aids; facilities: language lab, television, video player, camcorder; student-teacher ratio; students background; students' interest and motivation; parents' interest and motivation; school authority; Local Education Authority; you are not trained to teach speaking and listening; the curriculum too demanding; the work load

11. How do you rate the speaking and listening level of primary school students when they entered secondary school?



12. In your school, who is responsible for teaching speaking and listening skills?

---

**Section III: Assessment**

1. How do you assess your students' achievement in speaking and listening skills?
2. Is it entirely up to the teacher's impression to determine the final marks?
3. Can the marks be subjective?
4. Is there any independent body to co-ordinate the marking?
5. Is the focus of evaluation on reading and writing?

---

**Section IV: The National Oracy Project**

1. Is your school involved in the National Oracy Project?
2. How successful is the project?

---

**Section V: Teacher Training in Speaking and Listening**

1. Have you attended any courses recently in teaching speaking and listening skills?

---

**Figure 6-13. Set of Questions for Teachers as a Guide Line (continued)**

2. How about other language skills?
3. Do you think it is necessary for teachers to have training in teaching speaking and listening skills?

---

**Section VI: Analysis of Class Environment**

1. Is the class climate favourable for good listening?
2. Does each student feel comfortable?
3. Does each student feel that his contribution is important?
4. Is the seating arrangement adequate?

---

**Section VII: School Leavers and Employment**

1. Do you think that it is important for school leavers to acquire a certain standard of speaking and listening before they enter into employment?
2. Speaking and listening are important during job interviews?
3. Speaking and listening are important to be successful in careers?

---

**Section VIII: General - comments on the following statements:**

1. Speech and thinking are highly related
  2. Language affects personality and personality affects language
  3. Socio-cultural environment of the home will influence the development of speaking and listening
  4. The right time to teach speaking and listening is when the child is 5 years old and below
  5. Speaking and listening is natural, so need not be taught
  6. Speaking and listening skills can improve reading and writing skills
  7. Theories of language affect teaching and learning
- 

The questions in Figure 6-14 were not asked in order. Sometimes, different questions were posed to different teachers and there were times when the HoDs and the teachers in their explanations covered the answers to the questions without being asked. The interaction with the teachers was not limited to one session only. For example in one school, there was one prearranged interview, but on two other occasions the interaction

was formal but not prearranged and on one occasion it was informal. It was during lunch after a moderating meeting.

### **6. 7. 2 Interview: Moderator, Careers Officers and the Employer's Representatives**

The researcher also interviewed a moderator from an examination board, two Careers Officers, and two representatives from a local factory of British Aerospace to find out about the employers' points of view on the teaching and learning of speaking and listening skills.

## **6. 8 OBSERVATION**

### **6. 8. 1 Classroom Observation**

In this study, the researcher made notes on the observations, keeping in mind the interaction analysis made by Flanders (1970, Appendix 6-3). There was no detailed or structured observation, but Flanders' analysis was very helpful in determining what behaviours should be observed.

### **6. 8. 2 Observation of Moderation**

Observations were made during moderating meetings: one at a school level and another at county level. The county moderating meeting that was observed was conducted by one of the six GCSE examination boards. The moderation was designed to help teachers make consistent judgements about which level best describes a student's performance in speaking and listening skills. The examination boards provided each year a video tape Keystage 4 GCSE English Training Video: EN1 Speaking and Listening to schools which opted for the examination board. Based on the video tape, the teachers

gave marks based on the performance of the students and agreed on the final marks to be awarded.

A meeting was then arranged for HoDs or English teachers to meet at a moderating meeting at county level. A moderator from the examination board conducted the meeting and compare the teachers' marks with the board's marks.

## **6.9 SUMMARY**

The discussion in this chapter has explained the several approaches taken by the researcher in order to gather the data needed to achieve the aims and the objectives of this empirical study. A description of the administration and the findings of the pilot study has also been given. Results from the pilot study were used to refine the Student Questionnaire. The administration of the main study and its results will be discussed in the next chapter.

## **CHAPTER 7**

### **MAIN STUDY AND RESULTS**

#### **7.1 INTRODUCTION**

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the sample and the administration of the main study. This chapter also presents a descriptive analysis of the data obtained from the student questionnaire.

#### **7.2 SAMPLE**

The sample was a non-probability sample because it was not chosen at random. The schools participated in the study on a voluntary basis. Thirty schools were contacted, but only fourteen agreed to participate. During the empirical study, only thirteen schools participated. There are a number of disadvantages of using non-probability samples, arising from their possible nonrepresentativeness. Cohen and Manion (1994) argue that this type of sampling can prove to be perfectly adequate where “researchers do not intend to generalise their findings beyond the sample in question” (p. 88). Whether the schools that participated in this study could be considered representative of secondary schools in the County of Humberside is discussed below.

The schools that agreed to participate in the study were well distributed geographically throughout the County of Humberside (Figure 7-1). After April 1<sup>st</sup> 1996, however, the County of Humberside was abolished (Education Year Book 1996/97, 1996) and replaced by the unitary authorities of East Riding of Yorkshire, North Lincolnshire, North East Lincolnshire and City of Kingston Upon Hull (Figure 7-2). The changes to the boundaries have no direct effect on the school curriculum, because the National Curriculum covers the whole of England and Wales. The only difference is that out of the thirteen schools used in the study, one became placed under the authority of North

Lincolnshire, one under North East Lincolnshire, six under East Riding of Yorkshire and five under the City of Kingston Upon Hull.

Teachers, Heads of English Department (HoDs) and Year 11 students were drawn from the thirteen secondary schools (Figure 7-3). The HoDs and the English teachers were all involved in the teaching of English to Year 11. They had all been teaching English for more than ten years and some of them had been involved in the drawing up of the National Curriculum.

Figure 7-1. The County of Humberside, until April 1996



A. Keston Primary School

B. Ashtedley Junior C of E School

C. Horsey Grammar School

D. Dredfield School

E. Hensley High School

F. Horsey School

G. Keston Hall School

H. Longditch School

I. Miles Lambert School

J. Sir Henry Cooper School

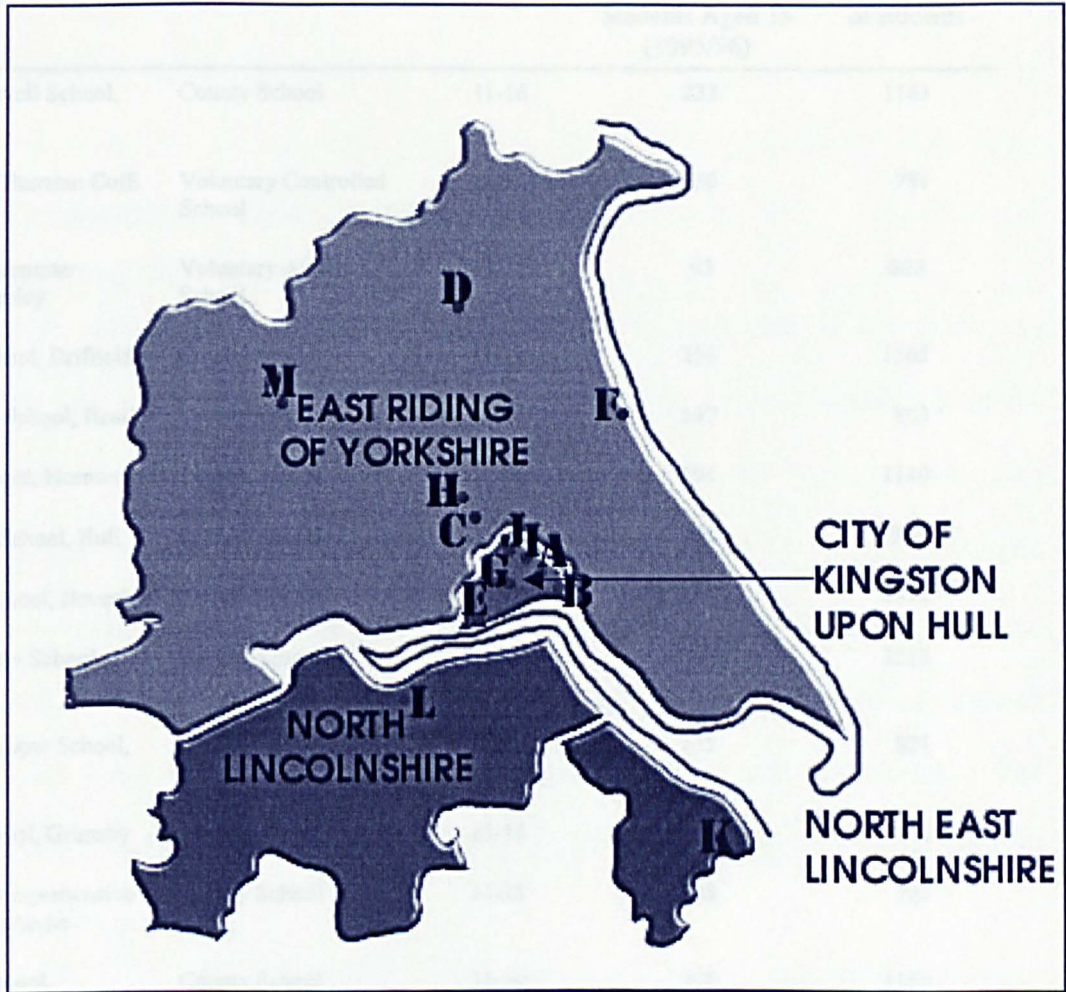
K. Whitgift School

L. Warriston Comprehensive School

M. Weldgate School



**Figure 7-2. The Location of Schools that Participated in the Study in East Riding of Yorkshire, North East Lincolnshire, North Lincolnshire and City of Kingston Upon Hull**



Note.

- |                                  |                                  |
|----------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| A Andrew Marvell School          | H Longcroft School               |
| B Archbishop Thurstan COE School | I Malet Lambert School           |
| C Beverley Grammar School        | J Sir Henry Cooper School        |
| D Driffield School               | K Whitgift School                |
| E Hessle High School             | L Winterton Comprehensive School |
| F Hornsea School                 | M Woldgate School                |
| G Kelvin Hall School             |                                  |

**Figure 7-3. The Sample Schools and Their Descriptions**

Schools	Type	Age Range	Number of Students Aged 15 (1995/96)	Total number of students
Andrew Marvell School, Hull	County School	11-16	232	1163
Archbishop Thurstan CofE School, Hull	Voluntary Controlled School	11-16	136	791
*Beverley Grammar School, Beverley	Voluntary Aided School	11-18	93	680
Driffield School, Driffield	County School	11-18	255	1565
Hessle High School, Hessle	County School	11-16	147	803
Hornsea School, Hornsea	County School	11-18	194	1140
Kelvin Hall School, Hull	County School	11-16	192	944
Longcroft School, Beverley	County School	11-18	238	1313
Malet Lambert School, Hull	County School	11-16	247	1212
Sir Henry Cooper School, Hull	County School	11-16	175	824
Whitgift School, Grimsby	County School	11-16	203	908
Winterton Comprehensive School, Scunthorpe	County School	11-16	165	723
Woldgate School, Pocklington	County School	11-16	208	1152

Note: \*Boys' school; the other schools are co-educational

Figure 7-3 shows the features of the thirteen schools that participated in the study. Of the schools involved, eleven were county schools, one was a voluntary controlled school and one, a voluntary aided school. At the start of the survey, all these schools were under the Humberside Local Education Authority. The age range of the students was 11-16 years, except for four schools where the age range was 11-18 years.

The number of students aged 15 in six of the schools was more than 200; in six other schools it was between 136-194; and only one school had fewer than 100 students. The school sizes ranged from 680 to 1565 students. The schools in the main study were



representative of the schools in the County of Humberside based on the number of students in Year 11 (number of students aged 15 at the beginning of 1995/96 academic year), the age range and the school size.

### **7.3 THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE MAIN STUDY**

#### **7.3.1 Contacting the Sample Schools**

Before schools were contacted with a request to take part in the study, an appointment was made with Dr Nick McGuinn who was the English Method Tutor for Post Graduate Certificate of Education at University of Hull. Dr McGuinn was also involved in the University of Hull School of Education / Schools Partnership. The appointment was made to ensure that the researcher understood the system and the culture of the schools. Moreover contact with Dr McGuinn would overcome preliminary contact problems and other problems relating to respondent and interviewer effects. The researcher was provided with the Secondary PGCE English Method Handbook 1995/96 and some reading materials.

The Secondary School Performance Tables 1994, (DfE, 1994b) had a complete list of secondary schools in the County of Humberside, with addresses and telephone numbers. The Secondary PGCE English Method Handbook 1995/96 had a list of schools involved in Post Graduate Certificate of Education (PCGE) English 1995/96 which provided the names of English mentors in the schools. Based on these lists, the schools were contacted by phone. The schools were not selected on random basis, but on the basis of their willingness to co-operate. Quite a number of schools said they were unable to participate due to a variety of reasons. The main reasons were that the sample required were from the examination groups and this was the time needed for covering syllabuses. Some of the schools were involved in other projects. In most cases the reason given for non-participation was that the school was 'busy'.

### 7.3.2 The Interview

At the participating schools, a rapport was initially established between the interviewer and the interviewee during the first discussion. The researcher explained the aim of the research, and her wish to interview the HoDs, to observe one or more classes, to get hold of the materials and to administer the Student Questionnaire. The HoDs then fixed the date and time for the interview to take place. The interviews were semistructured because of the explorative nature of the research, as explained in Chapter 6.

Since the HoDs had been teaching for at least 10 years, some even more than 20 years, their responses went beyond answering the questions to include facts recalled from their rich previous experiences. Most of the HoDs gave 30-45 minutes of their time to the interview. Generally, the interviews were carried out either at the HoDs' offices or at the English departments. Each interview was arranged when the interviewee was not teaching, that is, during their free periods or during the lunch break. In all interviews, the atmosphere was relaxed and informal.

Even though the use of a tape recorder is often preferred to note-taking, the researcher used the latter. The notes were made after the researcher was clear on a certain issue. The interviews were not like job interviews; they were more of a discussion where the HoDs were given the opportunity to qualify their responses by explanations or elaboration. After the interview, the researcher wrote a longer account based on the notes made during the interview. During the interview sessions, materials such as the policy statement of the English department, the scheme of work, examples of exercises and course work and samples of students' work were collected from the interviewees. Some of the materials collected were discussed during the interviews.

A moderator from an examination board was interviewed after a moderating meeting in one of the schools. This was made possible with the help of one of the HoDs.

Two Career Guidance Officers were also interviewed, one at the office and the other at a school. The careers office was contacted by phone and an interview was arranged. After the initial interview at the office when the officer consulted her superior about the release of a certain document, she was informed that the Careers Officer could not answer questions for the researcher. The researcher was advised to contact the main careers office in Beverley to get permission. After two phone calls, the researcher was advised by the staff at the careers office to write a letter, so that arrangements could be made for an interview. The other Careers Officer was interviewed at a school.

The local company of British Aerospace had close contact with some of the schools and was involved in a project called the Hull Compact Award (Appendix 7-1). One of the officers was interviewed at a school and another at The Duke of Edinburgh's Award Presentation. Because they represented a company which works closely with schools in order to provide opportunity for school leavers to further their education, the officers were able to give information about the criteria the employers use when interviewing a candidate to be offered the Compact Award.

### **7. 3. 3 The Administration of the Students' Questionnaire**

The student questionnaire was given to the HoD after he or she had agreed to help with its administration. A letter was also prepared for the HoD to explain the purpose of the survey and guaranteeing the confidentiality of all replies (Appendix 7-2). The researcher was assured of getting information from the classes which the HoD were teaching. The HoDs said they would also get the help of the other English teachers in their department to administer the student questionnaire.

Each set of 35 questionnaires was placed in an envelope so that it was easier for the HoD to give to the individual teachers to administer to a class. The number of classes to receive the questionnaires depended on the number of classes in Year 11. Generally, each school received between 5 and 8 envelopes.

Arrangements were made for the researcher to collect in person the completed questionnaire, at the school office. This arrangement was thought to be appropriate because the HoDs were busy and also because it might help to ensure a good response to the questionnaire.

### **The Observational Studies**

In order to facilitate the research question, classroom observations were carried out in four schools and in sixteen classes to find out the present situation in the teaching and learning of speaking and listening skills in secondary schools. Two moderating meetings were also observed.

### **Classroom**

The observations were made on classes from Year 7 to Year 12. Only one Year 11 class was observed because most HoDs said students could not to be disturbed due to the imminent GCSE examination. The observations were made of a cross-section of classes in the secondary school. Figure 7-4 gives a list of classes observed.

**Figure 7-4 Class Observations Schedule**

Year	Age	Date	Activities
Year 9	13-14	5.2.1996	Literature: Poetry discussion
Year 8	12-13	5.2.1996	Student work in pairs to discuss proposal for report writing
Year 8-11*	12-16	5.2.1996	Audition for school play 'The Thwarting of Baron'
Year 7	11-12	12.2.1996	Remedial class - memory
Year 8	12-13	12.2.1996	Drama-puppet making
Year 10	14-15	26.2.1996	Group discussion and debate
Year 10	14-15	26.2.1996	Talk to whole class
Year 10	14-15	27.2.1996	Talk to whole class
Year 12	16-17	27.2.1996	Literature: Poetry discussion
Year 10	14-15	29.2.1996	Group discussion and debate
Year 10	14-15	1.3.1996	Talk to whole class
Year 10	14-15	4.3.1996	Debate
Year 10	14-15	5.3.1996	Talk to whole class
Year 10	14-15	20.3.1997	Literature: Text discussions
Year 10	14-15	20.3.1997	Literature: Reading and discussions
Year 10	14-15	1.5.1996	Literature: Poem
Year 11	15-16	1.5.1996	Group discussion and debate

Note: \* Audition for school play

Figure 7-4 shows that fourteen classes and one audition for a school play were observed. Most of the observations were made in the months of February and March. The observation was not limited to the 'pure' English classes only; there were also drama, literature and remedial classes.

### **Moderating Meeting**

The moderating meeting at school level was attended by the teachers of the English department. One of the English teachers conducted the session. The teacher in-charge played the video given by the examination board. On the video there were three candidates' performances to be evaluated. The teachers gave their marks for individual candidates and later discussed the marks that they agreed upon. During the meeting, the

researcher observed the teachers, the video and how the meeting was conducted. She obtained useful information about the criteria used to evaluate the candidate. After the meeting the HoD and the teacher in-charge had a discussion with the researcher about the moderating procedure.

Teachers from other schools which opted for the Northern Examinations and Assessment Board (NEAB) also had their own meeting to grade materials provided by NEAB and to send in their marks to the board before the moderating meeting at county level, which the researcher attended.

The NEAB moderating meeting was at Longcroft School on 30<sup>th</sup> November 1995. The purpose of the meeting was to standardise the marking done at school level by the English teachers. Representatives of eight schools opting for NEAB examinations were present at the meeting:

- |                                |                        |
|--------------------------------|------------------------|
| i Beverley Grammar School      | v Headlands School     |
| ii Beverley Girls' High School | vi Hessle High School  |
| iii Cottingham High School     | vii Howden School      |
| iv David Lister School         | viii St Mary's College |

The materials were divided into:

- i. English 1 - Speaking and Listening (videotape)
- ii. English 2/3 - Reading and Writing and Literature (written materials)

During both moderating meetings, the researcher managed to obtain moderating tapes and guidelines on moderating. The moderating videos were to help the teachers to assess the students and these videos actually set the level of what speaking and listening

skills the students should acquire. The marking by the teachers was based on the criteria set in the videos.

#### **7. 3. 4 The Research Diary for the Main Study**

Appendix 7-3 shows a series of activities in the form of a research diary kept during the empirical part of the study. The empirical study was conducted in September 1995 and ended in May 1996. The diary recorded the dates, the premises (mostly in schools) and the activities carried out by the researcher. The main activities were interviewing, classroom observations and taking and collecting the student questionnaire. The research diary indicates the dates on which the interviews and observations were conducted. It also shows the taking and collecting of students' questionnaires to and from schools. The research diary also shows the school holidays, representing the period during which no empirical activities could be carried out in schools.

#### **7. 4 DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS**

This section presents a descriptive analysis of the data obtained from the student questionnaire. For convenience of reference to the questionnaire, the number(s) of the relevant question(s) in the student questionnaire are given in the table headings. For ease of reference, portions of the questionnaires are also given in Figures 7-5 to 7-8.

Table 7-1 shows the breakdown of the respondents according to school and gender. This table also shows the breakdown of the percentages based on the total number of the sample and the percentages of students who responded based on the numbers in Year 11 in each school.

**Table 7-1. Breakdown of students by school and gender, total percentages of sample and total percentages of the number of students in Year 11**

Schools	Male		Female		Total % of sample		Number of students in Year 11 & total % that responded	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Andrew Marvell School, Hull	34	3.1	42	3.8	76	6.9	232	32.8
Archbishop Thurstan CofE School, Hull	23	2.1	23	2.1	46	4.2	136	33.8
*Beverley Grammar School, Beverley	53	4.8	-	-	53	4.8	93	56.9
Driffield School, Driffield	14	1.3	14	1.3	28	2.5	255	10.9
Hessle High School, Hessle	33	2.9	46	4.2	79	7.1	147	53.7
Hornsea School, Hornsea	72	6.5	56	5.1	128	11.6	194	65.9
Kelvin Hall School, Hull	23	2.1	27	2.4	50	4.5	192	26.0
Longcroft School, Beverley	101	9.1	96	8.7	197	17.8	238	82.8
Malet Lambert School, Hull	51	4.6	45	4.1	96	8.7	96	38.9
Sir Henry Cooper School, Hull	39	3.5	32	2.9	71	6.4	175	40.6
Whitgift School, Grimsby	41	3.7	51	4.6	92	8.3	203	45.3
Winterton Comprehensive School, Scunthorpe	65	5.9	53	4.8	118	10.7	118	71.5
Woldgate School, Pocklington	30	2.7	41	3.7	71	6.4	208	34.1
<b>Total</b>	<b>579</b>	<b>52.4</b>	<b>526</b>	<b>47.6</b>	<b>1105</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>2287</b>	<b>48.32</b>

Note: 1. Total population of Year 11 students was 9,839 (excluding Independent school)  
 2. \* Boys' school; the other schools are co-educational

Table 7-1 shows that in six schools the girls outnumbered the boys, but the differences were small. In four schools, the number of boys was greater than that of girls, though again, the differences were small. In two schools, the number of boys and girls was the same. One school was for boys school only. The total number of boys was 579 (52.4%), while the total number of girls was 526 (47.6%). A number of crosstabulations were carried out based on gender and were found to be insignificant, so no further analysis of gender was made. The objectives (Chapter 6) do not include



gender-based studies and for this reason it was appropriate not to proceed with this line of analysis.

Table 7-1 also provides information on the breakdown of the sample according to school. Longcroft School had the highest number of respondents (N=197, 17.8%) followed by Hornsea School (N=128, 11.6%) and Winterton Comprehensive School (N=118, 10.7%). Seven other schools had from 53 (4.8%) to 96 (8.7%) respondents. Three more schools had between 28 (2.5%) and 50 (4.5%) respondents.

Table 7-1 also shows the breakdown of the students who responded, based on the number of students in Year 11 in each school. Longcroft School had the highest response (N=197, 82.8%) from 238 students in Year 11. This was followed by Winterton Comprehensive School (N=118, 71.5%) from 165 students in Year 11. Hornsea High School also had a very high response (N=128, 65.9%) from 194 students in Year 11. Four schools had between 56.9% to 40.6% while another four schools had between 32.8% to 38.9%. Kelvin Hall school had 26.0% and Driffield school had 10.9% of the students in Year 11. From the total number of Year 11 students in the schools that participated in the study (N=2287), 1105 (48.32%) students responded to the questionnaire. This percentage is sufficiently high to give reasonable confidence that the sample was representative of Year 11 students in these schools.

**Table 7-2. Students' Plans after Leaving School (Q4)**

Plans	Students	
	No	%
Get a job straight away	131	11.9
Go on to college	763	69.0
Go for extra training	102	9.2
Haven't made up my mind yet	109	9.9
<b>Total</b>	<b>1105</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Table 7-2, shows the students' plans after leaving school. The majority of the students intended to further their study. A majority, 736 (69%) of students intended to go to college, whilst only 131 (11.9%) students intended to enter the job market

immediately. This suggests that the students realised the importance of education, and job demands; they wanted further qualifications before entering the job market.

**Figure 7-5 Questions 5 to 8 of the student questionnaire**

<b>5. Please tick (/) the skills that you learned in your English class.</b>					
	<b>Yes</b>	<b>No</b>			
Speaking skills					
Listening skills					
Reading skills					
Writing skills					
<b>6. How often do you learn the skills in your English class?</b>					
	<b>Very often</b>	<b>Quite often</b>	<b>A few times</b>	<b>Occasionally</b>	<b>Never</b>
Speaking					
Listening					
Reading					
Writing					
<b>7. How often do you use these activities in your English Class?</b>					
	<b>Very often</b>	<b>Quite often</b>	<b>A few times</b>	<b>Occasionally</b>	<b>Never</b>
Watching video					
Group discussion & Debates					
Listening to another pupil giving a talk					
Giving a talk to the class					
Listening to tapes					
Mock interviews					
Drama & Role-playing					
<b>8. Do you enjoy the activities?</b>					
	<b>Very often</b>	<b>Quite often</b>	<b>A few times</b>	<b>Occasionally</b>	<b>Never</b>
Watching video					
Group discussion & Debates					
Listening to another pupil giving a talk					
Giving a talk to the class					
Listening to tapes					
Mock interviews					
Drama & Role-playing					

**Table 7-3. Students' Perception of Learning Speaking, Listening, Reading and Writing Skills Learned in English Class (Q5)**

	Speaking		Listening		Reading		Writing	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Yes	962	87.1	997	90.2	1067	96.6	1088	95.5
No	143	12.9	108	9.8	38	3.4	17	1.5
Total	1105	100.0	1105	100.0	1105	100.0	1105	100.0

Table 7-3 shows that the students had a strong perception about learning speaking and listening in their English class. There were 928 (87.1%) students who perceived that they learned speaking skills, compared to 143 (12.9%) students who said they did not; a total of 997 (90.2%) students perceived that they learned listening, compared to 108 (9.8%) who said they did not. This table also shows that the students were slightly more aware of learning the listening skills than of speaking. The students' perception of learning reading and writing, however was higher than that of learning to speak and to listen. There were 1067 (96.6%) students who perceived that they learned reading, compared to 38 (3.4%) students who did not, and 1088 (98.5%) students who perceived that they learned writing, compared to 17 (1.5%) students who did not. The students also appeared conscious of greater emphasis in classes on writing skills compared to reading skills.

**Table 7-4. Students' Perception of the Frequency of Learning Speaking, Listening, Reading and Writing Skills (Q6)**

	Speaking skills		Listening skills		Reading skills		Writing skills	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Very often	143	12.9	404	36.6	465	42.1	797	72.1
Quite often	301	27.2	394	35.7	455	41.2	229	20.7
A few times	329	29.8	165	14.9	126	11.4	52	4.7
Occasionally	270	24.4	103	9.3	52	4.7	18	1.6
Never	62	5.6	39	3.5	7	0.6	9	0.8
Total	1105	100.0	1105	100.0	1105	100.0	1105	100.0

Table 7-4 shows the students' perception of the frequency of learning the speaking, listening, reading and writing skills. The data show that the students felt that they learned writing and reading skills more often than speaking and listening skills. When the data for 'Very Often' and 'Quite Often' are combined, there is clear evidence

of a greater emphasis on listening compared to speaking, and on reading and writing compared to speaking and listening. This finding is consistent with the data of Table 7-3.

**Table 7-5. Frequency of Using and Enjoying Expressive Activities: Group Discussion & Debates, Giving Talk to Class, Mock Interviews and Drama & Role-playing in English Class (Q7 & Q8)**

		Group discussion and debates		Giving talk to class		Mock Interview		Drama and role-playing	
FRQ	ENJ	FRQ No(%)	ENJ No(%)	FRQ No(%)	ENJ No(%)	FRQ No(%)	ENJ No(%)	FRQ No(%)	ENJ No(%)
very often	very much	106( 9.6)	213(19.3)	15(1.4)	44( 4.0)	8(0.7)	45( 4.1)	32( 2.9)	225(20.4)
quite often	quite a lot	288(2 6.1)	337(30.5)	103( 9.3)	103( 9.3)	42(3.8)	94( 8.5)	115(10.4)	<b>278(25.2)</b>
a few times	sometimes	<b>334(30.2)</b>	<b>342(31.0)</b>	260(23.5)	263(23.8)	97(8.8)	215(19.5)	281(25.4)	207(18.7)
occasionally	occasionally	286(25.9)	132(11.9)	<b>462(41.8)</b>	303(27.4)	298(27.0)	238(21.5)	<b>423(38.3)</b>	176(15.9)
never	never	88(8.0)	72( 6.5)	255(23.1)	<b>377(34.1)</b>	<b>632(57.2)</b>	<b>463(41.9)</b>	249(22.5)	207(18.7)
no response	no response	3(0.3)	5(0.5)	10( 0.9)	10( 0.9)	28( 2.5)	41( 3.7)	5( 0.5)	7(0.6)
	not applicable	-	4(0.4)	-	5( 0.5)	-	9( 0.8)	-	5(0.5)

Notes:

N=1105

FRQ = The frequency of using activities

ENJ = The extent of enjoying activities

Table 7-5 shows the students' perception of the frequency with which they were involved in expressive activities of speaking and listening, namely, group discussion and debates, giving talk to class; mock interviews and drama and role-playing, in the English class. The table also shows the extent they perceived themselves as enjoying those activities.

From the table, group discussion and debates, giving a talk to the class, mock interviews, and drama and role-playing were not perceived as being used Very Often or Quite Often, but the number who said they Very Often or Quite Often enjoyed all these activities was greater. Evidently, many students thought they would enjoy such activities if given the opportunity.

With regard to group discussion and debates, more than half of the students perceived they used the activities only a Few Times or Occasionally. For other activities, more than half of the students perceived the frequency of use to fall between Occasionally and Never.

The data for activity Mock Interview shows that 632 (57.2%) students thought they Never Used the activity and they also thought they would not enjoy it Very Much compared to group discussion and debates, drama and role-playing, and giving a talk to the class.

**Table 7-6. Frequency of Using and Enjoying Receptive Activities: Watching Video, Listening to Pupil Talk and Listening to Tapes in English Class (Q7 & Q8)**

		Watching Video		Listening to pupil talk		Listening to tapes	
FRQ	ENJ	FRQ No(%)	ENJ No(%)	FRQ No(%)	ENJ No(%)	FRQ No(%)	ENJ No(%)
very often	very much	14( 1.3)	317(28.7)	27( 2.4)	89( 8.1)	14( 1.3)	65( 5.9)
quite often	quite a lot	149(13.5)	<b>375(33.9)</b>	143(12.9)	253(22.1)	45( 4.1)	132(11.9)
a few times	sometimes	410(37.1)	350(31.7)	332(30.0)	<b>436(39.5)</b>	116(10.5)	270(24.4)
occasionally	occasionally	<b>507(45.9)</b>	45( 4.1)	<b>411(37.2)</b>	187(16.9)	347(31.4)	244(22.1)
never	never	24( 2.2)	16( 1.4)	188(17.0)	127(11.5)	<b>578(52.3)</b>	<b>367(33.2)</b>
no response	no response	1( 0.1)	1( 0.1)	4( 0.5)	7( 0.6)	5( 0.5)	21( 1.9)
	not applicable		1( 0.1)		6( 0.5)		6( 0.5)

Notes:

N=1105

FRQ = The frequency of using activities

ENJ = The extent of enjoying activities

Table 7-6 shows that only a minority of students perceived that they Very Often or Quite Often used receptive activities such as watching video, listening to pupil talk and listening to tapes. Many students, however, thought that they would enjoy such activities, as indicated by the greater number of favourable responses for those activities, especially for watching video (N=317, 28.7% and N=375, 33.9%).

The majority of the students also perceived that they a Few Times or Occasionally use the activity watching video and listening to another pupil giving a talk

to the class. With regard to listening to tapes, the majority of the students said they Never Use it. A high percentage of the students also said they did not or would not enjoy such activity.

**Table 7-7. Students' Responses to the Meaning of 'Body Language' (Q9)**

Items	Yes		No		No response	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Sitting still	471	42.6	625	56.6	9	0.8
The way you use your hand	1043	94.4	56	5.1	6	0.5
Tapping your feet	729	66.0	369	33.4	7	0.6
Eye contact	1025	92.8	74	6.7	6	0.5
Sitting facing the speaker	794	71.9	302	27.3	9	0.8
Looking alert	853	77.2	245	22.2	7	0.6
Speaking clearly	622	56.3	475	43.0	8	0.7
Not having an accent	103	9.3	991	89.7	11	1.0

N=1105

Table 7-7 shows the 8 items put forward to determine whether the students understood the meaning of Body Language. The first 6 items illustrate correct answers while the last two are incorrect. Majority of the students responded correctly to items 'the way you use your hand', 'eye contact', 'sitting facing the speaker' and 'looking alert'. But they were not very sure about the other four items. The results shows that the students did not have a general understanding of the meaning of body language.

**Table 7-8. Students' Perception of Learning Speaking and Listening Skills in Other Classes (Q10)**

Subjects	Yes		No		Not Sure		No response		Not applicable	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Art	93	8.4	686	62.1	280	25.3	7	0.6	39	3.5
Design & Technology	244	22.1	511	46.2	327	29.6	3	0.3	20	1.8
English Literature	859	77.7	74	6.7	169	15.3	3	0.3	-	-
Geography	403	36.5	341	30.9	333	30.1	5	0.5	23	2.1
History	434	39.3	313	28.3	326	29.5	2	0.2	30	2.7
Information System/IT	259	23.4	436	39.5	372	33.7	6	0.5	32	2.9
Mathematics	499	45.2	294	26.6	309	28.0	3	0.3	-	-
Modern Foreign Languages	1003	90.8	34	3.1	67	6.1	1	0.1	-	-
Music	404	36.6	341	30.9	310	28.1	8	0.7	42	3.8
Physical Education	402	36.4	385	34.8	315	28.5	1	0.1	2	0.2
Science	587	53.1	209	18.9	307	27.8	2	0.2	-	-

N=1105

Table 7-8 shows students' perception of learning speaking and listening skills in other, i.e. non-English, classes. Most of the students perceived that they learned speaking and listening in Modern Foreign Languages classes. Other subjects in which students perceived that they obtained skills of speaking and listening are English Literature, Science and Mathematics. The students thought they did not learn speaking and listening skills in Art, Design & Technology, Information Systems/Information Technology and Physical Education. Some of the students were also not sure whether they learned speaking and listening in other subjects, while a small percentage did not respond.

The above findings show that the students perceived themselves to be learning speaking and listening in Modern Foreign Languages classes as much as in English classes. This is rather odd because in Modern Foreign Languages classes the students were taught to acquire a new language. The focus is more on vocabulary building and sentence development. It is possible that the students did not understand the meaning of learning speaking and listening skills. As long as they were speaking and listening, they assumed that they were learning the skills. The finding shows students' self

complacency. Again this can be true in other subjects which require them to listen and to talk. As for the subjects that require them to do individual work such as in Art or interacting with computers, they assumed that they were not learning speaking and listening skills during those lessons.

**Figure 7-6. Questions 11, 12 and 13 of the Student Questionnaire**

<b>11. In school how often do you speak to</b>					
	<b>Very often</b>	<b>Quite often</b>	<b>A few times</b>	<b>Occasionally</b>	<b>Never</b>
Your teacher					
The whole class					
<b>12. How often have you given a short talk or speech to</b>					
The whole class					
The whole school					
A group of visitors or parents					
Outside school					
<b>13. Are you nervous during giving a talk or speech to</b>					
Your teacher					
The whole class					
The whole school					
A group of visitors or parents					
Audience outside school					

**Table 7-9. Students' Perception of the Frequency of Speaking and Giving a Talk or Short Speech (Q11 & Q12)**

	Frequency of speaking to		Frequency of student giving talk to			
	English teacher	Whole class	Whole Class	Whole school	Visitors/ parents	Outside school
	No (%)	No(%)	No(%)	No(%)	No(%)	No(%)
very often	410(37.1)	132(11.9)	21( 1.9)	5( 0.5)	22( 2.0)	140(12.7)
quite often	<b>473(39.5)</b>	209(18.9)	110(10.0)	22( 2.0)	42( 3.8)	69( 6.2)
a few times	176(15.9)	310(28.1)	321(29.0)	44( 4.0)	101( 9.1)	133(12.0)
Occasionally	64( 5.8)	<b>337(30.5)</b>	<b>412(37.3)</b>	125(11.3)	216(19.5)	206(18.6)
Never	16( 1.4)	115(10.4)	237(21.4)	<b>901(81.5)</b>	<b>715(64.7)</b>	<b>550(49.8)</b>
no response	2( 0.2)	2( 0.2)	4( 0.4)	7( 0.6)	8( 0.7)	6( 0.5)
not applicable				1( 0.1)		1( 0.1)

N=1105

Comparing the students' perception of the frequency of speaking to teacher and the whole class, Table 7-9 shows that most students indicated they spoke to their teacher



Very Often and Quite Often. More than two-thirds of the students indicated they had spoken to the whole class only Occasionally or Never.

The table also shows that the students perceived that they gave talks to the whole class A Few Times (N=321, 29.0%) and Occasionally (N=412, 37.3%). The majority of them, however, Never talked to the whole school, to visitors/parents or to an audience outside school. It is interesting to note that the same number of students said they had Very Often given a talk outside school than to the whole class. More students also said that they had Quite Often or A Few Times given a talk outside school, than had given a talk to the whole school or to visitors/parents in the school.

**Table 7-10. Students' Perception of Feeling Nervous while Giving a Talk (Q13)**

	Feeling nervous while giving a talk or short speech to				
	English teacher	Whole class	Whole school	A group of visitors/parents	Audience outside school
	No (%)	No(%)	No(%)	No(%)	No(%)
very nervous	40( 3.6)	217(19.6)	<b>648(58.6)</b>	233(21.1)	<b>293(26.5)</b>
quite nervous	111(10.0)	230(20.8)	116(10.5)	<b>261(23.6)</b>	172(15.6)
nervous	97( 8.8)	203(18.4)	127(11.5)	206(18.6)	151(13.7)
sometimes	369(33.4)	<b>278(25.2)</b>	73( 6.6)	212(19.2)	222(20.1)
not nervous	<b>473(42.8)</b>	148(13.4)	60( 5.4)	120(10.5)	205(18.6)
no response	11( 1.0)	12( 1.1)	37( 3.3)	32( 2.9)	26( 2.4)
not applicable	4( 0.4)	17( 1.5)	44( 4.0)	41( 3.7)	36( 3.3)

Table 7-10 shows how students perceived their level of nervousness while giving a talk or short speech to teachers and the whole class. The majority of the students were Not Nervous or only Sometimes felt nervous. More students claimed to be Very Nervous, Quite Nervous or Nervous when giving a talk to whole class, compared to giving a talk to English teacher.

One main feature of Table 7-10 is that the majority of the students perceived themselves to be, or likely to be Very Nervous when giving a talk or speech to the whole school. The feeling subsides a little, however, when giving a talk or short speech

to visitors or parents, or speaking outside school. Still, more than half of the student's responses fall into the categories of Very Nervous, Quite Nervous and Nervous. This high level of anxiety is probably due to the fact that students generally had very little opportunity to give a talk or short speech to the whole class, to the whole school, to visitors or parents or to an audience outside the school.

**Figure 7-7. Questions 14 and 15 of the Student Questionnaire**

<b>14. Have you had a private talk with</b>			
(No. of times) -	<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>
	The careers officer		
	The careers teacher		
<b>15. Was there any discussion about speaking and listening skills with</b>			
	<b>Yes</b>	<b>No</b>	
	The careers officer		
	The careers teacher		

**Table 7-11. Frequency of Students Talking with Careers Officer or Careers Teacher (Q14)**

	None		Once		Twice or more		No response	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
The careers officer	84	7.6	<b>656</b>	59.4	364	32.9	1	0.1
The careers teachers	302	27.3	<b>412</b>	37.3	386	34.9	5	0.5

N=1105

Table 7-11 shows the majority of the students had only once talked to the Careers Officer or the Careers Teacher. The table also shows that more than a quarter of the students said they had not talked to the Careers Teacher.

**Table 7-12. Discussion About Speaking and Listening with Careers Officer or Careers Teacher (Q15)**

	Yes		No		No response		Not applicable	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
The careers officer	313	28.3	<b>790</b>	71.5	1	0.1	1	0.1
The careers teacher	43	22.0	<b>855</b>	77.4	1	0.1	6	0.5

N=1105

Table 7-12 shows that majority of the students did not discuss speaking and listening with the Careers Officer or Careers Teacher.

**Figure 7- 8 Questions 16 to 23**

<b>16. Do you think that you will do well in a job that requires a great deal of speaking and listening for example answering the telephone or dealing with customers?</b>					
very well	quite well	average	below average	terribly	
<b>17. When you were on work experience do you have to speak and listen?</b>					
very often	quite often	often	occasionally	never	no work experience yet
<b>18. Were you satisfied with your speaking and listening skills while you were on work experience?</b>					
very satisfied	quite satisfied	a little	occasionally	not satisfied	
<b>19. Of the 4 skills which ones were most used during your work experience?</b>					
	very often	quite often	a few times	occasionally	never
Speaking					
Listening					
Reading					
Writing					
<b>20. After your work experience do you feel that you need a special class to improve your speaking and listening skills?</b>					
very keen	quite keen	wouldn't mind	not very keen	not keen at all	
<b>21. Do you think speaking and listening skills are important for students seeking jobs?</b>					
very important	quite important	important	less important	not important	
<b>22. Do you think speaking and listening skills are important at home?</b>					
very important	quite important	important	less important	not important	
<b>23. Do you think speaking and listening skills are important in the class?</b>					
very important	quite important	important	less important	not important	
<b>24. Have you listened to your voice on tape or video?</b>					
Yes	No				
<b>25. When you heard it, did you wish your voice sounded better?</b>					
YesNo	Not sure				

**Table 7-13. Students' Perceptions: On Doing Well on Job that Requires a Great Deal of Speaking and Listening; Frequency of Using Speaking and Listening during Work Experience; Language Skills Most Used during Work Experience (Q16, Q17 & Q19)**

	doing well - job requires speaking & listening		frequency using speaking & listening during work experience		language skills most used during work experience			
	No(%)		No(%)		Speaking	Listening	Reading	Writing
	No(%)		No(%)		No(%)	No(%)	No(%)	No(%)
very well	312(28.2)	very often	<b>570(51.6)</b>		<b>540(48.9)</b>	<b>649(62.8)</b>	177(16.0)	165(14.9)
quite well	<b>463(41.9)</b>	quite often	261(23.6)		358(32.4)	299(27.1)	202(18.3)	157(29.1)
average	271(24.5)	often	139(12.6)		128(11.6)	55( 5.0)	<b>251(22.7)</b>	206(47.8)
below average	41( 3.7)	occasionally	100( 9.0)		44( 4.0)	26( 2.4)	236(21.4)	<b>292(74.2)</b>
terribly	18( 1.6)	never	16( 1.4)		15( 1.4)	12( 1.1)	217(19.6)	264(98.1)
		no work experience yet	18( 1.6)					
		no response	1( 0.1)		2( 0.2)	1( 0.1)	4( 0.4)	3( 0.3)
		not applicable			18( 1.6)	18( 1.6)	18( 1.6)	18( 1.6)

N=1105

Table 7-13 shows students' perceptions on doing well on jobs that require a great deal of speaking and listening. The table shows majority of the students thought they would do Very Well or Quite Well. The data also shows that the students Very Often (N=570, 51.6%) and Quite Often (N=261, 23.6%) used speaking and listening skills during their work experience. They perceived that the language skills most used during work experience were speaking and listening, rather than reading and writing.

Table 7-14 shows students' perception of their feeling of satisfaction with their speaking and listening skills during work experience. The majority of the students were Quite Satisfied or Very Satisfied with their speaking and listening skills.

**Table 7-14. Students' Perception on that Feeling of Satisfaction with Their Speaking and Listening Level during Work Experience (Q18) and on Needing a Special Class to Improve Speaking and Listening after Work Experience (Q 20)**

	satisfaction of speaking and listening skills		needing special class to improve speaking and listening
very satisfied	403(36.5)	very keen	36( 3.3)
quite satisfied	<b>554(50.1)</b>	quite keen	79( 7.1)
a little satisfied	93( 8.4)	didn't mind	323(29.2)
occasionally satisfied	20( 1.8)	not very keen	194(17.6)
not satisfied	15( 1.4)	not very keen at all	<b>447(40.5)</b>
no response	2( 0.2)	no response	8( 0.7)
not applicable	18( 1.6)	not applicable	18( 1.6)

Table 7-14 also shows students' perception about their need for special classes to improve their speaking and listening. A very small number of students were Very Keen or Quite Keen on having such classes. The majority of students were either Not Very Keen At All or Not Very Keen. Possible explanations are that they were satisfied with their ability to speak and to listen, or that they were confused between the importance of attending the class and wanting to use free (leisure) time to attend the class. The idea of attending another class might have been the deciding factor when responding to this item.

**Table 7-15. Students' Perception on the Importance of Speaking and Listening Skills for Students Seeking Jobs, at Home and in Class (Q21, Q22 & Q23)**

	for students seeking job No(%)	at home No(%)	in class No(%)
very important	<b>725(65.6)</b>	312(28.2)	<b>611(55.3)</b>
quite important	260(23.5)	<b>423(38.3)</b>	342(31.0)
important	98( 8.9)	209(18.9)	131(11.9)
less important	15( 1.4)	125(11.3)	13( 1.2)
not important	5( 0.5)	35( 3.2)	8( 0.7)
no response	2( 0.2)	1( 0.1)	

Table 7-15 shows that the majority of the students, more than 85%, perceived that the skills of speaking and listening were either Very Important or Quite Important

for students seeking jobs. A similar finding was found regarding the importance of these skills in class but the percentage was slightly less for the importance of speaking and listening at home which was at around 76.5%. Overall, the students perceived speaking and listening as important for students seeking job, at home or in class.

**Table 7-16. Students' Perception of Listening to Their Voice on Tape or Video and Their Wish for the Voice to Sound Better (Q24 & Q25)**

	students' response	wish voice sound better	do not wish voice sound better	not sure	no response
listened to own voice on tape or video	1021	737	161	118	5
do not listen to own voice on tape or video	84	10	24	34	16

N=1105

Table 7-16 shows that the majority of the students had listened to their voice on tape or video. Only a small number of students had not had any opportunity to listen to their voice. The table shows that a large number of students wished that their voices sounded Better on tape.

For questions 26 to 43, exploratory factor analysis was carried out to determine whether there was any underlying grouping of the questions. Three factors were found, as shown in Table 7-17

**Table 7-17. Factor Analysis for Questions 26-43**

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
26. Your voice is pleasant to hear	0.03390	0.41980	0.33278
27. Your voice is too loud	0.01660	<b>0.80269</b>	0.00084
28. Your voice is too soft	0.04116	0.03779	<b>0.82556</b>
29. You talk more loudly than others	0.11585	<b>0.76739</b>	0.08242
30. You talk more quietly than others	0.08017	0.02937	<b>0.82451</b>
31. In discussion, you wait for your turn to speak	<b>0.44112</b>	0.07042	0.27628
32. You talk too much	0.16192	<b>0.65862</b>	0.11907
33. It is OK to shout in order to get attention	0.20669	<b>0.47872</b>	0.16309
34. A stranger who asks you for directions, can follow the instruction you give	<b>0.67719</b>	0.24927	0.00304
35. After watching a film or a video, you can tell others about it	<b>0.69598</b>	0.22118	0.11471
36. You can take part in discussions calmly without making others too excited	<b>0.60700</b>	0.17722	0.00773
37. In discussions you are willing to listen while others talk	<b>0.72314</b>	0.06505	0.10082
38. It is important to be respectful of others' viewpoint	<b>0.77582</b>	0.00368	0.13117
39. Your friends listen to your suggestions	<b>0.65598</b>	0.14937	0.04421
40. You listen carefully so that you can pass on correctly what you hear	<b>0.75385</b>	0.08091	0.18029
41. You talk less than your friends	0.37612	0.04084	0.42696
42. You are a better listener than your friends	<b>0.47671</b>	0.08246	0.20389
43. Drama lessons help to improve speaking and listening skills	<b>0.45900</b>	0.06835	0.09701

% of variance: Factor 1 = 27.0; Factor 2 = 11.2; Factor 3 = 8.9

Factor analysis indicated the existence of three factors which accounted for 48.1 % of total variance. Factors 1, 2 and 3 accounted for 27 %, 11.2% and 8.9% respectively. From the factor analysis it was found that questions related to communication abilities loaded on Factor 1, which is the most important factor, accounting for over half of the explained variance. Looking at Factor 1, it can be seen that the ten items loading on this factor have moderate to high correlations, in descending order of weight: 'it is important to be respectful of others' viewpoint' (0.77), 'you listen carefully so that you can pass on correctly what you hear' (0.75), 'in discussions you are willing to listen while others talk' (0.72), 'after watching a film or a video, you can tell others about it' (0.69), 'a stranger who asks you for directions, can follow the instruction you give' (0.67), 'you can take part in discussions calmly without

making others too excited' (0.60), 'you are a better listener than your friends' (0.47), 'drama lessons help to improve speaking and listening skills' (0.45), and 'in discussions, you wait for your turn to speak (0.44).

The analysis also shows that 'your voice is too loud', 'you talk more loudly than others', 'you talk too much' and 'it is OK to shout in order to get attention' loaded on the same factor. This second factor is about being too loud. It is interesting to note that the students did not identify being too loud as the opposite of being too soft, because 'your voice is too soft' and 'you talk more quietly than others' were found to be in another group, factor 3. From the analysis it could be interpreted that Factor 1 includes positive variables while Factor 2 and 3 include negative variables.

A descriptive analysis of Questions 26 to 43 is given in Appendix 7-4.

## 7.5 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN VARIABLES

The tables below display results of crosstabulation of pairs of variables. In some tables responses have been grouped to avoid empty cells or low cell frequencies. Full tables are given in Appendix 7-5.

**Table 7-18 The Relationship between Students' Perception of the Frequency of Learning Speaking and Their Perception of the Frequency of Using Activities**

(Crosstabulation of Q6 against Q7) Variables	N	Chi-sq values	DF	Sig
Watching videos	1104	21.11	8	0.00
Group discussion & debate	1102	147.27	16	0.00
Listening to another pupil giving talk	1101	119.16	12	0.00
Giving a talk to the class	1095	112.42	12	0.00
listening to tapes	1100	43.09	12	0.00
mock interview	1077	71.94	12	0.00
drama and role playing	1100	124.26	12	0.00

Table 7-18 shows the chi-square values for the association between student's perception of the frequency of learning speaking in the English class and the frequency of using the activities listed. The association was found to be highly significant in every



case. A similar finding was also found for the relationship between the students' perceptions of the frequency of learning speaking and their perceptions of enjoying the activities, as shown in Table 7-19. This means that their perceptions of learning were significantly related to the activities they used and to their enjoyment of the activities.

**Table 7-19. The Relationship between Students' Perception of the Frequency of Learning Speaking and their Perception of Enjoying Activities (Crosstabulation of Q6 against Q8)**

Variables	N	Chi-sq values	DF	Sig
watching videos	1103	20.88	12	0.05
group discussion & debate	1096	88.30	16	0.00
listening to another pupil giving talk	1092	97.29	16	0.00
giving a talk to the class	1090	91.88	16	0.00
listening to tapes	1078	46.60	16	0.00
mock interview	1055	55.58	16	0.00
drama and role playing	1093	88.07	16	0.00

**Table 7-20. The Relationship between Students' Perception of the Frequency of Learning Listening and their Perception of the Frequency Using Activities (Crosstabulation of Q6 against Q7)**

variables	N	Chi-sq values	DF	Sig
watching videos	1104	29.47	6	0.00
group discussion & debate	1102	94.68	12	0.00
listening to another pupil giving talk	1101	31.68	9	0.00
giving a talk to the class	1095	20.80	9	0.01
listening to tapes	1100	34.16	9	0.00
mock interview	1077	24.73	9	0.00
drama and role playing	1100	31.55	9	0.00

**Table 7-21. The Relationship between Students' Perception of the Frequency of Learning Listening and Their Perception of the Frequency Enjoying Activities (Crosstabulation of Q6 against Q8)**

Variables enjoying:	N	Chi-sq values	DF	Sig
Watching videos	1103	28.38	9	0.00
Group discussion & debates	1096	44.97	12	0.00
listening to another pupil giving talk	1092	65.13	12	0.00
giving a talk to the class	1090	27.88	12	0.00
listening to tapes	1078	35.52	12	0.00
mock interview	1055	30.52	12	0.00
drama and role playing	1093	29.05	12	0.00

Table 7-20 and Table 7-21 show similar findings to Table 7-18 and Table 7-19.

The perception of the frequency of learning listening are related to the perceptions of using and enjoying the activities. These four tables confirm the consistency and have the reliability of the resources on the use and liking of the language activities.

**Table 7-22. The Relationship between Students' Perception of the Frequency of Using an Activity with Their Perception of the Frequency of Enjoying the Activity (Crosstabulation of Q7 against Q8)**

Variables	N	Chi-sq values	DF	Sig
watching videos	1103	32.84	6	0.00
group discussion & debates	1094	154.45	16	0.00
listening to another pupil giving talk	1088	288.32	12	0.00
giving a talk to the class	1084	216.08	12	0.00
listening to tapes	1074	393.87	12	0.00
mock interview	1042	406.19	12	0.00
drama and role playing	1090	349.47	12	0.00

In order to find out whether there is any relationship between enjoying an activity and engaging in the activity, crosstabulations were carried out between responses to Question 7 and Question 8. Table 7.22 shows the relationship to be significant for all the activities.

**Table 7-23. The Relationship between Students' Perception of the Frequency of Speaking to the Teacher and the Perception of Feeling Nervous while Giving a Talk (Crosstabulation of Q11 against Q13)**

Variables	N	Chi-sq values	DF	Sig
nervous giving talk to teacher	1088	83.63	12	0.00
nervous giving talk to whole class	1074	56.43	12	0.00
nervous giving talk to whole school	1022	31.00	12	0.00
nervous giving talk to visitors/parents	1030	32.81	12	0.00
nervous giving talk to audience outside school	1041	20.25	12	0.06

**Table 7-24 The Relationship between Students' Perception of the Frequency of Speaking to the Whole Class and the Perception of Feeling Nervous while Giving Talk (Crosstabulation of Q11 against Q13)**

Variables	N	Chi-sq values	DF	Sig
nervous giving talk to teacher	1088	37.42	16	0.00
nervous giving talk to whole class	1074	115.42	16	0.00
nervous giving talk to whole school	1022	50.96	16	0.00
nervous giving talk to visitors/ parents	1030	47.22	16	0.00
nervous giving talk to audience outside school	1041	61.19	16	0.00

Feeling nervous is a common experience faced by students when giving a talk. Students who frequently spoke to teachers or to the whole class were assumed to be likely less nervous while giving talks. In order to see whether there is any relationship between the students' perceptions of the frequency of speaking to teachers and to the whole class, and their perceptions of feeling nervous while giving a talk, a number of crosstabulations were carried out. Table 7-23 shows that the relationships are significant ( $p < 0.05$ ), except in the case of giving talks to audiences outside school. Table 7-24 also shows there is a significant relationship between the frequency of speaking to the whole class and feeling nervous while giving talks to various audiences. The values (Appendix 7-5) show that **greater** frequency of giving the talks is associated with a **lower** feeling of nervousness.

**Table 7- 25. The Relationship between Students' Perception of the Frequency of Giving Talk to the Whole Class and the Perception of Feeling Nervous while Giving a Talk (Crosstabulation of Q12 against Q13)**

Variables	N	Chi-sq values	DF	Sig
Nervous giving talk to teacher	1088	42.69	12	0.00
Nervous giving talk to whole class	1074	62.72	12	0.00
nervous giving talk to whole school	1022	49.61	12	0.00
nervous giving talk to visitors/parents	1030	28.12	12	0.00
nervous giving talk to audience outside school	1041	21.83	12	0.03

Again, it was assumed that students who had had the opportunities to give a short talk or speech to the whole class would be less nervous about giving talks to various audiences, because of this experience. In order to see whether this was, in fact, the case, crosstabulations were made between students' perceptions of the frequency of giving a talk to the whole class and their perceptions of feeling nervous while giving a talk. Table 7-25 shows the relationship to be significant in each case.

**Table 7-26. The Relationship between Students' Perception of the Frequency of Giving a Talk to Whole School and the Perception of Feeling Nervous while Giving a Talk (Crosstabulation of Q12 against Q13)**

Variables	N	Chi-sq values	DF	Sig
nervous giving talk to teacher	1085	21.18	12	0.04
nervous giving talk to whole class	1070	33.25	12	0.00
nervous giving talk to whole school	1020	101.07	12	0.00
nervous giving talk to visitors/parents	1028	33.31	12	0.00
nervous giving talk audience outside school	1038	22.00	12	0.04

**Table 7- 27. The Relationship between Students' Perception of the Frequency of Giving a Talk to Visitors or Parents and the Perception of Feeling Nervous while Giving a Talk (Crosstabulation of Q12 against Q13)**

Variables	N	Chi-sq values	DF	Sig
nervous giving talk to teacher	1083	16.65	9	0.05
nervous giving talk to whole class	1069	18.45	12	0.10
nervous giving talk to whole school	1018	45.26	12	0.00
nervous giving talk to visitors/parents	1026	101.99	12	0.00
nervous giving talk audience outside school	1038	57.22	12	0.00

Students who had had the experience of giving a talk to the whole school or to a group of visitors/parents were also expected to be confident and less nervous while giving talks to different audiences. To explore this possibility, crosstabulations were made between the students' perceptions of the frequency of giving talks to the whole school and to a group of visitors/parents, and their perceptions of feeling nervous while giving talks. Table 7-26 shows a significant association between giving talks to the whole school and feeling nervous while giving talks to different audiences. Table 7-27 shows a highly significant relationship between nervousness and talking to visitors/parents. This means that students' perceptions of the frequency of giving talks to the whole school or to the visitors/parents are significantly related to their perceptions of feeling nervous while giving talks to their teachers, to the whole class, to the whole school, to visitors/parents and even to audiences outside the school. The values (Appendix 7-5) show that **greater** frequency of giving the talks is associated with a **lower** feeling of nervousness.

**Table 7-28. The Relationship between Students' Perception of the Frequency of Talk to Audiences outside School and the Perception of Feeling Nervous while Giving a Talk (Crosstabulation of Q12 against Q13)**

Variables	N	Chi-sq values	DF	Sig
nervous giving talk to teacher	1085	25.40	16	0.06
nervous giving talk to whole class	1071	34.55	16	0.00
nervous giving talk to whole school	1020	39.47	16	0.00
nervous giving talk to visitors/parents	1028	71.32	16	0.00
nervous giving talk audience outside school	1039	194.03	16	0.00

Table 7-28 shows that there is no relationship between students' perceptions of the frequency of giving talks to audience outside school and feeling nervous while giving talks to teachers. The relationship, however, is significant for nervousness while giving

talks to other audiences. The values (Appendix 7-5) show that **greater** frequency of giving talks to audiences outside school is associated with a **lower** feeling of nervousness.

**Table 7-29. The Relationship between Students' Perceptions on the Frequency of Using Speaking and Listening Skills during Work Experience, and their Perceptions of the Importance of Speaking and Listening Skills for Students Seeking Jobs (Crosstabulation of Q19 against Q21)**

Variables	N	Chi-sq values	DF	Sig
speaking skills used during work experience by the importance of speaking & listening for seeking jobs	1083	60.46	9	0.00
listening skills used during work experience by the importance of speaking & listening for seeking jobs	1084	84.73	9	0.00

Table 7-29 shows the relationship between the students' perception of the frequency of using speaking and listening skills whilst on work experience to be significantly associated with their perception of the importance of speaking and listening for students seeking jobs.

**Table 7-30. The Relationship between Students' Perceptions of the Importance of Speaking and Listening Skills for Students Seeking Jobs, and their Perceptions in the Importance of Speaking and Listening Skills at Home and in the Class (Crosstabulation of Q20 against Q22 and Q23)**

Variables	N	Chi-sq values	DF	sig
importance of speaking & listening for seeking jobs with the importance at home	1103	216.10	9	0.00
importance of speaking & listening for seeking jobs with the importance in the class	1003	395.56	9	0.00

Table 7-30 shows the relationships between students' perception of the importance of speaking and listening skills for students seeking jobs, and their perceptions of the importance of speaking and listening at home and in class. Both relationships were found to be significant. This means that the students' perception of the

importance of speaking and listening skills for seeking jobs is very much related to their perception of the value of these same skills in the home and class environments.

**Table 7-31. The Relationship between Students' Perceptions of the Frequency of Speaking and Talking to Different Audiences and Their Perception of the Importance of Speaking and Listening Skills (Crosstabulation Q11 and Q12 against Q20, Q21 & Q22)**

	N	Chi-sq values	DF	sig
<b>Speaking to teacher</b>				
important for students seeking jobs	1101	87.41	9	0.00
important at home	1102	64.79	9	0.00
important in the class	1003	131.76	9	0.00
<b>speaking to the whole class</b>				
important for students seeking jobs	1101	56.04	12	0.00
important at home	1102	31.39	12	0.00
important in the class	1003	77.46	12	0.00
<b>talk to the class</b>				
important for students seeking jobs	1099	24.56	9	0.00
important at home	1100	26.27	9	0.00
important in the class	1001	51.10	9	0.00
<b>talk to the whole school</b>				
important for students seeking jobs	1095	9.69	9	0.38
important at home	1096	21.21	9	0.01
important in the class	1097	16.46	9	0.06
<b>talk to a group of visitors or parents</b>				
important for students seeking jobs	1094	11.61	9	0.24
important at home	1095	19.96	9	0.02
important in the class	1096	30.71	9	0.00
<b>talk outside school</b>				
important for students seeking jobs	1096	32.40	12	0.00
important at home	1097	30.77	12	0.00
important in the class	1098	32.83	12	0.00

Figure 7-31 shows students' perceptions of the importance of speaking and listening for students seeking jobs, at home and in the class to be significantly associated with their perceptions of their frequency of speaking to their teachers and to the whole class, giving talks to the whole class and outside school. No significant relationship was

found between giving a talk to the whole school and the importance of speaking and listening for students seeking jobs and in the class. Nor was there any significant association between giving talks to visitors or parents and perception of the importance of speaking and listening skills for students seeking jobs. Overall, there are significant relationships between the variables shown in Table 7-33. Students' perceptions of the importance of speaking and listening are very much related to their perception of the frequency of speaking or giving a talk to different audiences, especially the more common everyday audiences of teacher, class and visitors.

## **7.6 SUMMARY AND REFLECTIONS ON THE FINDINGS FROM THE STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE**

In this chapter, an account of the administration of the main study has been given, with a description of the sample, the interviews and the observations. A research diary has been described. The data from the student questionnaire was analysed descriptively, factor analysis was carried out and the relationship between variables were tabulated.

From the descriptive analysis, it is worth noting that the students were not mentally ready to leave school and enter the job market. What they actually wanted to do was to continue their education; either to go to college or to go for extra training. Only a minority of the students thought about getting a job straight away. Their expectation is not in agreement with reality. As mentioned earlier, in the United Kingdom "the majority of pupils leave full-time education for good at age 16 – a phenomenon not found elsewhere in Western Europe" (Husén & Postlethwaite, 1994, p. 6522). That means, the majority of the students may enter the job market without being mentally prepared for it. If they are not planning to enter the job market and they are thinking about furthering their education, one disadvantage is that they are not preparing themselves with the skills



required in order to succeed in the work place. The students will not be prepared to attend work interviews which, for many, is the main stumbling block before getting a chance to work. Furthermore, activities employed in the classroom do not reflect the connection between school and work place; for example activities such as Mock Interviews, 632 (57.2%) of which the students perceived that they 'Never' used this activity in the classroom (Table 7-5).

In this study students perceived that there is teaching of speaking and listening in the English classroom. They also perceived there to be more teaching of writing and reading than speaking and listening. In terms of speaking and listening they perceived there to be more teaching of listening. This is probably due to the fact that teachers speak to the whole class most of the time and the students spend their time listening (Collins, 1981; National Curriculum Council, 1991). As a conclusion the students perceived that they were learning more of listening skills.

Even though the students perceived that they were not frequently involved in expressive activities of speaking and listening such as group discussion and debates; giving talks to class; drama and role-playing in the English class, they said they would enjoy such activities if given the opportunity to participate. This shows that they had interest in such activities. Interest can be connected to motivation (Robenstine, 1997) and if given the chance the students probably will be motivated to improve their speaking and listening skills. In the case of mock interviews, the majority of the students thought they never used the activity and if they were given the opportunity they could not enjoy them. This finding can be interpreted that the students do not like to be interviewed or to answer questions in speaking and listening situations. Probably they feel it to be more threatening to participate in such situations than to be involved in more pleasant and non-

threatening activities such as group discussions and debates, drama and role-playing; they even thought they would enjoy giving a talk to the class more than mock interviews.

For the receptive activities, again the students perceived that they were not often involved in such activities as watching video, listening to student talking or listening to tapes. The students, however, said that they would enjoy such activities if given the opportunity except for listening to tapes. The students perceived listening to tapes in an English class as a boring activity. Probably they were thinking that listening to tapes in an English class would be similar to their experience of listening to tapes in a Foreign Language lesson.

Students perceived that they only learned speaking and listening in Modern Foreign language classes, English Literature, Science and Mathematics but not in Art, Design & Technology, Information Systems/ Information technology and Physical Education. Probably, in classes where there were more discussions and more listening done, the students thought they were learning speaking and listening skills, compared to those classes where they had to work on their own, using the computers, drawing and playing games.

The students perceived they had more opportunity to speak to the teachers than to the whole class. In terms of giving a talk, the students felt that they were not given enough opportunity either to give a talk to the whole class, to the whole school, or to visitors/parents and to an audience outside school. This indication of lack of practice probably explains the mixed patterns of nervousness among the students, not only in class but also when giving a talk to whole school, to visitors or parents or even to audience outside school (Tables 7-9, Table 7-10). The majority of the students perceived themselves as very nervous to give a talk to the whole school. Probably, the thought of speaking to a large audience was more daunting than talking to the smaller groups to

which they are accustomed to, like the class. The finding shows greater frequency of giving talk is associated with a lower feeling of nervousness. Tables 7-23, Table 7-24, Table 7-25, Table 7-26, Table 7-27 and Tables 7-28 shows a significant inverse relationship between students' perception of the frequency of giving a talk and the perception of feeling nervous while giving a talk.

It is true that the secondary school is partly a vocational institution where most students prepare for jobs, or for higher education which serves as passport to their careers, but this occupational role is largely ignored in the school. In this study, the function of the careers officer or careers teacher is found to have no great impact on the students. The majority of the students see the careers officer or careers teacher only once. For some reason the time given to student guidance and preparation is not sufficient. This might be viewed as an indication that the career guidance needed for the students to enter the job market is not given priority in school. This finding is consistent with the problem highlighted by Grubb (1995) who says "most secondary courses are "academic," removed from the real world of employment .... career counselling has all but vanished" (p. 87).

A majority of the students perceived that they would do well on jobs that require a great deal of speaking and listening. In fact, during their work experience, they were satisfied with their speaking and listening skills and more than half of the students are Not Keen or Not Very Keen at all to attend special classes to improve their speaking and listening skills. It is possible to interpret this as an indication that the students are satisfied and confident with their Speaking and Listening. They feel that there is no necessity for them to attend other Speaking and Listening classes. They might be bored with attending classes or they are just complaisant because of lack of knowledge of the standards required. They have no vision of the personal benefits that they could gain by speaking and listening competently; because even if they are going for further education,

they still have to equip themselves with speaking and listening skills. It is disappointing to find that while the students acknowledge that speaking and listening skills are important for seeking jobs, in class and also to a lesser extent, at home, yet, they are not willing to take extra classes in order to improve their skills.

On the other hand, this study has shown that there is a strong relationship between experience of using speaking and listening during work experience and the perceived importance of speaking and listening skills for seeking jobs, at home and in class. A strong relationship between the students' perceptions of the frequency of speaking and talking to different audiences and the importance of speaking and listening skills for students seeking jobs, at home and in class was also found. The students have certain views of the importance of these skills for the future especially for seeking jobs. Probably due to lack of opportunity to practise their speaking and listening skills or lack of exposure, their self-awareness is rather low. This almost certainly explains why they are not motivated to work harder at these skills.

The findings based on crosstabulation of pairs of variables (Table 7-18, Table 7-19, Table 7-20, Tables 7-21) shows significant relationships between student's perception of the frequency of learning speaking and listening with using and enjoying the English language activities. Table 7-22 shows a significant relationship between students' perception of the frequency of engaging in activities with their perception of enjoying the activities. If students perceived that they were learning and using speaking and listening activities, they also perceived themselves as enjoying such activities. This finding suggests that if students engaged in a wider range of activities they will enjoy learning from them.

In the next chapter the qualitative analysis from the interviews and observations will be given. The analysis will provide further understanding of the findings in this chapter.

## **CHAPTER 8**

### **RESULTS: INTERVIEWS AND OBSERVATIONS**

#### **8.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter presents the findings from the qualitative parts of the study; interviews with the Heads of English Departments (HoDs), English teachers, a moderator, Careers Officers and the employers. Findings based on observations of classes and two moderating meetings are also included in this chapter.

#### **8.2 INTERVIEWS**

The findings from the interviews are given in four sections: interviews with the HoDs and the English teachers; the moderator; the Careers Officers and the employers.

##### **8.2.1 The Heads of English Departments and the English Teachers**

In this study fourteen HoDs (12 males and 2 females) and five English teachers (4 females and 1 male) were interviewed. The interviews were semi-structured in format. The researcher had a list of questions as a guide as explained in Chapter 6 (Figure 6-14). The list was divided into eight sections. The first seven sections dealt directly with the teaching of speaking and listening. The questions included in these sections were related to the National Curriculum, the teaching of speaking and listening skills in English class, the assessment process, the students' level of speaking and listening, the National Oracy Project, the training of teachers in speaking and listening and the environment for the teaching of these skills. Section seven was related to the speaking skills needed by school leavers seeking for employment, and some general questions were included in the final section.

The following are the answers gleaned from the interviews with the different participants. For ease of reference the answers below are presented according to the questions that preceded each section (Figures 8-1 to 8-9).

## **The National Curriculum**

### **Figure 8-1. Section I: Questions on the National Curriculum**

- 
1. Do you follow the National Curriculum? To what extent?
  2. How far do you think that the National Curriculum has provided a guide in teaching?
- 

All HoDs and teachers clearly affirmed that they based their teaching on the scheme for English in the National Curriculum (DfE, 1995a). In one of the schools, the HoD showed the Department's Policy which clearly stated that the "overall aim is the effective delivery of the National Curriculum" to prove that the school is wholly committed to the National Curriculum. In another school, the English Department's Policy starts off with the following: "These aims relate directly to our Schemes of Work and the general requirements of the National Curriculum Attainment Targets for English (AT. 1 – Speaking and Listening; AT. 2 – Reading; AT. 3 – Writing) to which all colleagues must now refer for detailed requirements".

Two of the HoDs said the English Curriculum had been the focus for concern and dispute and described the hard time the English teachers had to go through whilst the curriculum was being developed. They said the introduction of the centrally imposed curriculum and its assessment in English was marked by protest among teachers, which culminated in the boycott of tests for 14-year-old students in 1992-1993.

"The Bullock Report was the true starting point for the present English curriculum" said one of the HoDs. Several HoDs showed the researcher the earlier version of the National Curriculum which they referred to as 'bulky' compared to the

revised version of the National Curriculum. All agreed that the paper work had taken up much of their time and energy. Nevertheless, at the time of the interview, they admitted that they were happy with English in the National Curriculum (DfE, 1995a).

From the comments and concerns expressed, the researcher felt that there had been problems faced by English teachers prior to the introduction of the National Curriculum in 1989, which continued up to the time of the introduction of English in the National Curriculum in 1995. This means that there had been over twenty years of disagreement (taking the Bullock Report as a starting point) about the teaching of English. The researcher assumed that with the introduction of English in the National Curriculum, some of the problems resulting from the 'bulk' in the National Curriculum had been overcome. The changes over all these years have affected the English teachers mentally, physically and professionally. They have to cope with the changes themselves; time and energy were needed to adapt the teaching of English in accordance with every new recommendation from the top. The introduction of English in the National Curriculum and the promised period of stability, i.e. a time free of further changes, was very much welcomed by the HoDs and the English teachers.

### **The Teaching of Speaking and Listening Skills**

#### **Figure 8-2. Section II: Questions on the Teaching of Speaking and Listening Skills**

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1. a. Do you think your students will learn better when you focus on specific skills?  
 b. What are the percentages allotted to speaking, listening, reading and writing?  
 C. How frequently do you teach speaking, listening, reading and writing?
2. What type of teaching aids are most suitable for enhancing the learning of speaking and listening?
3. What type of activities do you propose for speaking and listening?
4. Do you think the following components should be taught to students? (Body language, eye contact)
5. Do you think speech courses should be introduced into the school curriculum?
6. What do you think of the level of speaking and listening skills of your students?
7. How well can the students adapt their speech to their listeners and to the activity?
8. Do they show the ability to listen attentively?
9. Can they respond appropriately?



**Figure 8-2 Section II: Questions on The Teaching of Speaking and Listening Skills  
(continued)**

- 
10. Are there any problems faced during teaching speaking and listening skills?  
(money; text books; teaching aids; facilities: language lab, television, video player, camcorder; student-teacher ratio; students background; students' interest and motivation; parents' interest and motivation; school authority; Local Education Authority; you are not trained to teach speaking and listening; the curriculum too demanding; the work load
11. How do you rate the speaking and listening level of primary school students when they entered secondary school?
12. In your school, who is responsible for teaching speaking and listening skills?
- 

The HoDs and the teachers were asked to talk about their aims and methods employed in the teaching of speaking and listening. The main finding from their response about the teaching of speaking and listening was the sense of professionalism and high commitment of the HoDs and the English teachers. The HoDs and the teachers believed strongly in the importance of what they do. In their teaching they were anxious to create situations where students could develop and use the skills of speaking and listening effectively. Because the HoDs and the teachers had to abide by the National Curriculum requirements, they had studied the curriculum closely to determine what they should do about speaking and listening skills. Some had made up summaries and slight adaptations to the Attainment Target 1 and the Programmes of Study. They said that this framework of teaching and learning would help both the teachers and the students. They said that guidance had also been published on planning schemes of work, but that it was 'non-statutory'. The guidance was necessary because the HoDs and the teachers felt that educational philosophy of the National Curriculum was implicit rather than explicit; therefore, it was open to interpretation. The material in the Non-Statutory Guidance was useful to a certain extent, though some of the teachers thought that it offered nothing new and was not very practical.

During the interviews, teachers were asked whether they planned their own scheme of work for Speaking and Listening skills. All the respondents said that the main

planning was done at the departmental level, which was useful in ensuring uniformity. The strategy adopted was to combine structured planning of policy documents and schemes of work with plans for dealing with Speaking and Listening skills for classroom practice. It is up to the HoDs and the teachers to interpret and to define what is meant by speaking and listening development and it is up to them also to devise a detailed scheme of work suitable for their students' level of progress. Based on the department's English Policy, the Scheme of Work, teacher's plan, their summaries of the Attainment Target 1 and Programmes of Study, the Non-Statutory Guidance and work books, the researcher concludes that the HoDs and the teachers had to spend considerable time in planning and translating speaking and listening into classroom practice. When asked about planning for Speaking and Listening, the teachers' main concerns were to set up suitable activities for Speaking and Listening; by altering the groupings for example, the sitting position and providing the resources. Although teachers mentioned the management of speaking and listening tasks and activities, they did not highlight the role and purpose of each activity.

Asked whether students would learn better if the teachers focused on specific skills, the teachers were unanimous in their agreement. They said, however, they taught specific skills in relation to other skills because they were using an integrated approach in accordance with the statutory requirement of English in the National Curriculum which suggests: "Pupils' abilities should be developed within an integrated programme of speaking and listening, reading and writing" (DfE, 1995a, p. 4).

The HoDs and the teachers however, did not specify the proportion of lessons allocated to speaking, listening, reading or writing skills. The teachers were conscious of the integration of the skills, at least in theory, but in practice they did not quantify it explicitly in their teaching.

“When I am teaching, it is at the back of my mind (the integration of the four language skills)”

“The students are learning all the skills but there is no percentage given to each skill during teaching”

The above conclusion was also based on the following findings: One of the HoDs said that for the whole term he was concentrating on letter writing. In order to achieve the writing objectives, the students had to discuss in groups of four and later in pairs. The students were also required to read their letters to the class. According to the HoD, the whole process involved a lot of speaking and listening. Another English teacher was concentrating on report writing, whereby the students were given a topic which they discussed in small groups. Later, there was a class discussion led by the teacher. The students finally produced their reports in pairs. According to the teacher, there was an abundance of speaking and listening going on in the class. All her students were given the opportunity to participate in the discussions. Both lessons clearly illustrated that speaking and listening were used during the process of producing written work.

The evidence above showed that students were using their existing skills of speaking and listening. The students had gone through Key Stage 1 until Key Stage 3. They had been exposed to speaking and listening in activities, for example listening to teacher talk, participating in story telling, group discussions and drama. These activities were an indication that the students were speaking and listening. At the time of the interview the students were going through Key Stage 4 but there was no evidence or mention of teachers' intentions to develop speaking and listening skills or to help students to learn new ones during these informal group discussions or other class activities. Generally the HoDs and the teachers were creating activities specific to

learning English as a subject as defined by the content of the English Order. In doing so, sometimes they used speaking and listening as tools for the teaching and learning of reading and writing \*...only in the same ways as students' calligraphy was used.

The HoDs and the teachers said that they did not fancy teaching speaking and listening as in the teaching of speech courses or 'public speaking' courses per se. They did not want speaking and listening becoming a fashionable band wagon and turned into a subject in its own right. They saw the promotion of such a view as being of no benefit to the students because in that case speaking and listening would be decontextualised.

“It is not necessary to teach speech courses at school level”

“We should not be teaching public speaking courses because students will not benefit much”

“Public speaking courses will not benefit all the students, very few students will become public speakers”

“We are teaching Speaking and Listening skills based on context, the courses will make Speaking and Listening decontextualised”

The researcher could sense that the HoDs and the teachers were influenced by ideas put forward by some well known figures in promoting speaking and listening in England.

Furthermore, in the school situation, the HoDs said the only practice for public speaking was during assembly and “only a handful of students will have the opportunity to speak to the whole school, therefore it is better to teach them how to interact with each other” and “only the head boy gives speeches at the assembly”. This opportunity, according to them, may sometimes not be in the actual form of giving a talk or a speech

but is sometimes in the form of drama - to build students' confidence. One of the HODs cited an example of a school play, 'Oliver', for his school's next production. He emphasised the importance of drama and role play in developing students' speaking and listening skills, because in those situations, there would be a context and an audience for the exercise of oral skills.

The main impression was that the HoDs and the English teachers were not keen that speech courses be taught at secondary school level.

“We are more concerned with the process and not the final product”.

“Public speaking centres on performance, and not all students can perform well as public speakers”

Their narrow and limited definition of speech courses is probably due to a certain extent to curriculum demand and the statutory requirements of the National Curriculum. The centrally imposed curriculum forced the HoDs and the English teachers to build in and incorporate speaking and listening within the structure they knew instead of having the freedom to restructure a new dimension of speaking and listening.

Most HoDs and English teachers said, “I do not agree that speaking and listening should be taught as a subject at school level”. On the other hand, they said that they did discuss with students the contents of teaching speaking and listening “when the situation was right” . If this is taken as teacher's intervention, then it can be deduced from the interview that there was no clear programme of intervention in the teaching of speaking and listening skills and also there was lack of awareness of the implications of lack of intervention.

One of the teachers felt, however, that it was important to inform students about the principles of effective speaking and listening. She said that she started to teach 'how to listen', 'how to observe others', and 'talking for learning' as early as Year 7. According to this teacher, such knowledge creates awareness among her students. She believed that both deductive and inductive approaches help the students to strengthen their knowledge and also help them to improve their Speaking and Listening skills. This view was contradicted by a HoD who said, "I do not believe that speaking and listening can be taught to the students...the approach should be inductive; when the situation is right, tell the students ...only then will it be meaningful to them". He believed that during speaking and listening activities, students could be informed on the principles of effective speaking and listening, which is appropriate according to context.

From this part of the interviews, it seems more teachers preferred an inductive approach to the teaching of speaking and listening, though some teachers preferred a more flexible approach which combined inductive and deductive aspects. The variation in preference shows that either the HoDs' and the teachers' practices very much depended on the paradigm of teaching and learning of speaking and listening that they knew, based on their initial training, or they were unable to be more creative, fearing their students would not achieve the standards in works based on Reading and Writing expected in GCSE. The National Curriculum did not provide any guidance on methodology, so the HoDs and the teachers were left to adopt whichever methods they thought were best for the job.

When asked about teaching aids, the HoDs and teachers said that there were no specific teaching aids that could be used for specific skills. The suitability of the aids depended on the objectives of the lessons and the activities conducted during the lessons. They also believed that if students were to be competent speakers and listeners they could

and should be exposed to a variety of activities. The data provided by the HODs and the teachers regarding the type of activities in the teaching of speaking and listening skills was consistent across the sample of schools in this study. This is because in the National Curriculum the students are expected to follow 'Programmes of study' which are essentially lists of activities which should be taught to all pupils working at each of the ten levels. In other words, the National Curriculum tells teachers the kind of work their students should be doing. As mentioned earlier, there are also further guidelines published by NCC and SCAA to help the teachers to carry out speaking and listening activities.

Based on the English Department's Policy, one of the HoDs stressed that their aims are to 'enable pupils to work independently and as part of a team in varied activities' and also 'to employ teaching methods and resources that allow all pupils (irrespective of their gender, ethnic origin, academic ability, etc.) to have equal access to English and to experience success and enjoyment in their work". He talked about how a variety of activities could induce students to enjoy learning Attainments Targets 1 – Speaking and Listening.

One of the HoDs explained how he conducted speaking and listening activities. Normally he would start off with pair work, discussing a topic of interest to students. In this way, the students would not feel nervous or threatened. Each pair then joined another pair to present their ideas. When the students were comfortable in groups of this size, they would then proceed to whole class activities.

On the same matter, another HoD explained that his students were required to speak formally, express ideas, develop arguments and tell stories. The students in his school come from mixed ability groups, so different techniques were needed for different individuals. He said that television programmes, e.g. 'English File' on BBC2, offered

some good programmes, but it was difficult to use them in a mixed ability class. He said materials tailored for a class on an individual basis would be more suitable: “It is important for teachers to adapt materials and activities to suit the student’s ability”.

Another teacher emphasised that “not all materials are suitable for every student in the class; the teacher needs to be selective and creative”. In most of the schools, however, it was found that the activities did not differ from one class to another because they had been planned for the whole department. It was really the responsibility of individual teachers to adapt the materials and activities of the set plan to suit the needs of individual students in the class. The success of the activities depended on the teachers’ knowledge of speaking and listening skills, and communication. In addition to that their creativity and teaching expertise played a prominent role in ensuring that all students were given equal opportunity to develop their speaking and listening skills. The department could produce a good plan for the students where the HoDs and the teachers could work together, but it was up to individual teachers to implement it.

One HoD said that a teacher must set up formal situations, and in order to be sure the discussion did not simply become general ‘gossip’, she suggested the use of literature materials so the students can distance themselves from the issue being discussed. She explained that when discussing sensitive matters such as racial issues, if the discussion was based on text, the students could see the issue more objectively, because it did not touch their personal life. The students would then be able to express themselves freely; they could speak and listen freely without having to feel intimidated or to open themselves to provocation. She said, “The better the speaker, the more likely there will be rhetorical questions, for example in The Merchant of Venice: “Has not a Jew eyes?” - no answer is needed, but for emphasis”. She continued that “Simplicity of the language



will move the audience". Overall her approach to speaking and listening was literature based, an approach which was also found in a few schools in the study.

One HoD said that she found the book by Cathcart and Totton, English For Key Stage 3: Investigations, Collaborations and Activities (Cathcart & Totton, 1991) very useful in setting up integrated language skills for her Year 7 (12-13 Year Old). Upon examining the book, she pointed to the introduction part of the book:

The six Units in this pack are intended to assist teachers of English in providing A coherent and integrated scheme of work for elements of the National Curriculum *Programmes of Study for Key Stage 3*. In addition, they provide opportunities for teacher assessment of attainment targets, particularly within the profile components of *Speaking and Listening*, and *Writing*, with some coverage of *Reading*... We have deliberately produced this pack in the form of integrated Units of work.

(Cathcart & Totton, 1991, p. iv)

The HoDs agrees that the teacher's guide in the book is useful in setting up activities and at the same time there is room to apply her creativity to make the class interesting and to provide opportunities for students to be active.

The HoDs and the teachers were asked about standard English. They emphasised that even though the students were now required to be aware of style and register, the essential criterion was still for the students to use standard spoken English. One of the HoD's talked about the summary of the Attainment Target 1 that he made to highlight the importance of standard English in the National Curriculum. He explained that only in level 1 was there no mention of standard English but from level 2 onwards the

requirement was clear. He said in order for students to achieve level 2, students must begin to be aware of formal vocabulary in some situations. For level 3, students must begin to be aware of standard English. The usage of appropriate standard English was stated in level 4 and to achieve level 5 the students were expected to use standard English in formal situations. The HoD explained that the attainment target in level 6 required students to be fluent in their use of standard English in formal situations and in level 7 the same achievement was expected from the students but they also need to be confident. In level 8 the students must show that they used standard English with confidence in a range of situations. If students show assured and fluent use of standard English in a range of situations and for a variety of purposes that means the students have achieved exceptional performance. The HoD's explanations show how important it was for the teachers to develop students' competence as speakers and listeners in standard English, as stated in the Attainment Target 1. Other HoDs said:

“Students must use standard spoken English ... but local accents are acceptable”

“We are concentrating on standard English ... students are not expected to speak Queens English”

“The students must be aware of dialects but they must use standard spoken English especially in formal situations”

All these statements encapsulate the National Curriculum approach to standard English.

When asked about the definition of Standard English, the HoDs explained that it means the vocabulary and grammar of English used in formal situations. In the case of spoken language, it means the English normally used in meetings, interviews and

speeches. At the school level, the problem of defining standard English is not an issue and the teachers were clear what was expected of them.

Most of the HoDs did not agree that speaking and listening had been neglected in their schools. They said that there were many activities that involved speaking and listening. Most of them encouraged group discussions. One of the HoDs, however, said that in his school, listening probably needed more attention. He thought this was because, as listening is a receptive skill, it was taken for granted and students were doing mostly speaking activities without paying much attention to listening. Even though other HoDS and teachers did not explicitly highlight this matter, in the interviews they mentioned more activities related to speaking, than to listening.

One HoD, who had been a member of the National Curriculum Council for 4 years, said, “All this while the emphasis of teaching English has been on grammar and writing ... writing is a very individualistic or solitary work. To talk and to listen is fast where ideas can be changed or combined. It is wrong for a teacher to dominate the class... A teacher must listen. I listen to my students and they trust me”. In such a situation, she was able to communicate with her students. She said, “Talking is life, talking is communication. Speaking and listening is the very basic thing”. She suggested that more attention was needed to the teaching of speaking and listening.

Another HoD said that speaking and listening were not given enough attention and drew attention to the 20% marks allocated for it and also to the fact that there was also no final assessment for it. He showed the Northern Examinations and Assessment Board Syllabus for 1995, 1996 and 1997: English 1611(p. 8) which gives the weighting for each Attainment Target:

	Terminal Examination	coursework	Overall weighting
Speaking & Listening	0%	20%	20%
Reading	30%	10%	40%
Writing	20%	10%	30%
Presentation	10%	0%	10%
<b>Total</b>	<b>60%</b>	<b>40%</b>	<b>100%</b>

The HoD argued that Speaking and Listening should be an externally examined, in addition to the assessment made by teachers. It has not been done, probably because a large amount of money would have to be invested in order to pay the examiners, but according to him, for Foreign Languages, there is a terminal examination, and more or less the same concept of assessing Speaking and Listening is applicable in English.

The HoD felt, however, that very recently there was an indication that some attention was given to speaking and listening skills because “for the first time this summer (1996) the speaking and listening grade will be on the certificate (GCSE)”. In other words, from summer 1990 until summer 1995, the mark for speaking and listening was not shown on the GCSE certificates, but was subsumed in the overall examination grade. There was no explicit indication of a student’s ability in speaking and listening. The students were assessed, but these skills were not considered important enough to warrant separate mention on the certificate. The increasing awareness of the importance of speaking and listening is seen with the appearance of the grade on the certificate

## Assessment

### Figure 8-3 Section III: Questions on Assessment

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1. How do you assess your students' achievement in speaking and listening skills?
  2. Is it entirely up to the teacher's impression to determine the final marks?
  3. Can the marks be subjective?
  4. Is there any independent body to co-ordinate the marking?
  5. Is the focus of evaluation on reading and writing?
- 

Assessment is an important part of English teaching and some time was spent on discussing this aspect of the teacher's job.

One of the HoDs said that he knew all the criteria for assessing speaking and listening skills by heart so it was not necessary for him to write down a list of them. By now he could evaluate the skills of individual students (speaking and listening) in a class of 25 easily. This was possible because he had been teaching for more than 15 years.

Another HoD had a different view. He said that it was difficult for teachers to assess speaking and listening. Based on the Northern Examinations and Assessment Board he showed the mark/band descriptors for En1 Speaking and Listening to indicate that it is difficult for students to obtain Grade A and Grade A\*. To overcome this problem, his department had prepared a marking sheet for individual students to be carried through key stages 3 and 4. For every section covered in the lesson, the date and a mark was recorded, so both teachers and students would be able to spot any area that had not been assessed.

Another HoD who is under University of London Examination & Assessment Council pointed out the GCSE English (1202), English (17) (5202) English Literature (1212) Syllabuses for May/June 1996 and May/June 1997, which stated that:

To achieve En1 Level 5 (GCSE grade F) candidates must be given the opportunity to show that they can satisfy the following Statements of Attainments:

- (i) give a well-organised and sustained account of an event, a personal experience or an activity;
- (ii) contribute to and respond constructively in discussion, including the development of ideas; in debate, advocate and justify a point of view;
- (iii) use language to convey information and ideas effectively in a straightforward situation;
- (iv) plan and participate in a group presentation;
- (v) recognise variations in vocabulary between different regional and social groups, and relate this knowledge where appropriate to personal experience.

(pp. 9-10)

According to the HoD, if students failed to satisfy those Statements of Attainment, they will be given between 1-6 marks under 'unclassified' or they will be awarded between 7-9 marks which is equivalent to Grade G. He explained that the grade 'unclassified' will appear in the GCSE certificate for Speaking and Listening. In order to get Grade B, a student must be active, mature in discussions, able to communicate effectively and at the same time aware of body language, as stated in the GCSE English (1202), English (17) (5202) English Literature (1212) Syllabuses for May/June 1996 and May/June 1997:

To achieve En1 Level 8 (GCSE grade B) candidates must be given opportunities to show that they can satisfy the following Statements of Attainment:

- (i) express points of view on complex matters clearly and cogently and interpret alternative points of view with accuracy and discrimination;
- (ii) convey information and ideas in a variety of complex situations involving a range of audiences and in language which is matched to context and purpose;
- (iii) take an active part in group discussions, contributing constructively to the sustained development of the argument;
- (iv) show in discussion and in writing an awareness of the contribution that facial expressions, gestures and tone of voice can make to a speaker's meaning.

(p. 10)

From the discussions with the HoDs, it can be deduced that it is not easy for students to score A or A\* for Speaking and Listening

It was also found that the teachers agreed on the importance of feedback to the students. They said that students would only improve if they were aware of their weaknesses in speaking and listening skills. Since the assessment process for speaking and listening was an ongoing process, the teachers would point out the strengths and the weaknesses of the students appropriately.

“To build confidence is important. Speaking is part of a person, you are the way you speak, so it is better to give pupils positive criticism”

“If the situation arises, I will correct the students. This is done with care ... not to embarrass the students”

It was found that peer-assessment and self-assessment were also carried out. For peer assessment, the class was asked to give the attainment level they thought appropriately described the task as it had been carried out by a particular student. In one of the schools, the students were given a personal file for speaking and listening. In the file, their work on speaking and listening was recorded with comments from their teacher. The students were also asked to evaluate their own work and to write suggestions for improvement.

During the interviews, the difficulty of assessing students objectively was highlighted because the cumulative assessment did not reflect the progress of a student. One HOD said in assessing a student talk, there was value judgement involved. For example an outside listener might categorise a student as not a good speaker but in actual fact, the talk could be a high achievement for the particular student because he or she had developed from a lower level and the progress was tremendous, compared to another student who was already good at the start. This shows that in speaking and listening, a teacher's role is important because during the teaching period or interaction with his or her student, she would know the student's ability and could assess the actual development. At the same time, she has to be fair to students whose starting point might have been at level 6 and who did not have much room for improvement compared to students starting at level 3.

In this case according to one HoD is the difficulty which arises because the actual progress of the students is not accounted for in the assessment objectives set out under the Attainment Targets 1: Speaking and Listening. The Northern Examination and Assessment Board's objectives required students to:



articulate experience and express what they feel and imagine;  
 understand, order and present facts, ideas and opinions;  
 show a sense of audience and an awareness of style in a variety of situations;  
 recognise different levels of explicit and implicit meanings and attitudes in a  
 variety of contexts;  
 communicate a sensitive personal response to what is heard, read and perceived;  
 reflect on and evaluate ways in which they and others use spoken and written  
 language in different contexts and for different purposes.

Thus, the objectives imply measurement of achievement, not progress. Achievement is assessed based on the levels set out in the Attainment Target 1. The assessment shows which level best describes the students' ability in speaking and listening without indicating the progress. This was the main guiding criterion of assessment followed by the HoDs and the teachers. The examining boards also provided guidelines during moderating meetings which will be discussed later in this chapter.

One of the HoDs explained that in order to ensure that there was consistency in teacher assessment, the School Curriculum and Assessment Authority and Curriculum and Assessment Authority for Wales (SCAA, ACAC, 1995) had taken a number of initiatives, one of them was to publish Consistency in Teacher Assessment; Exemplification of Standards - English: Key Stages 1 to 3, Level 1 to 8 Speaking and Listening) consisting of a booklet and a videotape. The HOD explained that the materials were very useful to help teachers to make consistent judgements about which level best describes a student's performance in speaking and listening. Key Stages 1 to 3 covers the period from primary school (Age range 5-11), to secondary school from Year 7 to Year 9 (Age range 11-14), and the guidance given in the materials would give teachers in Key

Stage 4 a broad spectrum of assessing speaking and listening and what to look for in individual students.

The summary and overall judgement for students featured in the booklet and video, reflected the National Curriculum criteria the teachers have to use for assessing speaking and listening.

It is clear from the interviews that the HoD's and the English teachers acknowledged the importance of assessment because this interest can be utilised to help an individual's language development. For example in the Speaking and Listening file in one school, students were given marks with constructive comments. This criterion-referenced assessment is important because the students knew both their level and why they were on it.

### **The National Oracy Project**

#### **Figure 8-4. Section IV: Questions on the National Oracy Project**

- 
1. Is your school involved in the National Oracy Project?
  2. How successful is the project?
- 

A direct question to HoDs revealed that the National Oracy project did not play a significant role in the teaching of speaking and listening skills in the schools of this study. Most of the HoDs and the English teachers knew of the National Oracy Project, but when asked whether the school had participated in the National Oracy project, one of the HODs said "we were not invited to join the National Oracy Project". The HoDs and the teachers from other schools were equally unable to explain why they were not involved in the National Oracy Project.

“We have heard about the National Oracy Project, but I have not the slightest idea why our school is not in it.”

“I do not know why we were not part of it, but we have got enough, (work) without joining the project.”

“I cannot give you the answer ... I’ll look into this matter in case it will be useful to the school.”

From this finding it was assumed that the National Oracy Project was concentrated in certain areas only and was not active in the County of Humberside. Since the National Oracy Project had been disseminated in 1993, it is assumed that oracy projects were not started in schools which were not involved in it the original stages. Probably the teachers were so busy with the introduction of the National Curriculum that they had no time to participate in the project. The irony was that the National Oracy Project’s office was situated in York which was about 40 miles away from Hull at the centre of the County of Humberside.

### **Teacher Training in Speaking and Listening**

#### **Figure 8-5. Section V: Questions on Teacher Training in Speaking and Listening**

1. Have you attended any courses recently in teaching speaking and listening skills?
  2. How about other language skills?
  3. Do you think it is necessary for teachers to have training in teaching speaking and listening skills?
- 

One question was asked about in-service training for English teachers. It was found that teachers did not attend in-service courses to develop their speaking and listening skills or to improve their teaching in these areas. There were other courses after school at times set aside for in-house training. A teacher was responsible for co-

ordination of the courses. According to the HoDs the courses were mainly on administration and management and there was nothing on language skills.

“I do not think teachers need to go for speaking and listening courses ... only teachers who thought that they faced problems in teaching might go for courses.”

“(going for speaking and listening course) It is unlikely because teachers do not face problems in teaching these skills.”

“Most of the teachers had taken the course during their training.”

It was obvious that there was a general acceptance that it was not necessary for the English teachers to attend courses on speaking and listening. The teachers were English speakers, had their training in English medium, had followed university English course and had received training in teaching speaking and listening skills as part of their initial teacher training. All the teachers had been teaching for more than 10 years and they felt they had enough experience of teaching speaking and listening skills. So the question of attending courses just to learn to teach speaking and listening skills probably seemed absurd to these teachers.

## **Classroom Environment**

### **Figure 8-6. Section VI: Questions on Classroom Environment**

1. Is the class climate favourable for good listening?
  2. Does each student feel comfortable?
  3. Does each student feel that his contribution is important?
  4. Is the seating arrangement adequate?
-

The HoDS and the teachers were asked about the sort of classroom environment they used or tried to create to facilitate the teaching of Speaking and Listening. The HoDs said that for English lessons the students would go to the English classroom or to the computer room. These rooms were equipped with television, video-player, cassette players and printed materials. The desks were arranged in a u-shape or in clusters to allow flexibility for the students to work in pairs, small groups or as a class. The main problem faced by most of the teachers was the poor acoustics in the rooms.

In one of the schools where the local theatre was in the school building, the HOD had the advantage of using a good environment to conduct his lessons. The theatre is equipped with stage, lighting, microphone, tiered seating and other modern facilities.

Another HOD believed that it was not necessary to have expensive equipment to encourage speaking and listening. A conducive environment must be created by the teacher either in the classroom or outside. He agreed, however, that such basic equipment such as television, video and cassette player, and a camcorder would be useful. He had taken some of his students on a field trip which turned out to be very successful for speaking and listening lessons. The planning involved a lot of discussions; there were interviews with some of the local residents during the field trip; there were discussions during the trip, and more discussions when his students were preparing to produce the final video tape. This case was reported to show an example of a lesson conducted outside the classroom. Even though speaking and listening opportunities were created, the project itself was literature based.

Again, it was found that speaking and listening in these activities were carried out, not for the development of these skills, but as a tool for achieving other objectives. The students probably did not realise that they were learning about speaking and listening skills; what they knew was they that were on a literary project. The HoD was able to

assess the students while they were speaking and listening in this project, but these were the existing skills the students were using. The main difference was probably that the opportunity for them to speak and to listen for a purpose was created and they were able to participate.

## **Skills School Leavers Need for Employment**

### **Figure 8- 7. Section VII: Questions on Skills School Leavers Need for Employment**

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1. Do you think that it is important for school leavers to acquire a certain standard of speaking and listening before they enter into employment?
  2. Speaking and listening are important during job interviews?
  3. Speaking and listening are important to be successful in careers?
- 

Regarding school leavers and their future employment, the HoDs agreed that speaking and listening were very important for students in job interviews. The first experience of interviews for all students would be during the work experience placement.

There were some links between schools and the work place but the links were not important in terms of trying to bridge the gap between the needs of speaking and listening skills in the work place and the teaching of speaking and listening skills at school. The links between school and employers were financial and in agreement with work experience placement. One of the HoDs said, “Probably the employer will not know what is going on in the classroom and some don’t even know the difference between GCSE and O Level”. This was a clear indication that some teachers thought the employers were not well informed about the school curriculum and by implication that they were not interested in what went on in schools.

Some of the HoDs agreed that there was no emphasis on speaking and listening during the work experience programme. The most important criterion was simply to get a work place for each student. A Careers Guidance teacher was responsible for communicating with work places and his or her main task was to arrange placements for the students.

The HoDs said they might mention the importance of speaking and listening at work “if the situation was right”. This was based on materials for specific activities of speaking and listening given by the HoDs during the time when students were required to evaluate their work experience individually, or as a group activity. But the HODs’ main concern was more immediate: teach towards the examination, especially the written examination.

This was hardly surprising, because the HoDs and the teachers were totally responsible for assessing speaking and listening skills. Marks would go into the final assessment and recorded separately on the certificate. Course work in reading and writing, accounts for 20 per cent of the final assessment and 60 per cent is for final examination and for writing. This was the significant percentage and largely determined the final grade and hence the future of the students.

## **General Information**

### **Figure 8-8. Section VIII: General Comments on the Following Statements**

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1. Speech and thinking are highly related
  2. Language affects personality and personality affects language
  3. Socio-cultural environment of the home will influence the development of speaking and listening
  4. The right time to teach speaking and listening is when the child is 5 years old and below
  5. Speaking and listening is natural, so need not be taught
  6. Speaking and listening skills can improve reading and writing skills
  7. Theories of language affect teaching and learning
-

HoDs and teachers made other comments either as part of answers to 'main' questions or when the interviewer indicated she had no further questions. Most of the HoDs felt that there was a strong correlation between good speaking and listening, and performance in reading and writing. In fact, most of the time, students who were competent in speaking and listening were the ones who scored good grades during the examination. During their school days, these students also showed leadership qualities such as being able to lead group discussions and take leading roles in school activities, for example in drama.

One HoD said that the quality of speaking really depends on the Social Economic Status (SES) of the student, not on any rural/urban factor. Students from high SES background, could relate more easily to adults because their home environment encouraged speaking and listening. This was equally true, he thought, of city children and rural children.

One HoD said that we spend most of our life talking, not writing. In fact in all societies there is speech and music, but not always writing.

The HoDs and the teachers said that speaking and listening were important not only in class but also at home, in society and in the work place.

The HoDs and the teachers mentioned that their knowledge of the theories of teaching and learning of language were gained during their initial teacher training or through reading. Some of them do know about communication theories in general but not in detail. According to them the theories of language learning are important for study at the university level but not at the school level. They said mostly the theories are dealt by lecturers – on their part it is the practical aspects of language learning that is more important. Some of the Hods and the teachers said the theories are important to guide them in teaching speaking and listening skills.



### 8.2.2 Moderator

One moderator of one of the national examination boards for GCSE English was interviewed. According to the moderator it was difficult for a student to get an A in speaking and listening due to the complexity of the area. He said by examining the requirement in English in the National Curriculum, NEAB's syllabus, moderating videos and booklet, one would find these skills were quite difficult to acquire. He said it was not just a matter of speaking and listening but of speaking and listening "competently". One of the factors in speaking and listening he mentioned was eye contact. This he said was crucial and had a marked effect on the scores of the students.

From the interview it was obvious that the moderator was bound by the National Curriculum, the NEAB syllabus, the moderating video and the booklet. He referred to these materials frequently, for example in explaining what is needed for students to achieve good marks, to progress in speaking and listening and on the issue of teachers' assessment.

He had taught drama before joining the examination board and he said it was important to be able to listen and to speak, especially in drama. Practice in drama lessons would help students to speak and listen better in other lessons. It can be said that the moderator would appreciate the role of speaking and listening in creating impact on the audience because in drama, audience impact is an influential factor.

He said the moderating meeting was very important to ensure the standardisation of marking by the English teachers. He said most of the English teachers had experience of marking but they were still required to attend the moderating meeting. This shows that the board still questions the ability of the teachers to agree to standards for speaking and listening skills without outside guidelines.

### **8. 2. 3 The Careers Officers**

The Careers Officers' main concentration was on further education or employment. They agreed that speaking and listening were important but their advice does not include these skills. Their main concern was to discuss the students' future plans, for example the type of courses they were interested in, to advise the students on the suitability of the courses or to give them alternative courses or plans to think about. During the interview, the researcher was unable to get more information from the Careers Officers because, they said, they were bound by their job description to consider only the needs of their clients (i.e. the school leavers).

This shows that Careers Officers are not an appropriate or possible contact for the teachers to find out about speaking and listening skills required for the work place, or to obtain advice on standards. (The researcher later found out that the Careers Office do give advice to students on how to dress and behave at interviews.)

### **8. 2. 4 The Employers**

One of the employers' representatives was interviewed at a school. He explained that speaking and listening were very important to school leavers, either to go to college or to enter employment. His company had the responsibility to give more opportunities to students to further their education. The students were selected based on the COMPACT Goals which were discussed earlier. One of the criteria of the COMPACT agreement was the ability to speak and listen. The students had to go for an interview before they could gain a COMPACT Award. This interview was the final stage to find out whether the student would be able to communicate his ideas and would be able to work in a team.

Another employer said that mostly, students learned how to cope with the requirements for speaking and listening in the work place, through experience. According

to him, when the students were at school, probably they were not aware of the importance of speaking and listening at work. His company did not provide any specific training in speaking and listening.

Both the employers' representatives agreed that in order to be successful, workers need to be competent speakers and listeners. They did not know what was going on in school now, but they remembered that they had not learned these skills when they were at school. They said that they spoke and listened, but they did not have specific lessons to help them with these skills.

The representatives said that the nature of jobs now required workers to interact with people outside the company; for example, in their case, to interact with education officers, teachers, students and parents. There were many times when they had to give speeches to small or large groups. Evidently they would welcome some attention to these skills at school.

### **8. 2. 5 Summary of the Interviews**

From the interviews of the HoDs and the teachers, their feelings and thoughts were captured with regard to their approaches to the teaching of speaking and listening skills.

The HoDs and the teachers were committed to creating opportunities for their students to speak and to listen but they were using speaking and listening as a vehicle for other learning. The opportunities and situations which were created for Speaking and Listening were in accordance with the Attainment Target 1. There was evidence that some teachers tried to teach how to speak and to listen, but on the whole it was insufficient to produce positive results. The interview with the moderator also showed that his main role was to ensure that the marking was consistent and as long as it was,

nothing else mattered. The interviews with the Careers Officers showed that they were unable to offer teachers information on speaking and listening skills needed in the work place. Ironically, the information was not provided by the employers either. What transpires from the interviews was that the responsibility to bridge speaking and listening skills needs between the school and the work place falls without help or guidance on the shoulders of the HoDs and the English teachers.

### **8.3 OBSERVATIONS**

#### **8.3.1 Classroom**

From the classroom observations it was found that the teachers still dominate the class. They do more talking than the students unless there are presentations by the students. The presentations observed did not take a long time; approximately 5-10 minutes. Apart from the students who were doing presentations, few students would participate in the question and answer sessions while the rest of the students remain passive.

In four of the classes observed, the teacher started the class by reading a poem. In one of these classes after reading the poem, the teacher asked the students to explain the poem. In the other three classes, a few students were asked to read the poems.

It was observed that teachers were consciously creating opportunities for students to speak and listen in pairs, in small groups and to the whole class. The majority of the students were silent, leaving a few to dominate the class. In one school the researcher was able to observe the same class twice. The first observation was a talk given by one of the students. She was shy and nervous. The teacher had to prompt her with a number of questions. She constantly referred to her notes. At the end of her presentation, since no other students were prepared to give their talk, the teacher posed a general question on the

same topic to the class. A group of three boys (who were friends) answered her. The boys and the teacher dominated the rest of the lesson while the presenter stood still listening to them. At the end of the class, the teacher asked her class to evaluate the speaker. They gave her level 3. The following week, two other students gave their presentations and the same group of boys dominated the class. At the end of the lesson, the class was asked to give their evaluation. The teacher made no further comment.

From the observations, it was deduced that there was no thorough planning to maximise the use speaking and listening skills by the students in some of the classes. The opportunities for feedback were there to help the students, but were not used. Instead, the class was dominated by a few 'loud' students. After the speakers gave their presentations, the speakers, the teacher and the whole class were looking at the group of boys. It was also found that in other schools too, few students were involved in question and answer sessions. More effort should have been made to give opportunity to the quiet students to answer. The teacher managed to create situations for the pupils to think, to discuss with their partners and to present their ideas, to ask related questions, to take turns and to respond to questions. But the situations were not utilised fully. There was imbalance in the students' participation. In fact, there was very little 'pupil-talk-initiation'. The active students were few in number compared to passive students. This was not a state of 'silence' which Flanders (1970) explained by "pauses, short periods of silence and periods of confusion in which communication cannot be understood by the observer" (p. 34). Silence here meant that the students were not responding, they were listening passively without attention. There was 'pupil-talk-response' but it was mostly monosyllabic, as shown below:

**Teacher (T):** How do you describe the poet?

**Student (S1):** Pessimistic

**T:** Yes, pessimistic

**S2:** Negative

**T:** Yes, he was negative

**S3:** He was boring

**T:** He is definitely not the life and soul of the party

**S1:** Depressing

**S4:** Judgmental

**T:** You could describe him as judgmental

**S5:** Critical

**S1:** Sceptical

The summary of one of the lessons can be described as follows: The students listened to the poem, to the questions asked by the teachers and the answers given by other students. Some of the students tried to answer the questions with explanations, but the majority of the students gave a one word answer. There were also many passive students who did not participate at all. In this lesson, speaking and listening were not taught in the class. At best for some 'it was talk and listen to learn' it was not 'to learn how to talk and to listen'.

In another class there was also very limited overall evaluation to reinforce the students' knowledge about speaking and listening skills. Based on Flanders (1970) there were 'teacher-talk-responses' but insufficient to have any impact on the students.

The 'teacher-talk-response' categories of 'accepts-feelings', 'praises or encourages' or 'accepts or uses ideas of pupils' were either absent or very brief after the

students' presentations. In one of the classes, eight groups were involved, with different styles of presentation, so there was scope for comments to have been made to raise the awareness of the students. Unfortunately the 'teacher-talk-responses' were:

"That was good"

"That was very interesting"

"Good, can we have the next group please?"

"Well done"

The constructive comments were not thorough or structured in such a way as to give more information back to the students. No comments were made on the non-verbal language. For example, in one of the presentations, the first presenter had his chin supported with both his arms all through his talk. No comment was made on the clarity of the answers, tone etc. This indicates that the students do not get immediate feedback. The students needed constructive criticism during the class. It was not necessary for the teacher to point out individual students but she could have given a summary of certain aspects of good Speaking and Listening verbally, or as a hand out for the class to check through together with her. Planning for any activities should include consideration of important skills prior to and immediately after the activities.

Observations in classroom also focused on the various audiences the students and teachers were addressing. The range included Speaking and Listening in or to a pair, a small group, a large group (5 or more), the whole class, teacher (for student) and individual student (for teacher). The most common classroom contexts for Speaking and Listening were: teachers speaking to the whole class, students listening to their teachers and one student speaking to the teacher. There was generally imbalance in the range of audiences employed by both teachers and students.

From the classroom observations, it was found that the final product of the lesson was important. This by no means indicates that the process was insignificant but the final piece of work after discussions included drawing, writing reports, writing poems, writing drama scripts and reading, which were more tangible compared to class presentations and stood as proof that work had been done.

During the observation, it was found that the teachers emphasised marking and assessment. The teachers were ready with a pen/pencil and paper/form and stood either at the back or in front of the class. If group discussions were taking place, they walked around the groups, listened to the students, perhaps asked or answered a few questions, walked away and jotted down marks on their papers. This was thought to be rather intimidating for the students who received no feedback.

The teachers would remind their students at the beginning of the lessons:

“You can have notes but must not use prepared scripts. This is not an assessment of reading or content but to assess your ability to speak.”

“This is an imaginative piece, formulate character in mind and present it in correct, accurate English, interesting, exciting. This is compulsory for the imaginative essay for your GCSE.”

“This is an assessment ... no reading, use the right tone.”

Some of the students were found to be nervous during their presentations partly because they were being assessed. Others were not nervous. It was also possible that the students by Key Stage 4 were immune to the ‘pen/paper’ and it did not disturb them in any way. The researcher felt the teacher should be more discrete because assessment should be taken as a way of learning and developing. The marks should not be the final



product but a means of explaining to the students their weaknesses and strengths and how to achieve the next level.

Some audio-visual support material was used during teaching. In one of the classes the students discussed juvenile delinquency based on an article. During their second lesson they watched a case study based on video and in the next lesson they debated whether juvenile delinquents should be sent on therapy trips. The teacher provided the characters and the situation for the debate.

The characters: Head of the centre

Social security Officer

Steven

Steven's father

Situation: Steven is an unloved boy, physically very powerful, inside a secured wing of the most secured probation centre for juvenile delinquents. He and a friend beat someone to death. For the past 3 months, he has behaved himself and created no trouble, so a meeting has been called to decide whether he should be allowed second stage mobility under close security. That means he will be allowed to go into the local community, to the shops etc.

Six groups presented their work. Some of the speakers were confident, portraying a clear cut A or the border line A/B. Some were average but a few needed more practice. The case study based on the video and the article gave sufficient information for the students to work on before embarking on the debate on a topic which was beyond their experience. The use of video tapes in teaching Speaking and Listening was, however, limited because they were mostly used for English Literature.

During the observation it was found that the time given to students to prepare their presentations varies. Some students were given one or two weeks to prepare. Other students were given only 20 minutes to discuss as shown below:

Teacher : What is a press conference?

Student : (2 of them responded)

Teacher : Can you give examples?

Students: (A few responded)

Teacher: What you are going to do today is trying to invent a celebrity and present the character ; based on the following information

She wrote on the board:

Tasks: Create an interesting celebrity and stage a press conference.

Name:

Age:

Period of history: the teacher gave examples

An event: the teacher gave examples

Contribution to society: the teacher gave examples

Future hopes and plans: the teacher gave examples

The students were given 20 minutes to think and to discuss. They could present individually or in pairs. The students were asking for more time when they were called to present their work.

During the observations there was no distinction drawn between Speaking and Listening which occurred in other subjects and that which was taught in an English

lesson. The only difference was that Speaking and Listening were not assessed in other lessons.

Teachers were very concerned about discipline. One of the teachers went into a class and stood rigid near her desk until all the students had sat down and were quiet. Then she would take their attendance.

Some of the classes were interrupted by the teachers because one or two students were not paying attention. In one case, after repeated warnings, the teacher asked one of the boys to stand beside her all through the lesson. In another case, the teacher looked at one of the students until he stopped talking to his neighbour. She said, ' That was eye to eye contact to warn you to shut-up! When I look at you, I don't expect you to continue talking, when I look away'.

In one of the lessons, one student who was being helped by a non-teaching assistant walked across to his friend to find out about a basketball game. That really made the teacher furious and she scolded the student at the top of her voice. In another class, a teacher told the researcher that her class was going smoothly on that day because two habitual trouble makers were on counselling visits.

From the observations it was clear that the teachers have conflicting roles as disciplinarians and at the same time wanting to create an environment to encourage speaking and listening. They have to be trusted by the students and the students must find it comfortable to relate to them.

### **8. 3. 2 Overview of Speaking and Listening Skills**

From the finding, it can be seen that teachers are devoting attention to Speaking and Listening. In particular, teachers value its inclusion in the Order. However, teachers do not pay attention to different types of speaking and listening included in AT1.

The most common context for Speaking and Listening involved the teacher speaking and the students listening in a whole class activity that was monitored and evaluated by the teacher. When discussion took place with a teacher, it was most likely to be a 'directed' discussion. The most commonly occurring type of talk observed was 'asking and answering questions'.

Finally it was found that Listening had been neglected. There was hardly any mention of listening except for "listen to this poem". At other times the word 'listen' was used as a command in order to get the students' attention or to warn them for not listening.

#### **8. 4 MODERATING MEETINGS**

During the moderating meetings it was found that the teachers were familiar with the whole procedure. They were provided with the following materials:

- i. English 1 - Speaking and Listening (videotape)
- ii. English 2/3 - Reading and Writing and Literature (written materials)

At the school level, which the researcher attended, six teachers watched the English 1 - Speaking and Listening video. After a few minutes, the teachers complained about the quality of the video production. The audibility was quite poor. After watching the video the teachers gave their marks for individual candidates and later discussed the marks that they agreed upon. They pointed out that one of the students, Daniel, mumbled to himself, most of the time looked down and failed to use any eye contact when he spoke. They rated two of the candidates, Ross and Carol, as better speakers and they discussed which of the two performed better. They agreed on the marks and moved on to

discuss the grades for written materials. The whole process was actually based on experience. There was no check list or guiding criteria to follow during this in-school moderating meeting. (In actual fact, all Hods and teachers were given a list of marking scheme provided by the examination board which by now they knew it by heart).

One of the Northern Examinations and Assessment Board (NEAB) Moderating meetings was at Longcroft School on 30 November 1995. The purpose of the meeting was to standardise the marking done by the English teachers who are opting for NEAB. There were 8 schools' representatives opting for NEAB present: Beverley Grammar, Beverley High, Cottingham, David Lister, Headlands, Hessle, Howden and St Mary's.

The teachers from each school had already had their own meeting to grade the materials provided by NEAB and to send in their marks to the board before the moderating meeting.

According to the moderator, the overall evaluations of teachers in the case of speaking and listening did not differ much from the marks given by NEAB. Since there was no television or video player, the moderating was done by comparing marks, without watching the video. During the moderating meeting, it was found that the examination board was satisfied with the consistency of marking by the teachers. There were no other comments on the performance of the candidates in speaking and listening skills. The moderator moved on to moderating marks for writing and English Literature.

The main concern was that the teachers must be consistent with the marks from the examination board. They were concerned with the final product, not the process. The atmosphere at the moderating meeting at the county level was relaxed, even though it was formal. The moderator sat crossed legged on the table while conducting the meeting, which the researcher thought was not right for the context and something the teachers would forbid their students to do.

community” (The National Curriculum Council, 1989, p. 32), but this partnership is geared towards economic purposes.

In this study, the partnership during work experience means the employers provide the work places while the schools provide the students. Normally a teacher in charge of the work experience will liaise with the Careers Officer or the company’s representative. Their (the teacher, the Careers Officer and the company’s representative) main concern is to find a suitable work place for a candidate for two weeks. No planning was made to take into account the need of speaking and listening skills required by the work place. In fact in 1982, Careers Research Advisory Centre (CRAC) reported the same finding that there was little evidence on paper of employers’ views of the language skills required of schools leavers joining industry.

From the interviews and the observations it was also found that the HoDs and the teachers were concentrating on the teaching and the assessment. The moderator on the other hand was more interested on the final product – whether the marks are consistent with the marks allocated by the Board of examination. This is probably due to the fact that the Board had supplied the necessary information for example the syllabus based on the National Curriculum and the assessment guidelines in the form of booklets and videos. Here again we could see that it is the duty of the teacher to teach and to assess the students’ achievement. The Boards provide the syllabus and guidelines based on the National Curriculum.

In the interviews the HoDs and the teachers were found to be committed to fostering speaking and listening skills. They spend time and energy to analyse the National Curriculum. They however felt more guidance is needed. From the interviews it was also found that they were not involved with the National Oracy Project where they could get more information and guidance. They do not attend any in-service courses in

teaching Speaking and Listening skills, and base their teaching on their knowledge and experience together with the materials provided by the Examination Boards. Some said they had some basic in theories of teaching language when they had their initial training and based on their reading but not much on theories of communication. It is probably fair to say that these teachers do not keep in touch with modern ideas about the teaching of Speaking and Listening. Probably without up to date information have also made them regard speech courses with suspicion. The HoDs and the teacher need sound knowledge about speaking and listening: the theories, the communication aspects, the latest development and research works. In-service training combined with the HoDs' and the teachers' experiences and enthusiasms will promote speaking and listening skills to a greater degree.

Based on the class observations, one cannot deny there was abundance of speaking and listening in the classroom. Either the teachers were talking and the students were listening, one or two students were talking and others were listening or discussions were going on in pairs or small groups. But the question still remains, "Is speaking and listening being **taught** as it should be?" What was found was that the distribution of speaking and listening was not balanced between the teachers and the students and among the students. Garner and Bing (1973) in their study also found that the balance of classroom events was very uneven.

Cashdan (1979) affirmed that teachers are not always as aware as they might be of what is taken for granted in the situation in which they operate. Teachers, like other groups in work situations, are unaware of their own behaviour. During the interviews, the HoDs and the teachers strongly felt that teachers should not dominate their class, that students should be given the opportunity to speak and to listen. Nevertheless, and

contradiction to these statements during the observation, it was found that the teacher's power was obvious. Teachers do dominate the class. They do most of the talking.

Very much related to the above is the issue of discipline. During the observation teachers were very concerned about discipline. They either give a verbal warning, punish, stare or arrange for the student to see psychologist. The 'dual' personality of Dr Jekyll & Mr Hyde, made the students confused and left the teachers in a dilemma. Worst of all the trouble makers are only a handful and always the same ones.

The HoDs and the teachers agreed that students would learn better if the teachers focused on specific skills; they however focused on specific skills such as Speaking and Listening in relation to other skills because they were using an integrated approach. It was also found that the HoDs and the teachers in their teaching did not specify the percentage of lessons allocated to speaking, listening, reading or writing skills. As mentioned earlier one of the teachers mentioned that the integration of the four language skills was at the back of his mind after 25 years of teaching, therefore it was not necessary to allocate percentages to speaking and listening. This sort of problem was mentioned by Borg (1981):

Most people find personal experience to be an attractive basis for making decisions .... however, personal experience has several serious flaws as a basis for making important decisions. First, we accumulate personal experience in a very haphazard fashion .... Another weakness of personal experience is that it is subject to errors in recall .... Finally, decisions making based upon personal experience ignores the knowledge and experience accumulated by others.

(Borg, 1981, pp. 4-5)



The dependence upon personal experience could make teachers unable to see the actual problem in integrating the teaching and learning of speaking and listening skills with other skills. In the United States Barnes & Hayes (1995) find that in many areas English teachers do not respond to the guidelines issued by the state on the integration of speaking, listening, reading and writing skills in the English curriculum. Buckley (1992) discussed Loban's (one of the key designers of the integrated approach to teaching the language arts) frustration with well-intending teachers who disregard the theoretical emphasis on cultivation of oral language, and who focus instead on reading and writing. One of the main reasons for this shift from the main principle of integration is that most of the high school English teachers do not understand how they are supposed to integrate the language arts according to the guideline given by the state of California (Barnes, Bodeman & Helms-Nelson, 1994; Barnes & Hayes, 1995b), and during the implementation of the policy, the essence that speaking and listening is the predictor of the success of reading and writing has been lost!

The National Curriculum on the other hand, neither lays down criteria about method, approach or timing nor forbids the teaching of other material or even other subjects and claims this as one of its virtues (Eyre & Marjoram, 1990). But without guidelines for the integration of the language skills the teachers while translating the requirement into practice might end up as their counterparts in US where "Training is thus focused on the instruction of English as it has always been taught – on reading and writing and literature, with little attention to oral communication" (Barnes & Hayes, 1995, p. 308). Andrew Wilkinson (1965) explained that reading and writing (literacy) dominated the curriculum both as a means of learning and a method of discipline and after more than 30 years, in this study it was found that reading, writing and literature still dominate the

English class. Speaking and listening was used as a tool for achieving other objectives: It was talk and listen to learn and not to learn how to talk and to listen.

From the class observations it was found that the teachers were not sufficiently discrete while assessing the students. They keep reminding the students that they were being assessed; verbally or non-verbally. Unfortunately they gave students very little constructive feedback. The students need feedback on their learning, early and often, to learn effectively; to become independent learners, they need to learn how to give feedback. Before reaching this stage they need the teacher to be their model. The feedback from the teachers is crucial because the ways in which students are assessed and evaluated powerfully affect the way they study and learn.

During the interviews most of the HoDs and the teachers do not agree that speaking and listening skills have been neglected. Only one HoDs agreed that listening has been neglected in his school whilst another HoD opined that speaking and listening have been neglected not only in his school but in other schools too. Actually speaking and listening have been neglected for a long time and only recently received recognition when in summer 1996, a separate speaking and listening grade was recorded on the GCSE certificate. In this study, it was found that listening skills were slightly more neglected than speaking skills. In 1990 Anthony Adams wrote "Whilst I would defend the notion of the reciprocal nature of all speech acts, I do think that the active teaching of listening is one of the things least well done in our school" (Wilkinson, Davies, & Berrill, 1990, p. ix).

This study shows that the Careers Officers and the employers were not involved in the preparation of students in fostering their speaking and listening skills. They acknowledge the importance of these skills in the work place and they stop at that, it is, it seems, not part of their 'job' to tackle what they may see as shortcomings. So it is the

**English teachers and only the English teachers who can place speaking and listening skills in their rightful place!**

**In the next chapter the findings from the interviews and observations will be combined with the finding from the students' questionnaire in Chapter seven. These findings will provide data to fulfil the objectives of this study.**

## **CHAPTER 9**

### **SUMMARY**

#### **DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

##### **9.1 INTRODUCTION**

In this chapter, the context of the study is discussed, then a summary of the findings is presented. The context of the study provides features and background that may help the readers to decide on the extent of the generalisations that can be made from the findings. This is followed by discussion, conclusions and recommendations.

##### **9.2 CONTEXT OF THE STUDY**

According to Verma and Mallick (1999), “ the researcher working in the field of social sciences must exercise great caution in making generalisation from the findings. There is a need to adopt a research strategy incorporating qualitative judgements and quantitative measurements” (p. 10). In this study, both qualitative judgements and quantitative measurements were adopted. The method used was triangulation (see Chapter 6); the interviews were qualitative in nature, the observations of the classroom and the moderating meetings were partly qualitative and partly quantitative and finally the findings based from the Student Questionnaire were purely quantitative. This strategy uses more than one method because single-method studies are no longer defensible in the social sciences. Each method in this study has yielded information about some aspect of the problem. According to Trend (1978) what is critical is that the different “pictures” be allowed to merge. As shown earlier, and again in this Chapter, the multidimensional methodology used has allowed the different pictures to merge and to give a holistic view of what is happening in the English language classroom.

As in many examples of educational research due to the constraints of school organisation, time and resources, it was not possible to choose the sample randomly. Cohen and Manion (1994), however, argue that non-random sampling can prove to be perfectly adequate where “researchers do not intend to generalise their findings beyond the sample in question” (p. 88). In this study, even though the sample was not randomly chosen measures were taken to ensure a certain degree of representativeness. As explained in Chapters 6 and 7, eleven County Schools (20%), one Voluntary Aided School (20%) and one Voluntary Controlled School (25%) were involved in the study and the schools were well distributed geographically throughout the County of Humberside (Figure 7-2). The schools were co-educational, except for one boy’s school. The HoDs and the English teachers were experienced teachers who had been teaching for more than 10 years. The study focused on Year 11 students. The large sample of students (1105, 9.2%) in this study was to ensure representativeness. The students had had the experience of learning English in the National Curriculum since Year 5 (8/9 years old) in the primary school, when the National Curriculum was formally introduced. They had then followed English in the National Curriculum in secondary school from Year 7 (11/12 years old) starting in September 1991.

In view of the nature and size of the samples studied, it is argued that to a certain extent the findings can be generalised to secondary schools in England and Wales which have the same broad features as the sample in this study.

In this study it was found that none of the Humberside schools is involved in the National Oracy Project (see Chapter 4), the objectives of which are: to enhance the role of speech in the learning process 5-16 by encouraging active learning; to develop the teaching of oral communication skills; to develop methods of assessment of and through speech, including assessment for public examinations at 16+; to improve pupils'

performance across the curriculum; to enhance teachers' skills and practice; to promote recognition of the value of oral work in schools and increase its use as a means of improving learning (Norman, 1992). The Humberside HoDs and the teachers, by not participating in the Project, have lost not only valuable current information about teaching and learning but also the possibility of making professional links to other teachers and to other ideas for teaching Speaking and Listening.

One limitation of this research study is the nature of responses to the Student Questionnaire. Some of the students might have responded to the statements in a way that they felt was desirable, rather than expressing their true feelings about the statement. This is a problem encountered by many researchers, in relation to student responses. In order to minimise this problem, in this study, the teachers were asked to administer the Student Questionnaire. It was hoped that the students would feel more comfortable and able to express their true feelings about the statements in the presence of their teacher instead of the researcher. In addition, the students were informed of the purpose of the survey and assured that it was not a test (see Appendices 6-1 & 6-2). The students also were not required to write down their names and this gave them the assurance of being anonymous.

As an outsider who comes from a country where English is a second language, the researcher was not seen by the HoDs and the teachers an appraisal officer. They knew the researcher did not have the experience of going through the educational system in Britain, did not have any experience of teaching in England and had no "official" connections. They were informed that the main purpose of this study was to find out about the teaching of Speaking and Listening skills in secondary schools after the introduction of the National Curriculum and to relate these skills to the work place. The HoDs and the teachers who agreed to participate in this study were very helpful and indeed gave their full co-operation. On the other hand, the researcher's unfamiliarity with the educational

system and school culture might also be a disadvantage, since it is possible that she failed to observe certain significant points or interpreted them according to her values. The likelihood of this kind of bias was reduced by visiting several schools and through extensive discussion with the school staff. Reflecting on Gerbner's General Model of Communication (1956), what is perceived by the researcher is determined by the 'selection, context and availability' of events during the research.

After considering the context of the study discussed above, overall this is a useful study for those who are involved directly or indirectly with the world of education. There are so many events occurring around us daily of which we are very much aware, but we do not realise that we have been taking them for granted. One such case is the teaching and learning of Speaking and Listening skills in the classroom. The findings below can help us to reflect on the issues positively and to focus our attention and reflect on the issues that generate the problem. We must find appropriate ways to rectify the problems.

#### **9.4 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS**

The findings of the present study will be discussed in terms of the objectives outlined in Chapter 6:

**Objective (i). To find out whether there is any link between the students' perception of learning Speaking and Listening in secondary school, and the future use of Speaking and Listening at work place**

Based on the analysis of the Student Questionnaire, it was found that the students had a strong perception about learning Speaking and Listening in their English class (Table 7-3). The majority of the students perceived that the skills of Speaking and

Listening were either *Very Important* or *Quite Important* for students seeking jobs (Table 7-15). In addition they perceived that the language skills most used during work experience were Speaking and Listening, rather than Reading and Writing (Table 7-13). They also thought that that they would be able to handle jobs which require a great deal of Speaking and Listening (Table 7-13). From this part of the analysis of the Student Questionnaire, it can be deduced that to a certain extent the students perceived that the learning of Speaking and Listening in school is linked to the use of Speaking and Listening at work place.

It was also found that the relationship between students' perception of the importance of Speaking and Listening skills for students seeking jobs, and their perception of the importance of Speaking and Listening skills in the classroom situation was significant. This means that the students' perception of the importance of Speaking and Listening skills for students seeking jobs is related to their perception of the value of these same skills in the class environment (Table 7-30).

This study shows that the majority of the students were *Quite Satisfied* or *Very Satisfied* with their Speaking and Listening skills during their work experience (Table 7-14), so much so that the majority of students perceived that they are *Not Very Keen At All* or *Not Very Keen* to attend special classes to improve their Speaking and Listening. This shows that the students were not aware of the intricacies of Speaking and Listening and of the extent of their importance in the work place. Students thought their present level of skills to be sufficient for them to deal with Speaking and Listening at the work place. Here is an example that shows that the students' perception of learning Speaking and Listening in school was not fully linked with the work place. They had not been made aware of the problems faced by job applicants or new employees regarding Speaking and



Listening skills (Byrne, 1976; DES, 1975; DES 1982; Hunt & Cusella, 1983; Jones, 1988; Maguire, Fairbairn & Fletcher, 1986; Murphy & Jenks, 1982, Woodcock, 1979).

During their two weeks' work experience, the students were exposed to the practical aspect of Speaking and Listening at the work place. Unfortunately, at the school level, before or after the work experience', students were not given support to make them realise the significance of Speaking and Listening and that it goes deeper than they perceived. This is based on the information that the majority of the students had only once talked to the Careers Officer or the Careers Teacher. More than a quarter of the students said that they had not talked to the Careers Teacher (Table 7-11) who is available in the school. Since the majority of the students saw the Careers Officer or the Careers Teacher only once and the majority of the students did not discuss Speaking and Listening skills with the Careers Officer or Careers Teacher, this indicates that the Careers Officer and the Careers Teacher do not provide links between students' perception of learning Speaking and Listening in school, and their future use at work place. As mentioned in Chapter 7, this finding is consistent with Grubb's (1995) finding that most secondary school courses are academic in nature, not linked to the real world of employment. Grubb concludes that "Career counselling has all but vanished" (p. 87).

At the school level, the Careers Officer's main focus was on further education or employment. During the interviews, the Careers Officers agreed that Speaking and Listening were important but also said that their advice did not include telling students to pay attention to these skills. As noted earlier, their main concern was to discuss the students' future plans: either for further education or employment. The minimal level of importance attached to Speaking and Listening skills is highlighted by comparison with such issues as how to dress and how to behave at interviews, on which Careers Officers said they did give advice.

This, again, demonstrates beyond question that under present arrangements in Humberside, Careers Officers are not an appropriate contact for the students to find out about the levels and kinds of Speaking and Listening skills required for the work place, or to obtain advice on standards.

The interview with the representative from HULL COMPACT, shows that the purpose of the school-business partnership is to help more young people to stay in full-time education after the compulsory school age. In one of the HULL COMPACT pamphlets it is stated that "Hull Compact is trying to help more young people to stay on through its bursaries and grants because staying on means better qualifications and better qualifications mean better jobs" (Appendix 7-1). One of the COMPACT GOALS is 'Competence in English and Mathematics'. Here the importance of Speaking and Listening are implied, rather than made explicit under the goal "Competence in English". Rather surprisingly, this partnership does not provide links between students' perception of Learning Speaking and Listening skills in school and the future use of Speaking and Listening at work place.

As mentioned earlier, the students had a strong perception about learning Speaking and Listening in their English class (Table 7-3) and they perceived that they were learning more listening than speaking. This is probably due to the fact that teachers speak to the whole class most of the time and the students spend their time listening. This finding is consistent with the finding of a survey, over the years 1975-1978 which involved 348 secondary schools where "pupils usually spent more time in reading and writing than they did in talking and listening; *and in the oral exchanges between class and teacher very much more time in listening than talking*. Most of the talking by pupils was to the response to questions" (DES, 1979, p. 94, italics added).

A more recent survey on the *Evaluation of the implementation of English in the National Curriculum at key stages 1, 2 and 3*, over the years 1991-1993 by Raban, Clark, and McIntyre on behalf of the National Curriculum Council, also found similar evidence that “the most common Speaking and Listening observed in all Key Stages was that of teacher speaking to the whole class (p. 125)

During observations in the current study, it was found that the distribution of speaking and listening was not balanced between the teachers and the students and among the students. Garner and Bing (1973) in their study also found that the balance of classroom events was very uneven. If they lack the opportunity to participate as speakers and become merely passive listeners, students will be at a disadvantage when they need to link the Speaking and Listening skills of the classroom with their future use at work.

The Newsom Report, Half Our Future (CACfE, 1963, para 467) mentioned this particular issue and stated that very few pupil learn how to listen carefully. According to the report, the example given by the teacher is important, that is, whether “when he teaches is it all monologue or a reasonably balanced dialogue in which the pupils get a fair chance; is he interested in what they have to say?”. Employers placed listening skills as a crucial part of the curriculum for organisational communication courses (Shockley-Zalabak, 1985).

The analysis of the Student Questionnaire revealed also that the students did not often participate in expressive activities such as group discussions and debates, giving a talk to the class, mock interviews, and drama and role-playing. With regard to group discussion and debates, more than half of the students perceived they went through the activities only *A Few Times* or *Occasionally*. They are two activities that link directly to the work place for new employees because these activities give students the opportunity to develop interpersonal skills to work with another person. Muchmore and Galvin (1983)

found in their study that it is likely that new employees will find themselves working with another individual or in small groups. Muchmore and Galvin also reported that in the US, career advisory personnel rank highly those communication skills related to successful small group performance.

As for talking to the class, more than half of the students perceived the frequency of use to fall between *Occasionally* and *Never*. In this study, experience of giving a talk to whole class, whole school, visitors and parents, was correlated with nervousness (Table 7-10). Students who had more opportunity to talk tended to be less nervous (Tables: 7-25, 7-26, 7-27, & 7-28). Talking to different audiences will give them confidence, now and in the future.

Drama and role-playing offer opportunities for students to link classroom learning with the work place. The students could participate in meetings, court cases, selling and buying products, handling customer complaints, and so forth, that could relate to the work place. According to Corson (1988), "the unprepared, unrehearsed dramatization used in role play is well suited to the interests and temperaments of senior school children" (p. 109). Corson also believed that role-play will provide an unforgettable experience for individuals, attempting to think themselves into roles belonging to others. In this study, it was found that sometimes role-play is used in the teaching of Speaking and Listening, but not as frequently as in the teaching of literature. The students too perceived that drama and role-playing were not used *Very Often* or *Quite Often* (Table 7-5). Unfortunately, the majority of the students thought they *Never* participated at all, even in the Mock Interview activity which they could relate directly to the work place.

For receptive activities: watching video, listening to pupil talk and listening to tapes, only a minority of students perceived their teachers as using these activities often. The majority of the students also perceived that they watched videos only a *Few Times* or

*Occasionally.* With regard to listening to tapes, the majority of the students said they were *Never* exposed to this medium for Speaking and Listening activity in class. Muchmore and Galvin (1983) in their study found that listening skills are consistently ranked as the most important communication skills for new employees.

Opportunities to participate actively in group discussions and debates, giving a talk to the class, mock interviews, and drama and role-playing are the most likely links between students' perception of Learning Speaking and Listening skills in school and the future use of Speaking and Listening at work place. It is evident from these findings that students either had few opportunities to use Speaking and Listening skills or failed to participate in them in a recognisable manner.

**Objective (ii). To find out whether there is any link between teachers' perception of learning Speaking and Listening in school, and the future use of Speaking and Listening at work place**

The interviews with the HoDs and the teachers revealed that Speaking and Listening in school were taught in accordance with English in the National Curriculum in all the thirteen secondary schools in the County of Humberside. The HoDs and the teachers first studied and internalised the curriculum for the school and then prepared the scheme of work at the departmental level. The strategy adopted was to combine structured planning of policy documents and schemes of work with teachers' own plans for dealing with Speaking and Listening skills for classroom practice.

As discussed in Chapter 5, the General Requirement of the National Curriculum includes the entitlement for all pupils to learn the full range of skills necessary to them to develop competence in standard English. One of the needs is to speak standard English fluently and accurately "in order to participate confidently in public, cultural and working

life” (DfE, 1995a, p. 2). Since the HoDs and the teachers are following the order, the link is clear that apart from preparing students for other developments, they also need to prepare the students to speak and to listen at the workplace.

During the interviews, the HoDs and the teachers claimed to recognise the importance of Speaking and Listening in the work place, but no clear link between teaching activities and Speaking and Listening in the work place was found either in the teacher interviews or in the classroom observations.

Regarding school leavers and their future employment, the HoDs agreed that Speaking and Listening skills were very important for students in job interviews. The first experience of interviews for all students would be during the work experience placement. Some of the HoDs agreed that no attention was given to Speaking and Listening during the work experience programme. The most important aim was simply to get a work place of any kind for each student. Matching of students skills and needs to the placement was not possible.

The HoDs said they might mention the importance of Speaking and Listening at work "if the situation was right". This was based on materials for specific activities of Speaking and Listening given by the HoDs during the time when students were required to evaluate their work experience individually, or as a group activity.

One of the HoDs thought that, generally, employers were not well informed about the school curriculum. Some teachers felt that employers do not even know the curriculum in school or what is going on in school. What teachers do in school is detached from the work place, in the sense that the employers are not well informed.

The interview with an employer revealed that, in his view, Speaking and Listening skills were very important to school leavers, whether to go to college or to enter employment. His company had the responsibility to give more opportunities to students

to further their education. The students were selected based on the COMPACT Goals, One of which was for the students to have the ability to speak and listen. The students had to go for an interview before they could gain a COMPACT Award. This interview was the final stage to find out whether a candidate would be able to communicate his ideas and would be able to work in a team.

Another employer said that mostly, students learned how to cope with the requirements for Speaking and Listening in the work place through experience. According to him, when the students were at school, probably they were not aware of the importance of Speaking and Listening at work. In spite of this understanding, his company did not provide any specific training in Speaking and Listening.

From this part of the study, it can be deduced there is no direct link between teachers and the work place, the former do not explicitly prepare students for speaking and listening at work, while the latter claimed that they do not know what was going on in school.

The HoDs and the teachers also believed that if students were to be competent speakers and listeners they should be exposed to a variety of activities for Speaking and Listening. The teachers and the HoDs said they used a variety of activities. Some of the activities were group discussions, giving a talk to class and press conferences. In order to facilitate the activities, the HoDs and the teachers would alter the groupings or the sitting position, for example, while providing the resources. The desks would be arranged in a u-shape or in clusters to allow flexibility for the students to work in pairs, small groups or as a class. From the Student Questionnaire, however it was revealed that in the students' view, the range of activities was limited. The students had the same audience during their activities and there was no indication that another teacher from another class was invited as a speaker or as an audience. This finding is consistent

with the finding of Raban, Clark, and McIntyre (1993) that “the range of types of talk and audiences for Speaking and Listening in Key Stages 1-3 classrooms did not adequately reflect those identified in the Order” ( p. 125).

In the Northern Examinations and Assessment Board’s *Syllabus for 1995, 1996 and 1997 English 1611*, for a student to be given Grade A\* (28-30 marks) the candidate must fulfil the following criteria:

The candidate will **listen attentively and respond persuasively and engagingly** in familiar and unfamiliar situations; s/he will **establish and maintain an appropriate atmosphere**, integrating **mature vocabulary and phraseology, tone, intonation and pace** in performances which achieve a **telling but sensitive impact** upon listeners. Communication will be **consistently effective and interesting**, across a range of content and with **various audiences, including some which are unknown** to the candidate.” (original emphasis, p.17).

In other words, if students are to be competent speakers and listeners, they should be exposed to and have the skills to respond to a variety of audiences, including some which are unfamiliar to them. This opportunity, that is, to have different audiences from the work place or in the imagination, such as in drama or role-play, was not given to the students in the schools of the sample. This shows that the teachers did not perceive the outcome of tasks and the different types of talk as planning issues. Some teachers did not highlight the role and purpose of each activity. This is possibly the result of integrating the four language arts. Without planning of the teaching of Speaking and Listening as discrete skills, it is not usually possible to link learning Speaking and Listening in school with their future use at work.



Most of the English classrooms observed were equipped with television, video-player, cassette players and printed materials. In some schools, camcorders were available. A major problem faced by most of the teachers was the poor acoustics of the teaching rooms. The HoDs and the teachers agreed that a conducive environment must be created by the teacher, either in the classroom or outside. If 'conducive environment' can be interpreted as the availability of resources such as multimedia, then the classrooms were suitable. However, it was found that the multimedia resources were not frequently used. In a 'conducive environment' teachers will provide support in order to make the students feel comfortable, and to have active participation. But in two observations, it was found that the teachers were very concerned about discipline and they appeared unable to allow the necessary high level of student participation.

Another finding from the interviews was that the HoDs and the English teachers agreed that students should be taught some principles of public speaking, so that the students would have the right guidelines to interact. But the HoDs and the teachers were not keen that speech courses as a subject be taught at secondary school level. Furthermore, in the school situation, the HoDs said the only opportunity to practise public speaking was during assembly. One HoD said that during Speaking and Listening activities, students could be informed of the principles of effective Speaking and Listening where appropriate and according to context, although no instances were cited. From the interviews, too, it was found that only one teacher was teaching the concept of body language, while some teachers said they mentioned certain concepts of public speaking only when 'the time is right' in the class situation, i.e. such events were not a planned part of their teaching. The study has shown, that during Speaking and Listening lessons, only limited activities and limited skills related to work place were carried out and practised with the students.

In one observation by the researcher, it was found that the teacher was more interested in the product than the process. Based on a period of class observation, peer-assessment was found to be nothing more than the class voting, without being given any guidance for the marks to be given to the speaker. There was no teacher feedback, written or verbal, on the performances of the speaker, nor were there any suggestions for improvement. Such feedback would have been useful for both the speaker and the audience. Here was a missed opportunity to link what is learned in the class with the expectations of employers.

From the classroom observations, it was found that the teachers still dominated the class and did more talking than the students, except for a few instances when the students were presenting. Probably because of the lack of feedback and poor discussion of presentations, few students participated in the question and answer sessions; most students were passive listeners.

Contrary to the practice observed in the classroom, in interviews the teachers generally agreed on the importance of feedback to the students. They said that students would improve only if they were aware of their weaknesses in Speaking and Listening skills. Since the assessment process for Speaking and Listening was an ongoing process, the teachers said they would point out the strengths and the weaknesses of the students appropriately. Nevertheless, during the class observations, in a few schools, only very limited feedback was given to the students and the examples above were more typical than exceptional.

During the interviews, some teachers claimed that they had tried using several techniques in their classroom to help students overcome their nervousness. One way to make the students comfortable was to start off activities with pair work, or discuss a topic of students' interest. In this way, the students would not feel nervous or threatened. Each

pair then joined another pair to present their ideas. When the students were comfortable in groups of this size, they would then proceed to whole class activities. The students' perception, however, was different (Table 7-10).

The most common context for Speaking and Listening involved the teacher speaking and the students listening in a whole class activity that was monitored and evaluated by the teacher. When discussion took place with a teacher, it was most likely to be a teacher directed discussion. The most common type of talk observed was asking the class closed questions in a teacher directed discussion.

Generally there is no explicit link between teacher's perception of learning Speaking and Listening in school, and the future use of Speaking and Listening at work place.

**Objective (iii). To find out whether the students perceive Speaking and Listening as important in working life.**

The data shows (Table 7-13) that the students frequently used Speaking and Listening skills during their work experience and they perceived that the language skills most used during work experience were Speaking and Listening, rather than Reading and Writing components. The majority of the students, however, were not keen to attend Speaking and Listening classes because they thought they were doing well enough using these skills during their work experience. Only a minority was keen on having such classes (Table 7-14). This shows that the students were able to perceive the importance of Speaking and Listening skills at the work place but unable to visualise the actual demand of these skills at the work place.

The relationship between students' perception of the importance of Speaking and Listening skills for students seeking jobs, and their perception of the importance of

Speaking and Listening at home and in class, was found to be significant (Table 7-30). This means that the students' perception of the importance of Speaking and Listening skills for seeking jobs is very much related to their perception of the value of these same skills in the home and in the class environment.

Students' perceptions of the importance of Speaking and Listening for students seeking jobs are significantly associated with their perceptions of the frequency of speaking to their teachers and to the whole class, giving talks to the whole class and outside school (Table 7-31). Students' perceptions of the importance of Speaking and Listening for students seeking jobs are very much related to their perceptions of the frequency of speaking or giving talks to different audiences, especially to the more common everyday audiences: teacher, class and audience outside the school.

The students' perception of the frequency of using Speaking and Listening skills whilst on work experience was significantly associated with their perception of the importance of Speaking and Listening for students seeking jobs (Table 7-29).

## **9.4 DISCUSSION**

The discussion is divided into subtopics to highlight some of the main issues that emerged in this study.

### **9.4.1 Work Place**

In this study it was found that schools do not explicitly prepare their students with the Speaking and Listening skills needed for an effective working life. Of course, it is not expected that every activity must be related directly to working life. All English teaching can be considered relevant to a greater or lesser extent to working life, because students' command of language is developed not only through direct instruction, but also by

linguistic experience that may seem to be not overtly 'beneficial' at all. So classroom activities, which to the non educationist may seem purely an end in themselves and unrelated to a working life, are still very important. To leave out these activities from teachers' repertoire of strategies would restrict language teaching and learning.

It is true that school is unable to provide a real life experience. "Much of what is learned in school is artificial (not in the negative sense of the term) and technically complex. If the match is right, the child will want to learn, ... but he will often need help to see what there is to learn and how one may attack it." (Cashdan, 1979, p. 9). Likewise, the HoDs and the teachers need to help the students to see what there is to learn. This is what Vygostky and Bruner meant when they stressed the use of scaffolding by adults in their 'Zone of Proximal Development' and 'Language Acquisition Support System' theories respectively (see Chapter 3). Most of the time, students' imagination cannot be stretched out too far in areas where they have no experience. Work experience is a good start but since the time is limited, the students need to be exposed to more situations in the work place.

The obvious need is for teachers and work representatives to meet and to visit each other's place of work and to include Speaking and Listening skills in their programmes. It is imperative for the teachers to make known to their students the demands of commerce and industry. Looking at the English Speaking and Listening skills which the industry requires of its young entrants, it is noticeable that these are very wide-ranging. For example a clerical worker: "should be able to talk to workers and managers usefully and informatively, avoiding bureaucratic unhelpfulness on the one hand and undue deference on the other; make effective use of the telephone; appreciate the need to widen vocabulary" (see Appendix 9-1). The teacher cannot ignore such specific needs and at the same time must be prepared to take action to improve students' skills.

Meetings should be locally arranged between the individual school and employers. In this study, HULL COMPACT is a good example of school and industry partnership, but it needs development of its objectives in order to give more attention to Speaking and Listening skills. The Careers Research and Advisory Centre (1982) reported that in one Essex school, the drama department worked with careers and English teachers in helping students to make applications for jobs. Practice interviews were set up so that young applicants would have some idea of what it feels like to be interviewed and to expose them to the kind of questions that may be asked. Real situations can help students more than mock-interviews. In employment interviews, applicants are expected to talk more than interviewers. Stewart and Cash (1991) state that the preferred ratio of communication time between interviewer and interviewee is approximately 20% and 80%, respectively. Unfortunately, in this study, it was found that the majority of the students did not even have the opportunity to participate in 'Mock-interviews' or any other form of preparation.

#### **9. 4. 2 Students' Nervousness**

In this study it was also found that the majority of students perceived themselves as "nervous" if they are required to give a talk to whole class, to the whole school, to visitors or parents or to an audience outside school. Nervousness is an indication of anxiety or communication apprehension linked especially to unfamiliarity and lack of experience talking to an audience. High communication apprehension has not been demonstrated to be related to intelligence but research has shown that it is related to communication avoidance (Bourhis & Allen, 1992; Richmond, 1984; Richmond & McCroskey, 1995) and avoiding thinking and preparing for job interviews (Ayres,

Keereetaweep, Chen, & Edwards, 1998). Lack of structured experience probably explains why the majority of the students were passive (i.e. non-speakers) during oral work.

Job interview is considered to be anxiety provoking (McCroskey, 1976) and for people entering the job market, performance in a job interview is a critical determinant of whether they will be hired (Bell, 1982; Eder & Ferris, 1989; Mino, 1996). The HoDs and the teachers should look into this matter to help students to overcome their problems, so that students' nervousness will not affect their performance first at interviews and later at the workplace.

#### **9. 4. 3 Body Language**

The study also shows that only in one school were the students taught about body language. The analysis of the Student Questionnaire shows that a majority of them were not very sure about certain aspects of body language. According to Abercrombie (1972) "we speak with our vocal organs, but we converse with our entire bodies; conversation consists of much more than a simple interchange of spoken words." (p. 64). Birdwhistell (1970) says that non verbal body behaviours act like significant sounds that combine into single or relatively complex units, like words. Marshall and Rossman (1995) assert that body movements, ranging from a single nod to a series of hand and leg gestures, can attach additional meaning to spoken words. For effective performance, students therefore must learn about and use body language. They can be assumed to understand or learn by experiencing the process, but they will be more prepared if they happen to know some functions of body language. This is just one important component of Speaking and Listening skills but it is nevertheless a significant part of knowledge or skills that may contribute to success at school and afterwards.

#### 9. 4. 4 Practice and Feedback

What we are concerned with is the quality of education. "Quality" begins with education and ends with education," says Dr. Kaoru Ishikawa (as cited in Barry, 1999), the godfather of Quality Control in Japan. In education, knowledge is essential for success. According to Barry (1999) the formula to success is: **KNOWLEDGE + PRACTICE + FEEDBACK = SUCCESS**. In learning Speaking and Listening skills, other related knowledge or skills play an enhancing role. Students therefore need to practise and they need feedback from their teachers. Though Speaking and Listening skills are considered practical aspects of language learning students need to be given some principles of Speaking and Listening too. Integration is manifold and very complex. For example, a teacher can integrate inductive and deductive approaches. In some lessons, the students can be informed of the principles of good Speaking and Listening skills before they embark on Speaking and Listening activities, but at another time, after the activities the students may be given feedback on how to improve the activities and the teacher can explain the principles of effective Speaking and Listening. This should be done immediately, while the context is right and still fresh in the students' mind. Unfortunately, in this study it was found that the students received very little or no feedback, they had very little practice and they were not provided with knowledge of effective Speaking and Listening skills.

The importance of feedback to teachers is addressed by Galloway, Leo, Rogers and Armstrong (1966). They explain the need for explicit feedback and ongoing information about reasons for students' success and failure. The availability of feedback and continuous supply of information can assist students to understand better such reasons and to develop mastery skills. In this way, the students can begin to understand their role in their own learning and in turn have more control over their own learning processes.



Ongoing information is important at all levels. It should be ongoing from Key Stage 1 to Key Stage 4. Learning demands structure and direction which is achieved partly by being explicit about the functions of teaching. The students are entitled to be told the aim of activities; they need to be supplied with relevant information and help, both when they request it and when they seem to need it.

*“Merely providing opportunities for talking and listening in the classroom is not an adequate substitute for informed and systematic instruction in oral communication.*

There is no reason to believe that most students will improve their oral communication skills by a process of osmosis” (Witkin, Lovern, & Lundsteen, 1996, p. 56, original emphasis).

Barnes, Britton, and Torbe (1986) explain in detail the importance of student participation in language teaching. They point out that when students are required to use language to handle a new experience or to re-order an old experience, they are most likely to find it necessary to use language differently. Barnes, Britton, and Torbe emphasise that this is the first step towards new patterns of thinking and feeling, new ways of representing reality to oneself and not merely imitating the forms of teachers’ language. Through participation and use, students modify the way they use language in order to organise reality and in doing so, they are able to find new functions for language in thinking and feeling. Barnes, Britton, and Torbe claim that the low level of student participation in class, “is a matter of some educational urgency” (p. 58).

#### **9. 4. 5 Field of Experience**

In a classroom situation, the opportunity of communication between a teacher and a student is boundless and the 'field of experience' of the teacher must be shared by the 'field of experience' of the student before effective communication can take place. In

order for students to understand the teacher while they are interacting with (Speaking and Listening to) each other, they must at least share the same common experience. From the study, it was also found that no effort is taken to make sure the experience of the students matches the experience of the teacher. In the classroom, the power is with the teacher, with 'real authority power', experience and knowledge. It is true in real life that a student may not match the teacher's 'field of experience' but at least teachers should be aware that during communication it is important to remember the 'speaker's' or the 'receiver's' field of experience as an important factor in successful communication.

The above problem was also discussed in Chapter 4. It was shown that a teacher cannot convey information in 'pure' form due to didactic constraints. Verret (as cited in Forquin, 1995) explains that "what is imparted to a child at school cannot be, for all sorts of pedagogical reasons, the original knowledge but is rather its didactic substitute". Francis (1994) too highlighted the problem that the student's 'voice' on the value of Speaking and Listening is very different from his teacher's and neither understands the other with respect to the importance of Speaking and Listening. What we are dealing with now is the constraints in the classroom. A teacher must be aware of problems in teaching Speaking and Listening skills in order to be able to take certain measures to overcome or minimise them.

#### **9. 4. 6 Use of Resources**

In the *GCSE: The national criteria* it is stated that "Candidates should be able to: understand and respond imaginatively to what they hear and experience in a *variety of media*; understand, order and present facts, ideas and opinions" (DES, 1985d, Aims 1.12 and 2.12, italics added).

In the English classrooms observed, however, there was little use of media in assisting language learning, especially in promoting Speaking and Listening. Computers were used to produce students' reports and a video production was literature based. These are two good activities for students, but not ones that address Speaking and Listening as a subject in its own right. One of the functions of classroom use of video for English teaching could be to improve language performance skills, whether of formal speaking, oral reading, interview, movement etc. by instant student self-evaluation. Self-criticism can improve language standards. Unfortunately, in this study, only in one class video was being utilised for the teaching of Speaking and Listening skills.

The analysis of the Student Questionnaire also revealed that the students reported that they did not often participate in media based activities such as watching video or listening to tapes. The majority of the students reported watching video as part of language lessons only *A Few Times* or *Occasionally*. The majority of them were never exposed to listening to tapes as an activity in learning Speaking and Listening skills. More than two decades ago, the National Union for Teachers (NUT) commented that listening as opposed to hearing is an underrated skill. The Committee recommended that "opportunities for the development of children's listening ability should be included in the normal class situation and that audio-visual aids should be used more frequently in this context." (NUT, 1976, p. 21). Unfortunately, in this study, it was obvious that there is under use of equipment.

#### **9. 4. 7 The Teaching and Learning of Speaking and Listening Skills**

At the time of the study the researcher formed an impression that the HoDs and the teachers in the County of Humberside were in total agreement that the last few years before the introduction of the National Curriculum were rather unsettling for many

English teachers. They particularly welcomed the period of stability after the 'chaos' brought about by the series of curriculum modifications proposed by the various government reports: the Kingman curriculum, the Cox curriculum and finally the Dearing Review and the new Orders. They generally agreed that they were now happy with the English curriculum as it had emerged. Backed by the new 'Orders', Speaking and Listening have been given equal status with Reading and Writing in the National Curriculum. The increasing awareness of the importance of Speaking and Listening skills in school is seen with the appearance of the grade on the certificate for the first time in 1996. But the findings of this study show that this acknowledgement is not the end; it is just the beginning. From now on, the teachers have to make an effort to put into classroom practice the objectives set out in English in the National Curriculum (DfE, 1995a).

Overall, the findings confirm that it is the responsibility of individual teachers to adapt the materials and activities of the set plan to suit the needs of their individual students in the class. The success of the activities depends on the teachers' repertoire of strategies in the teaching of Speaking and Listening skills. In addition to that, teachers' creativity and expertise plays a prominent role in ensuring that all students are given equal opportunity to develop their Speaking and Listening skills. Each department could produce a good scheme of work for the students, but it is up to the individual teacher to implement the plans in the classroom.

The study also revealed that the majority of the HoDs and the teachers are 'old hands' at the job. Their teaching experience ranged from 10 to 25 years. Unfortunately, however, they had not attended in-service courses for a long time, nor had they had the opportunity to update their knowledge and skills in order to keep up with the latest trends in language teaching. Since teachers in the survey sample were not involved with the

National Oracy Project, it can be assumed that they were unlikely to be keeping abreast with the latest development in the teaching of Speaking and Listening skills. Other teachers outside the County of Humberside were active in the Oracy Project and will almost certainly have derived much benefit from their involvement. Is it possible that the HoDs and the teachers at Humberside are neglecting conversation and discussion in their classes, just as Trueman (1990) did before she joined the National Oracy Project.

The findings of the current study have shown that it is possible that some students are not sure about the meaning of Speaking and Listening skills and may be unaware that they are not learning these skills. When the students simply use 'communicative competence' (Bruner, 1975, see Chapter 4), that is, the use of language in ordinary discourse, according to Bruner (1975) it has minimal effect on the thought of its users. The students were not thinking about what they were learning. This is due to the fact the fact that they lacked the opportunity to participate actively in class activities, they did not have a wide range of opportunities to address groups of different sizes and compositions inside and outside school, and they did not have the benefit of comment, encouragement and teacher's feedback. These factors would not help much in their understanding of learning Speaking and Listening. So, as long as Speaking and Listening took place, they assumed that they were learning the skills. Actually, the students need more experience as participants in genuine discussion so that they can develop their higher order thinking or 'analytical competence' (Bruner, 1975). This is an ability to use language for thinking. The teachers need to provide a learning environment that integrates rich and complex interactional language activities.

#### **9. 4. 8 Knowledge of Theories and Models**

In this study Speaking and Listening have been defined as:

**The internal and external ability and willingness of a versatile user of spoken language to communicate and to participate responsibly in any situation as a speaker and a listener in such a way as to maximise the outcome of shared meaning.**

The above definition of speaking and listening skills can be linked to communication and language models. By understanding the strengths and the weaknesses of these models and theories, teachers can increase their awareness of the rich and complex of speaking and listening, thus avoiding taking them for granted.

As mentioned earlier, in Chapter 8, the National Curriculum does not prescribe the methodology to be adopted by the teachers, so it is up to the teachers to come up with teaching strategies which they think are most appropriate for teaching Speaking and Listening skills. The HoDs and the teachers in this study had not attended in-service courses and they were relying mostly on their knowledge gained during their initial training, plus their experience, therefore, it is possible that they would be at a disadvantage translating the National Curriculum. It is true all the HoDs and that the teachers were given support in the form of booklets and video tapes from the SCCA and DES and also by the examination board, but they need more exposure to knowledge of theories and models regarding speaking and listening, because in the classroom situation, knowledge of the theories behind the teaching of Speaking and Listening is very important to ensure that the teaching is effective (Taylor, 1983).

Teachers, especially those teaching English, need to have knowledge about communication. This will help them in their teaching and also in imparting knowledge to

students. In schools, the integration must take a wider spectrum, to integrate not only the language arts but also the theoretical knowledge that underlies the practical aspects in Speaking and Listening, in short, the teaching of human communication skills. The purpose of Speaking is to communicate; the purpose of listening is to communicate, so models of communication are imperative for the improvement of Speaking and Listening skills among students.

In order to give students some knowledge of Speaking and Listening skills, the models of human communication skills are useful to English teachers. As mentioned earlier, in Chapter 2, the communication models are not 'sacred'; teachers could modify them according to their needs and those of their students. The models can, however, help the teachers and the students not to take things for granted and to focus on important aspects of communication; the speaker, the message, the medium, the receiver, the circumstances, the purpose, the effect and the noise that distract the messages. It is useful for teachers and students to know that it is wrong to assume 'communication always intends to influence the receiver' and 'communication always has effect'.

As mentioned earlier, Hodge (1993) says that language and communication are inseparable for good teaching and learning.

#### **9.4.9 Training for Teachers**

In this study it was found that the Hods and the teachers did not attend in service courses for Speaking and Listening. On the issue of training, Athanases (1977) says "many English language arts teachers have had little preparation in strategies for successful orchestration of the activities itemized in Table 1" (Athanases, 1977, p. 71). The Students' activities Athanases gives in Table 1 are: teacher-student conference, small group work, whole-class discussion, oral reading, interview, original newscast, drama,

film creation, critical film viewing, debate, and class presentation. In the US the importance of teacher training, whether initial teacher training or in-service teacher training, is highlighted by the National Communication Association (NCA) "The teaching of the specific concepts and skills of speaking, listening... should be done by those trained in these areas" (NCA, 1966, p. 5). Among other things, they point out that teachers who were not trained in teaching Speaking and Listening skills were unable to integrate these skills in their teaching. Since Speaking and Listening studies made great leaps within the last two decades of the twentieth century, teachers need a more structured way of utilising the information that is available.

#### **9. 4. 10 Integration of the Language Arts**

The subject of 'integration' is another aspect of the language curriculum which is posing a big problem to many teachers (including English teachers) not only in UK but in USA. In the US, it is believed that the teaching of Speaking and Listening skills has been eliminated in the 'integrated' approaches toward the language arts (Barnes & Hayes, 1995). In their study of 230 English teachers in California high schools, the responses from the teachers indicated a lack of understanding of the real meaning of integration. Although over 95% of the teachers responded 'yes' to the question regarding the integration of the language arts, only 20% of the teachers gave examples, and their examples showed that they did not have a clear understanding of the subject matter. Another 40 % said they 'didn't know' of an example. Here is a clear 'warning' for teachers in Humberside schools. The HoDs and the teachers should take this 'integration' matter seriously in order to overcome the problem of paying too little attention to Speaking and Listening in the classroom. The appropriate advice is given by Barnes and



Hayes (1995), which is, to revisit the integration guidelines which emphasise the primacy of Speaking and Listening and articulate the role of speech in pedagogical application.

As regards the integration of speaking, listening, reading and writing skills; the guidelines from NCC, SCAA, DfE, DES and the Examination Boards do not provide clear cut guidance on how to integrate the four skills. As a result, although some of the HoDs and the teachers thought that they were actually teaching Speaking and Listening integrated with Reading and Writing, the students perceived themselves to be learning more writing and reading. In fact, even though the students were not taught 'How to Listen', they perceived that they were learning more Listening than Speaking. Students, like their teachers, were unaware of the Speaking and Listening skills that are to be learnt. It appears from observation, discussions and students' responses, there has been a mismatch here between the English curriculum needs and the way it is being implemented at the school level.

#### **9. 4. 11 Teachers are Pragmatics**

Based on the review of the literature and the National Curriculum, the importance of teaching of Speaking and Listening skills can be clearly seen. One wonders then, why Reading and Writing are still playing a dominant role in the English Syllabus in the schools. The review of literature also reveals that the traditional way of focusing on the teaching of reading and writing, rather than to Speaking and Listening has been dominant in the classroom (Barnes & Hayes, 1995b; Bassett, Whittington, and Staton-Spicer, 1978; Berko, 1994; Crocker, 1980; Department of Education and Science [DES] 1926, 1979; Gehrke, Knapp, & Sirotnik, 1992; Teale, 1996; Witkin, Lovern & Lundsteen, 1996). This situation is exacerbated by the traditional format of the language exam, which requires the teachers to concentrate on the teaching of reading and writing if they want their students

to pass the examination. It is a well known fact that "Schools are, above all, institutions devoted to writing" (Careers Research and Advisory Centre, 1982, p. 4) and we know that most English teachers "are pragmatic rather than ideological, basing practice on what works with and for children, rather than on grand theory or political dogma" (School of Education: Initial Teacher Training Partnership, 1995/6, p. 3). Teachers, from their long teaching experience, have managed to produce good results, especially when judged by results in external examinations. It may be difficult to convince them there are other avenues to explore to ensure success for the students.

Apart from that, "from a practical point of view too, no amount of central curriculum planning, new materials from Schools Council projects, or exhortations to teachers will make significant changes in what is learnt, if school communication systems remain unchanged" (Barnes, 1976, p. 188).

## 9.5 CONCLUSIONS

The aim of this study was to obtain information about the links between the learning of Speaking and Listening skills in secondary schools and the future use of speaking and listening in the work place after the introduction of the National Curriculum. The answer to the question addressed in this research are given below.

### **9.5.1 Is there any link between the learning of Speaking and Listening in school, and future use of Speaking and Listening in the work place?**

There is no explicit link between the learning of Speaking and Listening in Humberside secondary schools, and future use of Speaking and Listening in the work place. In the schools it is assumed that whatever is learned in the classroom will be useful at the work place. Whatever links the school have with work places are mainly for further

education and employment; the duration of work experience is too short and the development of Speaking and Listening is not one of its purposes.

With regard to Speaking and Listening, the HoDs, the teachers, the moderator and the Examination Boards are working under the education sector. Their involvement is with the students. On the other hand, the employers who are working in the economic sector will be receiving the school leavers. The two parties are not linked, even though they are interested in the same product – the students who will become the employees. The Careers Officers and Careers Teachers are not bridging the gap.

Based on the answer above, it can be deduced that at the secondary school level in the County of Humberside, even after the introduction of the National Curriculum, an aspect of Speaking and Listening is neglected. The emphasis has been more upon expressive communication and generic skills rather than vocational.

## **9. 6 RECOMMENDATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH**

Based upon the review of selected literature, the findings from the interviews, the observations and the Student Questionnaire, certain recommendations for action and future research can be identified. First, and possibly most evidently, there seems to be lack of awareness among the HoDs and the teachers about the teaching and learning of Speaking and Listening skills in relation to the work place. Part of reason for this problem can be traced to the finding that the HoDs and the teachers had not attended any in-service training in these skills. As mentioned earlier (section 9. 4. 9), the National Communication Association (1996) is very concerned that the teaching of the specific concepts and skills of speaking and listening should be done by those ‘trained’ in these areas. They point out that detailed knowledge and understanding of the skills are required for teachers to integrate Speaking and Listening with Reading and Writing effectively.

Therefore the Local Education Authority with the help of local universities could arrange in-service training for the HoDs and the teachers who are teaching Speaking and Listening skills. The in-service training should give teachers up-to-date information about the teaching of Speaking and Listening and also ideas and techniques that will enable them to tackle the other problems, that have been found in the classrooms. These other problems include the limited use of multimedia, lack of feedback for students, students' nervousness, and frequency of students' participation in activities. All these should be considered while structuring the course objectives and content for the in-service training.

If we want the teachers to use multimedia, Zachariades, Jensen & Thompson (1995) remind us that knowledge alone about educational technology is definitely not adequate. They say teachers need practical examples and ideas; and they need coaching and mentoring to try new techniques in their classrooms. In order to encourage the effective use of multimedia, support could be given during in-service training but in the longer term, the schools should form one of the national networks (for example oracy projects, Chapter 4). As part of a network, the teachers could work with other teachers from different schools who are involved with the oracy projects or who are conducting action research in the field of speaking and listening. The teachers could use WWW-sites (for example: The National Council of Teacher of English, <http://www.ncte.org/>; Teacher Networks and Training, <http://www.britishcouncil.org/english/teacher.htm>; The Initial Work of the Teacher Network in England, <http://www.bath.ac.uk/Departments/Education/eu/uk.htm>) and e-mail to obtain, to offer and to exchange information within the teachers' network. The communication between participants on problems, experience and tips could enhance the teachers' professional development. A number of researchers have reported the success of teachers' networks (Bos, Krajcik, Patrick, 1995; Moonen & Voogt, 1998).

Another recommendation is for the teachers to carry out action research which could be initiated during the in-service training or as the result of participating in a wider network. Borg (1981) is sceptical about teachers making educational decisions based on personal, i.e. subjective experience. In this study there was an indication that the Humberside HoDs and the teachers relied on their subjective experience in assessing the students' skills of Speaking and Listening, apart from the moderating experience. At the same time, it was also found that the HoDs and the teachers were not keeping up with the latest developments in Speaking and Listening. This finding is consistent with Borg's statement that "many teachers ... have been getting along in their jobs for years without ever having read the educational research literature or conducted an action research project" (p. 4). He strongly urged that all teachers should carry out action research. Borg's proposal is completely in line with the work of teachers who are involved in the National Oracy Projects (see Chapter 4). Based on the above evidence and arguments, Humberside HoDs and the teachers are recommended to carry out action research related to Speaking and Listening skills. Equipping teachers with the knowledge, skills and motivation during in-service training would enable them to appreciate and to carry out action research and apply findings in their own teaching.

In the classes that were observed and according to the teachers' statements Speaking and Listening activities were always carried out in a 'student friendly' environment. Most students had the same English teacher who 'follow' them for at least two years. The rationale for this arrangement is for the teachers to get to know the students well. By following the students, it is supposed that the teachers will be able to assess their development, for example, in Speaking and Listening skills. As a consequence, there is a very 'friendly' teacher-student relationship. Students also have their friends whom they have met sometimes as long ago as during their Reception Year

(4 years old) or in Year 7 (11/12 years old) in the class. Speaking and Listening activities are carried out in this friendly environment until, suddenly, at the end of Year 11 when they leave school, the young school leavers are required to speak to strangers, with different levels of authority, in a totally different environment. The classroom related findings of the study reveal that the students were found to have very limited opportunity to participate in class activities such as giving talks and mock interviews. Most of the time they were involved in group discussions in the 'student friendly' environment. It would be good practice for students to be given more opportunities to speak and to listen to different groups or audiences; for example a "real" audience might be a different class or different teachers. Alternatively or in addition, schools could arrange as a part of work place orientation, to bring back recent school leavers to talk to Years 10 and 11 about their experience. This would be useful in any school, and of mutual benefit to speakers and audience. Bringing in outside speakers could give the students authentic experience of both Listening and Speaking, for example in questioning the speaker, and the speakers, who are young school leavers, will be given the early experience of public speaking.

Schools should also consider entering students for regional or national debating competitions organised by the English Speaking Clubs or similar organisations, after conducting such events at class and school level. The organisation of the competitions might be facilitated through a national and regional network.

In addition to in-service training for classroom teachers and the HODs, there should be equivalent awareness-raising programmes for persons outside school who will meet the students during work experience and later as school leavers. The study has identified a need for employers, teachers, careers teachers and careers officer to sit down to discuss what can be done in order to improve the quality of 'work experience'.

Discussions from all parties focusing on the structured development of speaking and listening skills before, during and after work experience could benefit the student greatly.

The literature review shows that the majority of students in the UK leave full-time education at the statutory leaving age to enter the job market (DES, 1991; Husén & Postlethwaite; 1994). Therefore, it is necessary to equip students with Speaking and Listening skills useful at the work place before age of 16. There is a need for more employers to open their door and to arrange visits for students and to give talks on the requirement of Speaking and Listening skills at their organisations.

The employers involved in this study were those who were currently working closely with Humberside secondary schools under HULL COMPACT. This school-industry partnership is an important link between schools and work place. This study, however, reveals that even this dedicated and long established partnership does not highlight the importance of Speaking and Listening skills in the work place. According to the review of literature, much research has shown that Speaking and Listening skills are imperative at the work place therefore it is recommended that schools, the careers officers and the employers to work together to find ways of incorporating the enhancement of students' skills of Speaking and Listening skills in their partnership.

The study has also identified some possible areas for future research. In this study it was found that that there is no planned link between Humberside schools' teaching and learning of Speaking and Listening skills and the future use of those skills in the work place. Future research needs to be carried out to see the effectiveness of Industry and School Partnership. Could this partnership bring about changes in the teaching of Speaking and Listening in the classroom? Should there be any changes in the management of work experience? Do school leavers communicate effectively during interviews and during their initial year of work? The findings will be useful for teachers,

students, employers and those responsible for curriculum training for students, as well as for initial and in-service teacher education.

In this study it was also found that Speaking and Listening are being relatively neglected at some secondary schools in the County of Humberside, partly due the teachers' domination of talk in the class and integration of the language arts. For future research, wider studies, such as observing more lessons from Year 7 to Year 11, or even in the primary years, could be carried out. But that may just confirm the findings in this study and other previous studies. The findings in this study have revealed a number of problems related to Speaking and Listening in the secondary schools, and it is now time to focus on the effectiveness of in-service training programmes. There is a need to see how in-service training could bring about changes in the teaching and learning of Speaking and Listening skills. The changes could be in the psychological dimensions such as motivation, attitude, anxiety and self-efficacy, or in pedagogical terms, for example, teaching approaches, the integration of the four language arts, the use of multimedia, the effect of feedback, and the monitoring and evaluation of Speaking and Listening. In the long run, research in this area will be useful for the teachers and also for those who are involved in preparing the objectives and the course content of in-service training.

In addition, research is also needed to determine whether school leavers who possess the recommended Speaking and Listening skills are, in fact, more effective than those who do not meet the requirements of the work place. Do they learn to perform job tasks more effectively and is their job performance more effective than that of those school leavers who do not show the Speaking and Listening skills needed at work place? Longitudinal studies of school leavers should be undertaken. Such studies might also be expected to supply information about the specific nature of Speaking and Listening skills



needed at the work place for young adults. Such studies might reveal that some skills are more important than others, especially at the job entry level.

## 9.7 CONCLUDING REMARKS

The findings of this study call for the Local Education Authority, the Examination Board, the Careers Officers and the Employers to work closely with the schools because “it is teachers and only teachers who can directly improve educational standards” (Dearing, 1994, p. 16). The students on the other hand need the scaffolding from teachers in order to meet the challenges of adult life for example at work place. It is the responsibility of HoDs and teachers to bring about improvements in the teaching and learning of Speaking and Listening skills.

We are ‘strangers’ and we could learn from each other. Weiss (1994) in his book Learning from strangers: The Art and Method of Qualitative Interview Studies, shows the strength of ‘strangers’ in research methods. Reflecting on the findings from this study, the researcher is aware that the situation is more or less similar in Malaysia. Malay Language is the national language, the first language and the medium of instruction in schools and higher education. We have only known one National Curriculum and one Examination Board – the Malaysian Examination Council. The questions now arise: Are Speaking and Listening being taught to Malaysian children as they should be? Is there any link between the learning of Speaking and Listening in school in Malaysian schools, and future use of Speaking and Listening in the work place? I hope the multimethod approaches in this study may offer an alternative approach into looking at Speaking and Listening in the Malay language. If similar findings are found, then the recommendations given in this study would be useful for the Malaysian context.

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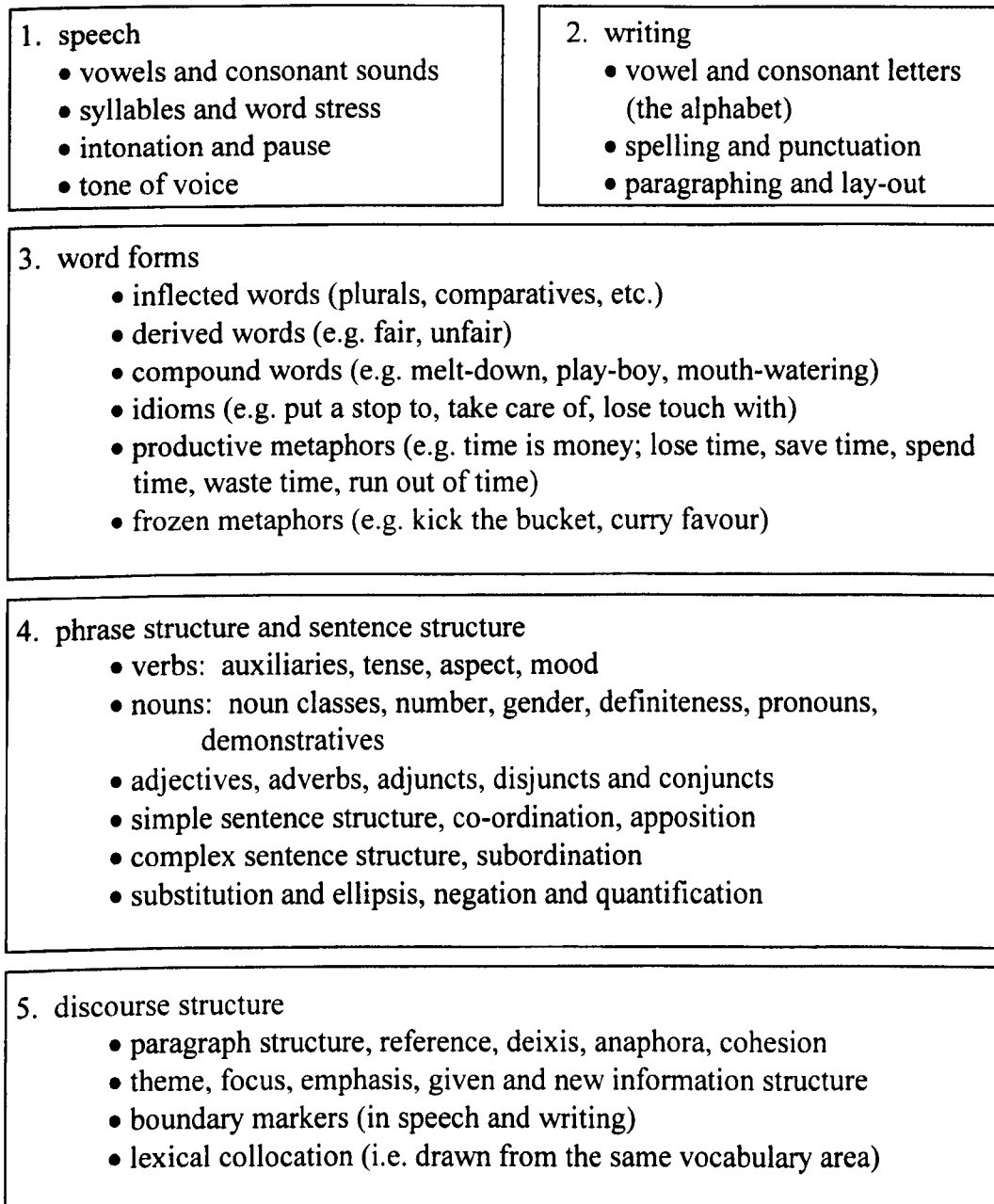
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## KINGMAN MODEL OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

### Part 1: The forms of the English language

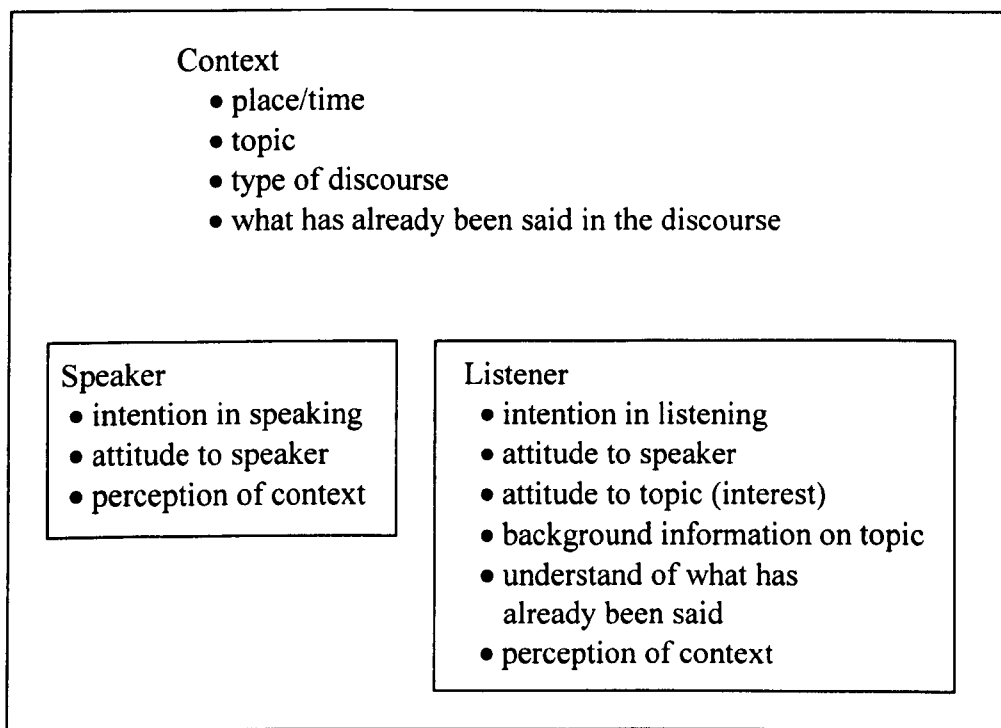
The following boxes exemplify the range of forms found in English. If forms are combined in regular patterns, following the rules and conventions of English, they yield meaningful language.



(Figure 1, p. 19)

## Part 2(I): Communication

Speakers and writers adapt their language to the context in which the language is being used. The boxes below indicate some of the main features of context which are relevant in conversations where the speaker and listener are talking face to face. In this section we shall also indicate how this model needs to be adapted to account for written language. (Note that in literature we often find representations of speech which rely on our experience of the spoken language.)



(Figure 2, page 23)

## Part 2 (ii): Comprehension - some processes of understanding

In Figure 2 we showed the context of communication which is of course the context in which comprehension takes place. We understand language in a context of use. Some of the processes involved in understanding are indicated in this figure which, like Figure 2, is orientated to the speaker/listener relationship; in the notes on this section we shall show how these figures can be adapted to give an account of reading with understanding.

1. interpreting speech sounds (Figure 1, Box 1) as words and phrases (Figure 1, Boxes 3 and 4), working out the relevant relations of these (Figure 4) and deriving a 'thin' meaning of the sort that a sentence might have out of context

2. working out what the speaker is using phrases to refer to in the world or in the previous discourse

3. working out from the form of the utterance what the speaker presupposes in making the utterance

4. inferring what the speaker means by making a particular utterance at a particular point in the discourse - the 'thick pragmatic meaning'

(All of these processes may apply simultaneously)

**(Figure 3, p. 26)**

### **Part 3: Acquisition and development**

1. Children gradually acquire the forms of language identified in the boxes of Figure 1. Whereas some aspects of acquisition are fairly rapid (most children have acquired a full range of vowels and consonants by the time they are 6 or 7), other aspects develop much later (for example, control of spelling patterns and conventions of punctuation).

2. Children gradually develop their ability to produce and understand appropriate forms of language (both spoken and written) in a wide range of contexts (Figure 2). This development does not cease in the years of schooling but continues throughout life.

**(Figure 4, p. 29)**

**Part 4: Historical and geographical variation**

1. Language changes over time - all forms of language are subject to change, to inception, modification and to decay, sometimes rapidly and sometimes immeasurably slowly. Changes continue to take place in our own time.

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2. As populations are dispersed and separated, they typically develop regular regional changes in their language forms. These changes may mark different dialects (or eventually different languages). If one of these dialects is used for writing, that dialect may emerge as the standard language; it will, of course, share many characteristics with the other related dialects.

**(Figure 5, p. 30)**



## Appendix 2-2

**GUIDELINES FOR MINIMAL SPEAKING AND LISTENING  
COMPETENCIES FOR HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES (Bassett et al., 1978)**

I. *Communication Codes*. This set of skills deals with minimal abilities in speaking and understanding spoken English, and using nonverbal signs (e.g., gestures and facial expressions).

Competencies	Occupational	Application Examples Citizenship	Maintenance
A. Listen effectively to spoken English.	Understand directions given by job supervisor.	Understand directions given on TV or radio on procedures necessary to vote.	Understand weather bulletins broadcast on radio or TV.
	Understand complaints and needs of customers.	Understand directions to a jury from a judge.	Understand a doctor's directions for taking prescribed medication.
	Understand suggestions and questions of fellow workers.	Understand directions given by policemen.	Understand a plumber's suggestions for preventive household maintenance.
B. Use words, pronunciation and grammar appropriate for situation.	Use appropriate language during employment interviews.	Use language understood by members of diverse groups at civic meetings.	Describe an ailment so that a doctor can understand the symptoms.
	Use words, pronunciation, and grammar which do not alienate co-workers.	Use inoffensive words when expressing political views.	Use language understood by a policeman when making a complaint.
	Use words understood by co-workers	Use language understood by public officials.	Use language understood by a banker when making a loan application.
C. Use nonverbal signs appropriate for situation.	Use appropriate gestures and eye contact during employment interviews.	Use appropriate facial expressions and posture when expressing your point of view at civic meetings.	Use gestures which enhance a child's understanding of how to perform a household task
	Use appropriate facial expressions and tone of voice when conversing with a supervisor.	Use appropriate nonverbal signs when campaigning for a political candidate.	Use gestures which enhance a friend's understanding of how to play a game.

Competencies	Occupational	Application Examples Citizenship	Maintenance
	Use gestures which aid a co-worker in learning to perform a production task.	Use appropriate non-verbal signs when engaging in informal discussions of political views with friends.	Use nonverbal signs to indicate sympathy to a friend.
D. Use voice effectively.	Use sufficient volume when making a presentation to a large group in an on-the-job setting.	Speak clearly and loudly enough to be heard in public debate or discussion.	Speak with appropriate rate, volume and clarity in social conversations.
	Use appropriate volume when conversing with a customer via telephone.	Speak with appropriate rate, volume and clarity when expressing your views to an elected official.	Speak with appropriate rate, volume and clarity when reporting a fire or accident.
	Speak with appropriate rate, volume and clarity when conversing with your supervisor.	Speak clearly and loudly enough to be heard and understood when giving testimony in court.	Speak with appropriate rate, volume and clarity when soliciting funds for a charity.
<b>II. Oral Message Evaluation.</b> This set of skills involves the use of standards of appraisal to make judgments about oral messages or their effects.			
A. Identify main ideas in messages.	Identify the task to be performed when given instructions orally.	Select main ideas when listening to political speeches.	Obtain main ideas in messages concerning health related news.
	Recognize performance standards for work assigned orally.	Identify key points in broadcast interviews with political candidates.	Identify main ideas in Broadcast messages about tax return preparation.
	Recognize commitments, promises, threats, and commands.	Identify critical issues in trial testimony.	Identify main ideas in A contract agreement.
B. Distinguish facts from opinions.	Obtain factual information about job opportunities.	Distinguish between facts and opinions in political speeches.	Distinguish facts from opinions in advertisements.
	Distinguish between facts and opinions in customer complaints.	Distinguish between evidence and opinions in testimony.	Distinguish facts from opinions with respect to effective illness treatment.

Competencies	Occupational	Application Examples Citizenship	Maintenance
	Distinguish between facts and opinions in labor-management disputes.	Distinguish between facts and opinion newscasts.	Distinguish facts from opinions regarding nutrition.
C. Distinguish between Informative and persuasive messages.	Distinguish between Informative and persuasive messages in a job interview.	Identify when being subjected to propaganda.	Identify when being subjected to a sales presentation.
	Distinguish between informative and persuasive messages in from a union organizer.	Distinguish between informative and persuasive messages of politicians.	Distinguish between informative and persuasive messages about purchasing on credit.
	Distinguish between informative and persuasive messages of management.	Distinguish between informative and persuasive messages of trial attorneys.	Distinguish between informative and persuasive messages about nonprescription drugs.
D. Recognize when another does not understand your message.	Recognize lack of understanding in other employees.	Recognize when another doesn't understand your position on a public issue.	Recognize when another family member doesn't understand your instructions.
	Recognize when a job interviewer doesn't understand your explanation of your work experience.	Recognize when a Public official doesn't understand your request.	Recognize when a doctor doesn't understand your description of your illness.
	Recognize when a customer doesn't understand your directions for product use.	Recognize when a judge does not understand your testimony.	Recognize when a salesperson doesn't understand your request.
<b>III. Basic Speech Communication Skills.</b> This set of skills deals with the process of selecting message elements and arranging them to produce spoken messages.			
A. Express ideas clearly and concisely.	Make a report to your job supervisor.	Describe a desired course of political action.	Explain an appliance malfunction to a repair person.
	Explain job requirements to a new employee.	Described an accident or crime to a policeman.	Explain an unfamiliar task to a child or other family member.

Competencies	Occupational	Application Examples Citizenship	Maintenance
	State clearly relevant information about your work experience when applying for a job.	Explain citizens' rights to another.	Explain your values to your child or a friend.
B. Express and defend with evidence your point of view.	Express and defend your view in a union meeting.	Express and defend your view in a political discussion.	Express and defend your refusal to accept products or services you didn't order.
	Express and defend your suggestions for changes in job conditions.	Express and defend your innocence in court.	Express and defend your faith or religion.
	Express and defend your reasons for job absence to your supervisor.	Express and defend your position in a city council meeting.	Express and defend your feelings in a family discussion.
C. Organize (order) messages so that others can understand them.	Use a chronological order to explain a complex business procedure to a co-worker.	Use a topical order to explain your political views.	Use a problem-cause-solution order to explain your financial position when applying for a loan.
	Use a topical order when explaining production problems to a supervisor.	Use a cause-effect order when giving an accident report.	Explain to your child how to prevent accidents using a cause-effect order.
	Use a problem-cause-solution order when making a suggestion to a supervisor.	Use a chronological order to explain your complaint to an elected official.	Use a chronological order to explain to a mechanic the development of an automobile malfunction.
D. Ask questions to obtain information.	Obtain information about correct job performance procedures.	Obtain information from public officials about laws and regulations.	Obtain information about interest rates for purchases bought on credit.
	Obtain information about job benefits.	Obtain information about another's evidence on a political issue.	Obtain information about your credit rating.
	Obtain suggestions about how to improve your job performance.	Obtain information about a political candidate's views.	Obtain information about product safety.

Competencies	Occupational	Application Examples Citizenship	Maintenance
E. Answer questions effectively.	Answer a potential employer's questions about your qualifications.	Answer questions about your position on public issues.	Answer a doctor's questions about an illness you have.
	Answer customer questions.	Answer questions of a census taker.	Answer a tax auditor's questions.
	Answer a supervisor's questions so that the questions about your job performance.	Answer questions as a witness.	Answer a child's questions so that the child understands.
F. Give concise and accurate directions.	Direct co-workers or subordinates in performing unfamiliar jobs.	Give directions to another about the procedures necessary to vote.	Teach your child how to play a game.
	Instruct customers about product use.	Give directions to another about the procedures necessary to file a tax return.	Instruct repair- persons on how you want some repair made.
	Instruct an employee about improving job performance.	Give directions to another about the procedures necessary to appear before the city council.	Teach your child what to do in case of fire.
G. Summarize messages.	Summarize oral instructions given by your job supervisor.	Summarize the position of a political candidate on a campaign issue.	Summarize a public service message on auto safety.
	Give a summary of customer suggestions to your job supervisor.	Summarize the arguments for and against a controversial issue.	Summarize for family members a telefon conversation.
	Summarize your qualifications in a job interview.	Summarize for another the laws/regulations pertaining to some action.	Summarize for family members the family financial position.
<b>IV. Human Relations.</b> This set of skills is used for building and maintaining personal relationships and for resolving conflict.			
A. Describe another's view point.	Describe the viewpoint of a supervisor who disagrees with your evaluation of your job performance.	Describe the viewpoint of a friend with whom you disagree about public issues.	Describe the viewpoint of a retail store manager to whom you return merchandise.

Competencies	Occupational	Application Examples Citizenship	Maintenance
	Describe the viewpoint of a co-worker who disagrees with your recommendations.	Describe the viewpoint of a legislator who proposes a law you oppose.	Describe the viewpoint of your spouse when you disagree on a major decision.
	Describe the viewpoint of union officials in a contract dispute.	Describe the viewpoint of a jury member with whom you disagree.	Describe the viewpoint of your neighbour who complains about your children's behavior.
B. Describe differences in opinion.	Describe differences in opinion with co-workers about work related issues.	Describe differences in opinion with a legislator about proposed legislation.	Describe differences in opinion with spouse about child rearing practices.
	Describe differences in opinion with your supervisor about the steps necessary to accomplish a goal.	Describe differences in opinion with other jurors.	Describe differences in opinion with your doctor regarding health care.
	Describe differences in opinion with customers about product performance.	Describe differences in opinion in a zoning hearing.	Describe differences in opinion with spouse about the responsibility for household chores.
C. Express feelings to others.	Express personal reactions to changes in job conditions to your supervisor.	Express feelings of anger to your city councilperson.	Express dissatisfaction to a store clerk.
	Express satisfaction to a coworker about his/her work	Express your positive reactions to an elected official's work.	Express feelings of approval to your child for his/her school achievement.
	Express feelings of dissatisfaction with co-workers regarding the quality of work interactions.	Express feelings of disapproval regarding a legislator's position.	Express feelings of sympathy to a friend whose parent has died.
D. Perform social rituals.	Introduce yourself at the beginning of a job interview.	Introduce a motion at a public meeting.	Make small talk in casual social settings.
	Greet customers.	Request an appointment with an elected official.	Introduce strangers to one another.
	Conclude a conversation with your employer.	Introduce a speaker at a political rally.	Introduce yourself.

**Appendix 2-3****EDUCATIONAL CONTEXT**

Rebecca B. Rubin (1981)

**I. COMMUNICATION CODES****A. LISTEN EFFECTIVELY TO SPOKEN ENGLISH.**

1. Understand directions given by a classroom instructor for class assignments.
2. Understand material presented in a class lecture.
3. Understand an instructor's suggestions for improving one's ability.

**B. USE WORDS, PRONUNCIATION AND GRAMMAR APPROPRIATE FOR THE SITUATION**

1. Use appropriate language in a classroom report.
2. Use appropriate grammar when speaking to others.
3. Use pronunciation which is understood by others.

**C. USE NONVERBAL SIGNS APPROPRIATE FOR THE SITUATION**

1. Use appropriate gestures and eye contact when interacting with others.
2. Use appropriate facial expressions and tone of voice when conversing with one's instructor or fellow students.
3. Recognise and/or use appropriate gestures, eye contact and facial expressions when communicating understanding or lack of understanding in a listening situation.

**D. USE VOICE EFFECTIVELY**

1. Use appropriate rate when making a report in class.
2. Speak loudly enough to be heard in a classroom situation.
3. Use appropriate clarity when speaking with others.

**II. ORAL MESSAGE EVALUATION****A. IDENTIFY MAIN IDEAS IN MESSAGES**

1. Identify the work to be performed when the assignment is given orally in class.
2. Recognize performance standards for work assigned orally in class.
3. Identify the main ideas in a class lecture.

**B. DISTINGUISH FACTS FROM OPINIONS**

1. Recognize an opinion in a class lecture or report.
2. Recognize a fact in a class lecture or report.
3. Distinguish between facts and opinion in an interpersonal interaction.

**C. DISTINGUISH BETWEEN INFORMATIVE AND PERSUASIVE MESSAGES**

1. Distinguish between informative and persuasive messages in a class report.
2. Distinguish between informative and persuasive messages in a class lecture.
3. Distinguish between informative and persuasive messages in an interpersonal interaction.

**D. RECOGNIZE WHEN ANOTHER DOES NOT UNDERSTAND YOUR MESSAGE**

1. Recognize when an instructor or fellow classmate doesn't understand the question you are asking.
2. Recognize when an instructor or fellow classmate doesn't understand the question you are answering.
3. Recognize when others do not understand your explanation of a concept reported on in class.

**III. BASIC SPEECH COMMUNICATION SKILLS****A. EXPRESS IDEAS CLEARLY AND CONCISELY**

1. Make a clear report on a subject of interest or one you've researched.
2. Concisely explain course requirements to a new student in class.
3. State clearly your reasons for taking a particular course.

**B. EXPRESS AND DEFEND WITH EVIDENCE YOUR POINT OF VIEW**

1. Express and defend your view in a classroom report.
2. Express and defend your suggestions for improvements in your school.
3. Express and defend your position that a grade you receive was incorrect.

**C. ORGANIZE (ORDER) MESSAGES SO THAT OTHERS CAN UNDERSTAND THEM.**

1. Use a chronological order to explain your activities throughout the day.
2. Use a topical order to explain a course you took last semester.
3. Use a problem-cause-solution order when discussing with adviser/counselor an academic problem you are having.

**D. ASK QUESTIONS TO OBTAIN INFORMATION**

1. Obtain information about requirements for your major.
2. Obtain information about how to complete an assignment.
3. Obtain suggestions about how to improve your classroom performance.

**E. ANSWER QUESTIONS EFFECTIVELY**

1. Answer an instructor's questions about your classroom performance.
2. Answer a question based on a class lecture.
3. Answer a question asked by a classmate about a course you are both taking.

**F. GIVE CONCISE AND ACCURATE DIRECTIONS**

1. Direct fellow students in performing unfamiliar tasks or to an unfamiliar location.
2. Instruct a new student on how to do well in college classes.
3. Give accurate and concise directions to others.

**G. SUMMARIZE MESSAGES**

1. Summarize oral instructions given by an instructor.
2. Summarize a class lecture.
3. Give a summary of students' suggestions to an instructor.

**IV. HUMAN RELATIONS****A. DESCRIBE ANOTHER'S VIEWPOINT**

1. Describe the viewpoint of an instructor who disagrees with your evaluation of your classroom performance.
2. Describe the viewpoint of a fellow student who disagrees with your evaluation of a class you've both taken.
3. Describe the viewpoint taken on an issue by an instructor or fellow classmate with which you disagree.



**B. DESCRIBE DIFFERENCES IN OPINION**

1. Describe differences in opinion with fellow students about course related issues.
2. Describe differences in opinion about the steps necessary to accomplish your academic or vocational goals.
3. Describe differences of opinion which occurred in a class discussion.

**C. EXPRESS FEELING TO OTHERS**

1. Express satisfaction or dissatisfaction to an instructor about a course you have taken.
2. Express feelings of satisfaction or dissatisfaction about working with others on group projects for classes.
3. Express empathy to a friend who has not done well on a class assignment or in a course.

**D. PERFORM SOCIAL RITUALS**

1. Introduce yourself at the beginning of the semester in class.
2. Request an appointment with a counsellor or adviser.
3. Conclude a conversation with an instructor.

**Appendix 4-1**

A version of this satire by Alan Howe was first heard told by Mike Newby. (Howe, 1991 , pp. 21-22)

**Raucous Little Sister**

I'd like you to imagine a large Victorian house in the centre of Cheltenham: three storeys and a basement. There is a family living in this house; the father has married twice - two daughters by his first marriage and a younger daughter by his second marriage. Unfortunately the second wife died, the father's away on business a lot and the two elder sisters are the ones who rule the roost, forcing their younger sister to do all the menial, dirty tasks around the house. It's the two elder sisters who got out into society and get invited to things and the younger sister who is always left at home. She's called 'raucous little sister' because she's always chattering, singing to herself little rhymes, little songs, talking to neighbours over the fence and so on - but she never gets invited anywhere. Let's call her two elder sisters 'Ms Reading' and 'Ms Writing', and of course you know what happens: in 1985 all three of them get invited to the GCSE ball. The invites drop through the letter box and the little sister opens hers frantically and she says 'I've been invited to the Ball; finally, finally I've been recognised!'

'Oh, it's ridiculous, it must be a computer error', say her two elder sisters.

She says, 'No, it's true, Sir Keith says come along to the GCSE ball.'

'Well anyway', they say, 'you can't come - you have nothing to wear', and you of course know what happens: they go off to the GCSE ball and the younger sister is left distraught.

But along comes a fairy godmother and suddenly she is transformed and has new clothes to wear.

She arrives at the GCSE ball late and it's in full swing. She enters through double doors, walks across the hall and the prince (or shall we say Kingman?) sees her. He thinks, 'Who is she? I haven't seen her before, she's beautiful, I must get to know her.' He walks across to her and looks her in the eyes and says, 'I don't know who you are. You're beautiful, you must dance with me.'

She looks at him quizzically, then eventually answers, 'Yes, I will dance with you but don't forget you have got to assess me as well.'

'Fine, I'm prepared to assess you', the prince replies, 'but don't forget that you have got to satisfy my criteria.'

**Appendix 5-1****GENERAL REQUIREMENTS FOR ENGLISH: KEY STAGES 1- 4**

1. English should develop pupils' abilities to communicate effectively in speech and writing and to listen with understanding. It should enable them to be enthusiastic, responsive and knowledgeable readers.
  - a To develop effective speaking and listening pupils should be taught to:
    - use the vocabulary and grammar of standard English;
    - formulate, clarify and express their ideas;
    - adapt their speech to a widening range of circumstances and demands;
    - listen, understand and respond appropriately to others.
  - b To develop as effective readers, pupils should be taught to:
    - read accurately, fluently and with understanding;
    - understand and respond to the texts they read;
    - read, analyse and evaluate a wide range of texts, including literature from the English literary heritage and from the other cultures and traditions.
  - c To develop as effective writers, pupils should be taught to use:
    - compositional skills - developing ideas and communicating meaning to a reader, using a wide-ranging vocabulary and an effective style, organising and structuring sentences grammatically and whole texts coherently;
    - presentational skills - accurate punctuation, correct spelling and legible handwriting;
    - a widening variety of forms for different purposes.
2. In order to participate confidently in public, cultural and working life, pupils need to be able to speak, write and read standard English fluently and accurately. All pupils are therefore entitled to the full range of opportunities necessary to enable them to develop competence in standard English. The richness of dialects and other languages can make an important contribution to pupils' knowledge and understanding of standard English. When appropriate, pupils should be encouraged to make use of their understanding and skills in other languages when learning English.
4. Pupils should be given opportunities to develop their understanding and use of standard English and to recognise that:
  - standard English is distinguished from other forms of English by its vocabulary, and by rules and conventions of grammar, spelling and punctuation;

- the grammatical features that distinguished standard English include how pronouns, adverbs and adjectives should be used and how negatives, questions and verb tenses should be formed; such features are present in both the spoken and written forms, except where non-standard forms are used for effect or technical reasons;
- differences between the spoken and written forms relate to the spontaneity of speech and to its function in conversation, whereas writing is more permanent, often carefully crafted, and less dependent on immediate responses;
- spoken standard English is not the same as Received Pronunciation and can be expressed in a variety of accents.

(DFE, 1995, p. 2-3)

Note: Since number 3 is not related to England, it has been left out.

## ENGLISH: KEY STAGES 1-4 PROGRAMME OF STUDY

### KEY STAGE 1 PROGRAMME OF STUDY

#### Speaking and Listening

Pupils' abilities should be developed within an integrated programme of speaking and listening, reading and writing. Pupils should be given opportunities that interrelate and requirements of the Range, Key Skills, and Standard English and Language Study sections.

#### 1. Range

- a** Pupils should be given opportunities to talk for a range of purposes, including:
- telling stories, both real and imagined; imaginative play and drama; reading and listening to nursery rhymes and poetry, learning some by heart; reading aloud;
  - exploring, developing and clarifying ideas; predicting outcomes and discussing possibilities;
  - describing events, observations and experiences; making simple, clear explanations of choices; giving reasons for opinions and actions.
- b** Pupils should be given opportunities to consider how to talk is influenced by the purpose and by the intended audience. These opportunities should include work in groups of different sizes, and talking and presenting work to different audiences, including friends, the class, the teacher and other adults in the school.
- c** Pupils should be taught to listen carefully and to show their understanding of what they see and hear by making relevant comments. In considering what has been heard, pupils should be encouraged to remember specific points that interested them, and to listen to others' reactions.
- d** Pupils should be encouraged to participate in drama activities, improvisation and performances of varying kinds, using language appropriate to a role or situation. They should be given opportunities to respond to drama they have watched, as well as that in which they have participated.

#### 2. Key Skills

- a** To communicate effectively, pupils should be taught the importance of language that is clear, fluent and interesting. Building on their previous experience, pupils should be encouraged to speak with confidence, making themselves clear through organising what they say and choosing words with precision. They should be taught to incorporate relevant detail in explanations, descriptions and narratives, and to distinguish between the essential and the less important, taking into account the needs of their listeners. Pupils should be taught conventions of discussion and conversation, *eg taking turns in speaking*, and how to structure their talk in ways that are coherent and understandable.

- b** Pupils should be encouraged to listen with growing attention and concentration, to respond appropriately and effectively to what they have heard, and to ask and answer questions that clarify their understanding and indicate thoughtfulness about the matter under discussion. They should talk to develop their thinking and extend their ideas in the light of discussion. They should be encouraged to relate their contributions in a discussion to what has gone before, taking different views into account.

### 3. Standard English and Language Study

- a** Pupils should be introduced with appropriate sensitivity to the importance of standard English. Pupils should be given opportunities to consider their own speech and how to communicate with others, particularly in more formal situations or with unfamiliar adults. Pupils should be encouraged to develop confidence in their ability to adapt what they say to their listeners and to the circumstances, beginning to recognise how language differs, eg *the vocabulary of standard English, and that of dialects, how their choice of language varies in different situations*. They should be introduced to some of the features that distinguish standard English, including subject - verb agreement and the use of the verb 'to be' in past and present tenses. Pupils may speak in different accents, but they should be taught to speak with clear diction and appropriate intonation.
- b** Pupils' vocabulary should be extended through activities that encourage their interest in words, including exploration and discussion of:
- the meanings of words and their use and interpretation in different contexts;
  - words with similar and opposite meanings;
  - word games;
  - words associated with specific occasions, eg greetings, celebrations;
  - characteristic language in storytelling, eg 'Once upon a time'.

(DFE, 1995, pp. 4-5)

## READING

- c** In understanding and responding to stories and poems, pupils should be given opportunities to:
- talk about characters, events and language in books, beginning to use appropriate terminology;
  - say what might happen next in a story
  - retell stories
  - explain the content of a passage or whole text;
  - review their reading with their teacher;
  - hear stories and poems read aloud frequently and regularly, including some longer, more challenging material
  - prepare, present and act out stories and poems they have read.

## WRITING

Pupils should be taught ... to understand the connections between speech and writing...

(DFE, 1995, p. 9)

## KEY STAGE 2 PROGRAMME OF STUDY

### Speaking and listening

Pupils' abilities should be developed within an integrated programme of speaking and listening, reading and writing. Pupils should be given opportunities that interrelate the requirements of the Range, Key Skills, and Standard English and Language Study sections.

### 1. Range

- a** Pupils should be given opportunities to talk for a range of purposes, including:
- exploring, developing, and explaining ideas;
  - planning, predicting, and investigating;
  - sharing ideas, insights and opinions;
  - reading aloud, telling and enacting stories and poems;
  - reporting and describing events and observations;
  - presenting to audiences, live or on tape.
- b** Pupils should be given opportunities to communicate to different audiences and to reflect on how speakers adapt their vocabulary, tone, pace and style.
- c** Pupils should be given opportunities to listen and respond to a range of people. They should be taught to identify and comment on key features of what they see and hear in a variety of media.
- d** Pupils should be given opportunities to participate in a wide range of drama activities, including improvisation, role-play, and the writing and performance of scripted drama. In responding to drama, they should be encouraged to evaluate their own and others' contributions. Communicate to different audiences and to reflect on how speakers adapt their vocabulary, tone, pace and style.

### 2. Key Skills

- a** Pupils should be encouraged to express themselves confidently and clearly. Pupils should be taught to organise what they want to say, and to use vocabulary and syntax that enables the communication of more complex meanings. In discussions, pupils should be given opportunities to make a range of contributions, depending on the activity and the purpose of the talk. This range should include making exploratory and tentative comments when ideas are being collected together, and making

reasoned, evaluative comments as discussion moves to conclusions or actions. Pupils should be taught to evaluate their own talk and reflect on how it varies.

- b** Pupils should be taught to listen carefully, and to recall and re-present important features of an argument, talk, presentation, reading or television programme. They should be taught to identify the gist of an account or the key points made in discussion, to evaluate what they hear, and to make contributions that are relevant to what is being considered. They should be taught to listen to others, questioning them to clarify what they mean, and extending and following up the ideas. They should be encouraged to qualify what they think after listening to other opinions or accounts, and deal politely with opposing points of view.

### **3. Standard English and Language Study**

- a** Pupils' appreciation and use of standard English should be developed by involvement with others in activities that, through their content and purpose, demand the range of grammatical constructions and vocabulary characteristic of spoken standard English. They should be taught to speak clear diction and appropriate intonation. Pupils should be taught how formal contexts require particular choices of vocabulary and greater precision in language structures. They should also be given opportunities to develop their understanding of the similarities and differences between the written and spoken forms of standard English, and to investigate how language varies according to context and purpose and between standard and dialect forms.
- b** Pupils should be taught to use an increasingly varied vocabulary. The range of pupils' vocabulary should be extended and enriched through activities that focus on words and their meanings, including:
- discussion of more imaginative and adventurous choices of words;
  - consideration of groups of words, eg word families, the range of words relevant to a topic;
  - language used in drama, role-play and word games.

## **READING**

### **2. Key Skills**

- c** Pupils should be taught to:
- distinguish between fact and opinion;
  - consider an argument critically;
- d** Pupils should be given opportunities to reflect on their use of language, beginning to differentiate between spoken and written forms.

(DFE, 1995, p. 14)



## KEY STAGES 3 AND 4 PROGRAMME OF STUDY

### Speaking and Listening

Pupils' abilities should be developed within an integrated programme of speaking and listening, reading and writing. Pupils should be given opportunities that interrelate the requirements of the Range, Key Skills, and Standard English and Language Study sections.

#### 1. Range

- a** Pupils should be given opportunities to talk for a range of purposes, including:
- explanation, description and narration;
  - exploration and hypothesis;
  - consideration of ideas, literature and the media;
  - argument, debate and persuasion;
  - the development of thinking;
  - analysis.
- b** Pupils should be given opportunities to talk in a range of contexts, including those that are more formal. They should be encouraged to adapt their presentation to different audiences and to reflect on how their talk varies.
- c** Pupils should be encouraged to listen attentively, both in situations where they remain mostly silent and where they have the opportunity to respond immediately. They should be taught to distinguish features of presentation where the intention is to be explanatory, persuasive, amusing or argumentative, and should be taught to use this knowledge when preparing and presenting their own oral work.
- d** Pupils should be given opportunities to participate in a wide range of drama activities, including role-play, and in the performance of scripted and unscripted plays. Pupils should be encouraged to develop both their communication skills and their ability to evaluate language use. In responding to drama, they should be given opportunities to consider significant features of their own and others' performances.

#### 2. Key Skills

- a** Pupils should be given opportunities to make different types of contributions in discussion, adapting their speech to their listeners and to the activity. They should be encouraged to structure their talk clearly, judging the appropriate level of detail, and using a range of markers to aid the listener. They should be taught to use gestures and intonation appropriately. In discussions, they should be encouraged to take different views into account, sift, summarise and use salient points, cite evidence and construct persuasive arguments. In taking different roles in group discussions, pupils should be introduced to ways of negotiating consensus or agreeing to differ. They should be given opportunities to consider their choice of words and the effectiveness of their expression.

- b** In order to develop as effective listeners, pupils should be taught to identify the major elements of what is being said, and to distinguish tone, undertone, implications and other indicators of a speaker's intentions. They should be taught to notice ambiguities, deliberate vagueness, glossing over points, use and abuse of evidence, and unsubstantiated statements. In discussion, pupils should listen and respond. They should be encouraged to make contributions that clarify and synthesise others' ideas, taking them forward and building on them to reach a conclusion. Pupils should be encouraged to ask and answer questions and to modify their ideas in the light of what others say.

### **3. Standard English and Language Study**

- a** Pupils should be taught to be fluent, accurate user of standard English vocabulary and grammar, and to recognise its importance as the language of public communication. They should be taught to adapt their talk to suit the circumstances, and to be confident users of standard English in formal and informal situations. In role-play and drama, the vocabulary, structures and tone appropriate to such contexts should be explored.
- B** Pupils should be given opportunities to consider the development of English, including:
- how usage, words and meanings change over time;
  - how words and parts of words are borrowed from other languages;
  - the coinage of new words and the origins of existing words;
  - current influences on spoken and written language;
  - the differences between speech and writing;
  - the vocabulary and grammar of standard English and dialect variations.

(DFE, 1995, pp. 17-18)

**Note:** Some of the information from English in the National Curriculum has been left out because unrelated to this study.

**ENGLISH ATTAINMENT TARGET 1: SPEAKING AND LISTENING****Level 1**

Pupils talk about matters of immediate interest. They listen to others and usually respond appropriately. They convey simple meanings to a range of listeners, speaking audibly, and begin to extend their ideas or accounts by providing some detail.

**Level 2**

Pupils begin to show confidence in talking and listening, particularly where the topics interest them. On occasions, they show awareness of the needs of the listener by including relevant detail. In developing and explaining their ideas they speak clearly and use a growing vocabulary. They usually listen carefully and respond with increasing appropriateness to what others say. They are beginning to be aware that in some situations a more formal vocabulary and tone of voice are used.

**Level 3**

Pupils talk and listen confidently in different contexts, exploring and communicating ideas. In discussion, they show understanding of the main points. Through relevant comments and questions, they show they have listened carefully. They begin to adapt what they say to the needs of the listener, varying the use of vocabulary and the level of detail. They are beginning to be aware of standard English and when it is used.

**Level 4**

Pupils talk and listen with confidence in an increasing range of contexts. Their talk is adapted to the purpose: developing ideas thoughtfully, describing events and conveying their opinions clearly. In discussion, they listen carefully, making contributions and asking questions that are responsive to others' ideas and views. They use appropriately some of the features of standard English vocabulary and grammar.

**Level 5**

Pupils talk and listen confidently in a wide range of contexts, including some that are of a formal nature. Their talk engages the interest of the listener as they begin to vary their expression and vocabulary. In discussion, they pay close attention to what others say, ask questions to develop ideas and make contributions that take account of others' views. They begin to use standard English in formal situations.

**Level 6**

Pupils adapt their talk to the demands of different contexts with increasing confidence. Their talk engages the interest of the listener through the variety of its vocabulary and expression. Pupils take an active part in discussion, showing understanding of ideas and sensitivity to others. They are usually fluent in their use of standard English in formal situations.

**Level 7**

Pupils are confident in matching their talk to the demands of different contexts. They use vocabulary precisely and organise their talk to communicate clearly. In discussion, pupils make significant contributions, evaluating others' ideas and varying how and when they participate. They show confident use of standard English in situations that require it.

**Level 8**

Pupils maintain and develop their talk purposefully in a range of contexts. They structure what they say clearly, using apt vocabulary and appropriate intonation and emphasis. They make a range of contributions which show that they have listened perceptively and are sensitive to the development of discussion. They show confident use of standard English in a range of situations, adapting as necessary.

**Exceptional performance**

Pupils select and use structures, styles and registers appropriately in a range of contexts, varying their vocabulary and expression confidently for a range of purposes. They initiate and sustain discussion through sensitive use of a variety of contributions. They take a leading role in discussion and listen with concentration and understanding to varied and complex speech. They show assured and fluent use of standard English in a range of situations and for a variety of purposes.

(DfE, 1995, pp. 26-27)

## **A SURVEY OF SPEAKING AND LISTENING SKILLS IN SCHOOLS**

**This survey is to find out what YOU think about speaking and listening skills. Your answers will be added to those of other students to help us decide what schools should do about the teaching of speaking and listening skills.**

**The survey is NOT A TEST.**

**Please help us by giving your own honest opinion for each statement in the booklet. You do not have to give your name on the booklet.**

**Thank you for your help.**

**N. Yusoff  
Institute of Education  
University of Hull  
Hull HU6 7RX  
13 October 1995**

1. Sex:  Male  Female

2. Age:  Years  Months

3. Do you speak any other language at home?

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4. **School Subjects:** Tick the subjects you are studying this year

Art

Design & Technology

English

English Literature

Geography

History

Information Systems/Information Technology

Mathematics

Modern Foreign Languages

Music

Physical Education

Science

Biology

Chemistry

Physics

5. What are your plans when you leave school

- Get a job straight away
- Go on to college
- Go on to polytechnic
- Haven't made up my mind yet

6. Please tick (/) the skills that you learned in your English class.

	Yes	No
Speaking skills	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Listening skills	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Reading skills	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Writing skills	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

7. How often do you learn the skills in your English class?

	Very often	Quite often	A few times	Occasionally	Never
Speaking	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Listening	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Reading	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Writing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

## 8. How often do you use these activities in your English Class?

	<b>Very often</b>	<b>Quite often</b>	<b>A few times</b>	<b>Occasionally</b>	<b>Never</b>
Watching video	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Group discussion	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Lectures	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Debates	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Listening to tapes	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Mock interviews	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Role-playing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Drama	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

## 9. Do you enjoy the activities?

	<b>Very much</b>	<b>Quite a lot</b>	<b>Sometimes</b>	<b>Occasionally</b>	<b>Never</b>
Watching video	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Group discussion	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Lectures	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Debates	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Listening to tapes	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Mock interviews	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Role-playing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Drama	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>



10. Which of the following items reflect the meaning of 'body language': (tick all that belongs)

	<b>Yes</b>	<b>No</b>
The look on your face	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The way you use your hands	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Tapping your feet	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Eye contact	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sitting facing the speaker	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Looking alert	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

11. In which other classes do you learn speaking and listening skills?

	<b>Yes</b>	<b>No</b>
Art	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Design & Technology	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
English Literature	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Geography	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
History	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Information Systems/Information Technology	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Mathematics	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Modern foreign Languages	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Music	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Physical education	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Science	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

12. In school how often do you speak to

	<b>Very often</b>	<b>Quite often</b>	<b>A few times</b>	<b>Occasionally</b>	<b>Never</b>
Your teacher	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The whole class	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The whole school	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The head	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
A group of visitor	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

13. Are you nervous if you are speaking to

	<b>Very nervous</b>	<b>Quite nervous</b>	<b>Nervous</b>	<b>Sometimes</b>	<b>Not nervous</b>
Your friends	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Your teacher	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The whole class	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The whole school	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The head	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
A group of visitors	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Strangers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

14. Have you had a private talk with

(No. of times) –	0	1	2	3	4	5	more
The careers officer	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The careers teacher	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

15. Was there any discussion about speaking and listening skills with

	Yes	No
The careers officer	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The careers teacher	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

16. Do you think that you will do well in a job that requires a great deal of speaking and

listening for example answering the telephone or dealing with customers?

Very well	Quite well	Average	Below average	Terribly
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

17. When you were on work experience do you have to speak and listen?

Very often	Quite often	Often	Occasionally	Never
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

18. Were you satisfied with your speaking and listening skills while you were on work experience?

Very satisfied	Quite satisfied	A little	Occasionally	Not satisfied
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

19. Of the 4 skills which ones were most used during your work experience?

	<b>Very often</b>	<b>Quite often</b>	<b>A few times</b>	<b>Occasionally</b>	<b>Never</b>
Speaking	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Listening	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Reading	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Writing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

20. After your work experience do you feel that you need special class to improve your speaking and listening skills?

<b>Very keen</b>	<b>Quite keen</b>	<b>Didn't mind</b>	<b>Not very keen</b>	<b>Not keen at all</b>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

21. Do you think speaking and listening skills are important for students seeking jobs?

<b>Very Important</b>	<b>Quite important</b>	<b>Important</b>	<b>Less important</b>	<b>Not important</b>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

22. Do you think speaking and listening skills are important at home?

<b>Very Important</b>	<b>Quite important</b>	<b>Important</b>	<b>Less important</b>	<b>Not important</b>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

23. Do you think speaking and listening skills are important in the class?

<b>Very Important</b>	<b>Quite important</b>	<b>Important</b>	<b>Less important</b>	<b>Not important</b>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

24. Do you listen to talks on the radio?

Yes

No

25. Do you stop your work while you listen?

Yes

No

26. Have you listened to your voice on tape or video?

Yes

No

27. Do you think your voice is the same as when others hear you?

Yes

No

Tick one box which apply for each statement.

	<b>Always True</b>	<b>Often true</b>	<b>Sometimes true</b>	<b>Not true</b>
28. Your voice is pleasant to hear	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
29. Your voice is too loud	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
30. Your voice is too soft	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
31. People understand your ideas when you explain them	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
32. In discussion, you wait for your turn to speak	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
33. You talk too much	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Tick one box which apply for each statement.

	<b>Always True</b>	<b>Often true</b>	<b>Sometimes true</b>	<b>Not true</b>
34. It is ok to shout in order to get attention	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
35. A stranger who asks you for directions, can follow the instructions you give	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
36. After watching a film or a video, you can easily tell others about it	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
37. You can take part in discussions calmly without making others too excited	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
38. In discussions you are willing to listen while others talk	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
39. It is important to be respectful of others' viewpoint	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
40. You can easily get what you want to know from others	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
41. You listen carefully so that you can pass on correctly what you hear	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
42. You talk less than your friends	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
43. You are better listener than Your friends	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
44. Drama lessons help to improve speaking and listening skills	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**THANK YOU FOR YOUR HELP**

Please look back and check you have given an answer for every item.

## **A SURVEY OF SPEAKING AND LISTENING SKILLS IN SCHOOLS**

**This survey is to find out what YOU think about speaking and listening skills. Your answers will be added to those of other students to help us decide what schools should do about the teaching of speaking and listening skills.**

**The survey is NOT A TEST.**

**Please help us by giving your own honest opinion for each statement in the booklet. You do not have to give your name on the booklet.**

**Thank you for your help.**

**N. Yusoff  
Institute of Education  
University of Hull  
Hull HU6 7RX  
1995/96**

1. Sex:  Male  Female
2. Age:  Years  Months
3. **School Subjects:** Tick the subjects you are studying this year
- English
- English Literature

4. What are your plans when you leave school

- Get a job straight away
- Go on to college
- Go for extra training
- Haven't made up my mind yet

5. Please tick (/) the skills that you learned in your English class.

	Yes	No
Speaking skills	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Listening skills	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Reading skills	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Writing skills	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>



6. How often do you learn the skills in your English class?

	<b>Very often</b>	<b>Quite often</b>	<b>A few times</b>	<b>Occasionally</b>	<b>Never</b>
Speaking	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Listening	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Reading	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Writing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

7. How often do you use these activities in your English Class?

	<b>Very often</b>	<b>Quite often</b>	<b>A few times</b>	<b>Occasionally</b>	<b>Never</b>
Watching video	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Group discussion & Debates	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Listening to another pupil giving a talk	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Giving a talk to the class	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Listening to tapes	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Mock interviews	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Drama & Role-playing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

## 8. Do you enjoy the activities?

	<b>Very much</b>	<b>Quite a lot</b>	<b>Sometimes</b>	<b>Occasionally</b>	<b>Never</b>
Watching video	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Group discussion & Debates	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Listening to another pupil giving a talk	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Giving a talk to the class	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Listening to tapes	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Mock interviews	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Drama & Role-playing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

## 9. Which of the following items reflect the meaning of 'body language': (tick all that belongs)

	<b>Yes</b>	<b>No</b>
Sitting still	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The way you use your hands	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Tapping your feet	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Eye contact	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sitting facing the speaker	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Looking alert	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Speaking clearly	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Not having an accent	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

10. In which other classes do you learn speaking and listening skills?

	Yes	No
Art	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Design & Technology	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
English Literature	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Geography	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
History	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Information Systems/Information Technology	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Mathematics	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Modern foreign Languages	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Music	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Physical education	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Science	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

11. In school how often do you speak to

	Very often	Quite often	A few times	Occasionally	Never
Your teacher	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The whole class	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

12. How often have you given a short talk or speech to

	<b>Very often</b>	<b>Quite often</b>	<b>A few times</b>	<b>Occasionally</b>	<b>Never</b>
The whole class	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The whole school	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
A group of visitors or parents	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
outside school	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

13. Are you nervous if you are speaking to

	<b>Very nervous</b>	<b>Quite nervous</b>	<b>Nervous</b>	<b>Sometimes</b>	<b>Not nervous</b>
Your teacher	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The whole class	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The whole school	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
A group of visitors or parents	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Audience outside school	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

14. Have you had a private talk with

(No. of times) –	<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>or more</b>
The careers officer	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The careers teacher	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

15. Was there any discussion about speaking and listening skills with

	Yes	No
The careers officer	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The careers teacher	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

16. Do you think that you will do well in a job that requires a great deal of speaking and listening for example answering the telephone or dealing with customers?

Very well	Quite well	Average	Below average	Terribly
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

17. When you were on work experience do you have to speak and listen?

Very often	Quite often	Often	Occasionally	Never	No work experience yet
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

18. Were you satisfied with your speaking and listening skills while you were on work experience?

Very satisfied	Quite satisfied	A little	Occasionally	Not satisfied
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

19. Of the 4 skills which ones were most used during your work experience?

	<b>Very often</b>	<b>Quite often</b>	<b>A few times</b>	<b>Occasionally</b>	<b>Never</b>
Speaking	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Listening	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Reading	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Writing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

20. After your work experience do you feel that you need special class to improve your speaking and listening skills?

<b>Very keen</b>	<b>Quite keen</b>	<b>Didn't mind</b>	<b>Not very keen</b>	<b>Not keen at all</b>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

21. Do you think speaking and listening skills are important for students seeking jobs?

<b>Very Important</b>	<b>Quite important</b>	<b>Important</b>	<b>Less important</b>	<b>Not important</b>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

22. Do you think speaking and listening skills are important at home?

<b>Very Important</b>	<b>Quite important</b>	<b>Important</b>	<b>Less important</b>	<b>Not important</b>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

23. Do you think speaking and listening skills are important in the class?

<b>Very Important</b>	<b>Quite important</b>	<b>Important</b>	<b>Less important</b>	<b>Not important</b>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

24. Have you listened to your voice on tape or video?

Yes

No

25. When you heard it did you wish your voice sound better?

Yes

No

Not sure

**Tick one box which apply for each statement.**

	Very often	Often	Sometimes	Not often
26. Your voice is pleasant to hear	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
27. Your voice is too loud	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
28. Your voice is too soft	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
29. You talk more loudly than others	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
30. You talk more quietly than others	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
31. In discussion, you wait for your turn to speak	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
32. You talk too much	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
33. It is ok to shout in order to get attention	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
34. A stranger who asks you for directions, can follow the instructions you give	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**Tick one box which apply for each statement.**

	<b>Always True</b>	<b>Often true</b>	<b>Sometimes true</b>	<b>Not true</b>
35. After watching a film or a video, you can easily tell others about it	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
36. You can take part in discussions calmly without making others too excited	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
37. In discussions you are willing to listen while others talk	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
38. It is important to be respectful of others' viewpoint	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
39. My friends listen to my suggestions	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
40. You listen carefully so that you can pass on correctly what you hear	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
41. You talk less than your friends	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
42. You are better listener than Your friends	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
43. Drama lessons help to improve speaking and listening skills	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**THANK YOU FOR YOUR HELP**

Please look back and check you have given an answer for every item.



## Appendix 6-3

**Flanders's Interaction Analysis Categories**

		1. <i>Accept feeling.</i> Accepts and clarifies an attitude or the feeling tone of a pupil in a nonthreatening manner. Feelings may be positive or negative. Predicting and recalling feelings are included
	<b>Response</b>	2. <i>Praises or encourages.</i> Praises or encourages pupil action or behaviour. Jokes that release tension, but not at the expense of another individual; nodding head, or saying "Um hm?" or "go on" are included
		3. <i>Accepts or uses ideas of pupils.</i> Clarifying, building, or developing ideas suggested by a pupil. Teacher extensions of pupil ideas are included but as the teacher brings more of his own ideas into play, shift to category five.
<b>Teacher Talk</b>		4. <i>Ask questions.</i> Asking a question about content or procedure, based on teacher ideas, with the intent that a pupil will answer.
	<b>Initiation</b>	5. <i>Lecturing.</i> Giving facts or opinions about content or procedures; expressing his own ideas, giving his own explanation, or citing an authority other than a pupil.
		6. <i>Giving directions.</i> Directions, commands, or orders to which a pupil is expected to comply.
		7. <i>Criticising or justifying authority.</i> Statements intended to change pupil behaviour from nonacceptable to acceptable pattern; bawling someone out, stating why the teacher is doing what he is doing; extreme self-reference.
	<b>Response</b>	8. <i>Pupil-talk-response.</i> Talk by pupils in response to teacher. Teacher initiates the contact or solicits pupil statement or structures the situation. Freedom to express own ideas is limited.
<b>Pupil Talk</b>	<b>Initiation</b>	9. <i>Pupil-talk-initiation.</i> Talk by pupils which they initiate; expressing own ideas; initiating a new topic; freedom to develop opinions and a line of thought, like asking thoughtful questions; going beyond the existing structures.
<b>Silence</b>		10. <i>Silence or confusion.</i> Pauses, short periods of silence and periods of confusion in which communication cannot be understood by the observer.

\*There is no scale implied by these numbers. Each number is classificatory; it designates a particular kind of communication event. To write these numbers down during observation is to enumerate, not to judge a position on scale.

(Flanders, 1970, p. 102)

**Appendix 7-1****HULL COMPACT**

Hull compact is an education and business partnership where local industries work closely with schools to help more young people to stay in full-time education after the compulsory school age. Below is an example of a pamphlet from Hull Compact:

Make A College Education Work for You with Hull Compact  
(Revised Spring 1995)

- >> Far too few 11th year students stay on into College Education when a much greater number are capable of doing so.
- >> Hull Compact is trying to help more young people to stay on through its bursaries and grant (over 170 were awarded in 1994) because staying on means better qualifications and better qualifications mean better jobs.
- >> You already know about Compact Goals and the advantages that go with achieving them. If you stay on, the Hull Compact scheme continues in the College of your choice; the goals stay too, in a slightly modified form. Continuing to achieve your goals in College will develop your self discipline to help you achieve your academic targets as well as being a "plus mark" in your Record of Achievement when going for interviews to University or for a job. 130 Hull companies are pledged to give priority to Compact Achievers seeking employment with training.
- >> Remember also that, after two or so years at College, you decide to continue your education at University there are now other ways of gaining your entry qualifications than the traditional "A" levels. For example GNVQs (General National Vocational Qualifications). Speak to your Careers Adviser or Careers Teacher for more information. Your Compact Goal Achievement Certificate will help you whatever you decide.
- >> You'll still have to work hard, but the qualifications and jobs are worth the work. With them, the only way the career you choose can go is UP!

# COMPACT GOALS

FOR STUDENTS IN YEARS TEN  
AND ELEVEN IN HULL SCHOOLS

**C**OMPLETION OF COURSE WORK

**O**FFERING CORE SKILLS

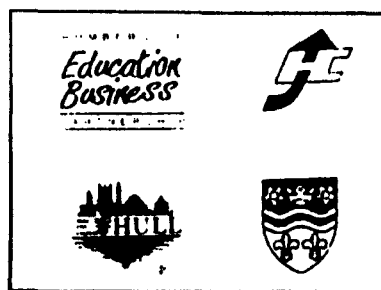
**M**AINTENANCE OF YOUR RECORD OF ACHIEVEMENT

**P**UNCTUALITY

**A**TTEendance

**C**OMPETENCE IN ENGLISH AND MATHEMATICS

**T**ACKLING WORK EXPERIENCE



***I WILL MAKE EVERY EFFORT TO ACHIEVE MY COMPACT GOALS***

SIGNED \_\_\_\_\_ (STUDENT)      DATE \_\_\_\_\_

SCHOOL \_\_\_\_\_

**Appendix 7-2**

17 August 1995

The Headteacher

Dear Sir/Madam

Your help is sought with a Survey of speaking and listening skills of Year 11 students.

The Survey is part of a PhD program. The survey is not simply “an academic exercise”. From the Survey results we hope to identify more precisely the needs of teaching and learning of speaking and listening skills in schools. These findings will be useful for teacher training planning, curriculum development, classroom management and in developing essential speaking and listening skills for students entering work places.

In view of the very practical aims of the Survey we hope it will have your support and that of your staff. It is our intension to make the best possible use of the time we ask you to spare for it.

The Survey is being carried out by means of questionnaires. Please pass this eight pages questionnaire to the student encouraging him or her to complete and we will collect it personally.

The confidentiality of all replies will be strictly observed. The information provided on the questionnaire sheets will be held by me and my supervisor in the University and will not be released or shown to any other person or body. No head teacher, teachers, students or school will be named or in any way identifiable in the Survey Report. The name of the school will be used solely for the purpose of linking responses.

It would be most helpful if the replies from your school could be collected one week from the above date.

Thank You.

Yours Sincerely

N. Yusoff  
School of Education  
The University of Hull  
Cottingham Road  
Hull  
HU6 7RX

## Appendix 7-3

**The Research Diary**

Term	Date	Place	Activities
<b>AUTUMN TERM BEGINS</b>	7. 9.1995		
	18. 9.95	The Humberside Careers and Guidance Service, Queen Victoria House, Alfred Gelder Street, Hull	Interview Careers Officer
	26. 9.95	Sir Henry Cooper School	Arrangement for Appointments
	28. 9. 95	Hessle High School	Interview for pilot studies
	3.10.95	Hessle High School	Arrangement for Appointments
	13.10.95	Hessle High School	Interview for pilot studies and taking student questionnaire
	17.10.95	Sir Henry Cooper School	Interviews: HoDs & teachers
<b>ENDS</b>	20.10.95	Sir Henry Cooper School	Collecting student questionnaire
	21.10.95-29.10.95	SCHOOL HOLIDAYS	
<b>HALF TERM BEGINS</b>			
	23.10.95	Hessle High school	Moderating meeting at school level
	30.10.95	Hessle High school	Collecting student questionnaire
		Sir Henry Cooper School	Collecting student questionnaire
	9.11.95	The Duke of Edinburgh Award at Ice Arena	Interview employer's representative
	20.11.95	Sir Henry Cooper School	Interview: Careers Officer
	14.11.95	Longcroft School, Beverley	Moderating meeting at county level
	17.11.95	Hornsea School	Appointment to see HoD
	24.11.95	Hornsea School	Interview and taking student questionnaire
	28.11.95	Hessle High School	Taking part of the student questionnaire
	30.11.95	Sir Henry Cooper School	Taking student questionnaire
	4.12.95	Malet Lambert School	Interview
	8.12.95	Hornsea School	Discussion
	12.12.95	Longcroft School	Interview HoD
	20.12.95	Longcroft School	Taking student questionnaire
	21.12.95	Hornsea School	Collecting student questionnaire
<b>ENDS</b>	21.12.95		
	22.12.95 - 8. 1.96	SCHOOL HOLIDAYS - CHRISTMAS BREAK	
<b>SPRING TERM BEGINS</b>	9.1.96		
	11. 1.96	Longcroft School	Collecting student questionnaire
	25. 1.96	Beverley Grammar School	Arrangement for Appointments
	26. 1.96	Andrew Marvell School	Arrangement for Appointments
	29. 1.96	Beverley Grammar School	Interview
	30. 1.96	Hessle High School	Collecting part of student questionnaire
	31. 1.96	Andrew Marvell School	Interview

	1. 2.96	Archbishop Thurstan COFe School	Interview
	5. 2.96	Beverley Grammar School	Class observation
	7. 2.96	Kelvin Hall School	Interview
	8. 2.96	Kelvin Hall School	Taking student questionnaire
	12. 2.96	Andrew Marvell School	Class observation
	14. 2.96	Driffield School	Arrangement for Appointments
	16. 2.96	Whitgift School	Interview and taking student questionnaire
<b>ENDS</b>	16.2.96		
	17.2.96-25.2.96	<b>SCHOOL HOLIDAYS</b>	
<b>HALF TERM BEGINS</b>	26.2.96		
	26. 2.96	Andrew Marvell School	Class observation
		Archbishop Thurstan COFe School	Taking student questionnaire
	27. 2.96	Driffield School	Class observation
	28. 2.96	Kelvin Hall School	Collecting student questionnaire
	29. 2.96	Beverley Grammar School	Class observation
	1. 3.96	Driffield School	Class observation & taking student questionnaire
	4. 3.96	Beverley Grammar School	Class observation
	5. 3.96	Driffield School	Class observation
	8. 3.96	Driffield School	Interview
	11. 3.96	Driffield School	Collecting student questionnaire
	12. 3.96	Winterton Comprehensive School	Arrangement for Appointments
	13. 3.96	Beverley Grammar School	Collecting student questionnaire
	15. 3.96	Whitgift School	Collecting student questionnaire
	20. 3.96	Andrew Marvell School	Class observation
	22. 3.96	Archbishop Thurstan COFe School	Collecting student questionnaire
	26. 3.96	Andrew Marvell School	Collecting student questionnaire
	27.3.96	Winterton Comprehensive School	Collecting student questionnaire
<b>ENDS</b>	29. 3.96		
	30. 3.96 –15. 4.96	<b>SCHOOL HOLIDAYS</b>	
<b>SUMMER TERM BEGINS</b>	16. 4. 96		
	18. 4. 96	Woldgate School	Arrangement for Appointments
	19. 4. 96	Archbishop Thurstan COFe School	Collecting student questionnaire
	22. 4. 96	Whitgift School	Collecting student questionnaire
	23. 4. 96	Woldgate School	Interview and taking questionnaire
	1. 5. 96	Woldgate	Class observation
	6. 5. 96	Winterton Comprehensive School	Collecting student questionnaire
	13. 5. 96	Woldgate School	Collecting student questionnaire
<b>MAY DAY</b>	1 6. 5. 96		
<b>ENDS</b>	24. 5. 96		
	25. 5. 96-2. 6. 96	<b>SCHOOL HOLIDAYS</b>	
<b>HALF TERM BEGINS</b>	3. 6. 96		
<b>NON CONTACT DAY</b>	14. 6. 96		
<b>ENDS</b>	24. 7. 96		

## Appendix 7-4

**Descriptive Analysis of Student Questionnaire  
Questions 26 to 43**

	very often No (%)	often No(%)	sometimes No(%)	not often No(%)	Total response No(%)	no response/ not applicable No(%)
your voice is pleasant to hear	86 ( 7.8)	236 (21.4)	<b>516 (46.7)</b>	253 (22.9)	1091	14 (1.3)
your voice is too loud	112 (10.1)	195 (17.6)	<b>479 (43.3)</b>	311 (28.1)	1097	8 (0.7)
your voice is too soft	49 ( 4.4)	94 ( 8.5)	370 (33.5)	<b>582 (52.7)</b>	1095	10 (0.9)
you talk more loudly than others	109 ( 9.9)	175 (15.8)	<b>446 (40.4)</b>	362 (32.8)	1092	13 (1.2)
you talk more quietly than others	49 ( 4.4)	102 ( 9.2)	410 (37.1)	<b>530 (48.0)</b>	1091	14 (1.3)
in discussion, you wait for your turn to speak	193 (17.5)	<b>402 (36.4)</b>	351 (31.8)	145 (13.1)	1091	14 (1.3)
you talk too much	177 (16.0)	207 (18.7)	<b>424 (38.4)</b>	274 (24.8)	1082	23 (2.1)
it is OK to shout in order to get attention	107 ( 9.7)	155 (14.0)	<b>458 (41.4)</b>	371 (33.6)	1091	14 (1.3)
a stranger who asks you for directions, can follow the instructions you give	393 (35.6)	<b>478 (43.3)</b>	179 (16.2)	48 (4.3)	1098	7 (0.6)
after watching a film or a video, you can easily tell others about it	<b>521 (47.1)</b>	356 (32.2)	188 (17.0)	31 (2.8)	1096	9 (0.8)
you can take part in discussions calmly without making others too excited	217 (19.6)	<b>424 (38.4)</b>	361 (32.7)	91 (8.2)	1093	12 (1.1)
in discussions you are willing to listen while others talk	<b>536 (48.5)</b>	357 (32.3)	165 (14.9)	33 (3.0)	1091	14 (1.3)
it is important to be respectful of others' viewpoint	<b>669 (60.5)</b>	278 (25.2)	120 (10.9)	28 (2.5)	1095	10 (0.9)
my friends listen to my suggestions	273 (24.7)	<b>457 (41.4)</b>	306 (27.7)	56 (5.1)	1092	13 (1.2)
you listen carefully so that you can pass on correctly what you hear	378 (34.2)	<b>471 (42.6)</b>	210 (19.0)	35 (3.2)	1094	11 (1.0)
you talk less than your friends	84 (7.6)	161 (14.6)	<b>497 (45.0)</b>	338 (30.6)	1080	25 (2.3)
you are better listener than your friends	170 (15.4)	256 (23.2)	<b>547 (49.5)</b>	109 (9.9)	1082	23 (2.1)
drama lessons help to improve speaking and listening skills	<b>387 (35.0)</b>	267 (24.2)	237 (2.4)	177 (16.0)	1068	37 (3.4)

Note: N=1105

## Appendix 7-5

## Relationships between Pairs of Variables

**Table 1** The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of learning speaking and their perception of the frequency of using watching video activity

	very often	quite often	a few times	occasionally	never	no response	Total
very often	5	29	55	50	4		143 ( 12.9)
quite often		39	122	133	7		301( 27.2)
a few times	2	41	117	168	1		329 ( 29.8)
occasionally	4	35	102	122	7		270 ( 24.4)
never	3	5	14	34	5	1	62 ( 5.6)
<b>Total</b>	14(1.3)	149(13.5)	410(37.1)	507(45.9)	24(2.2)	1(0.1)	1105(100.0)

Note:  $\chi^2 = 67.78$  DF= 20 p. = 0.00  
Figure in ( ) %

**Table 2** The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of learning speaking and their perception of the frequency of using group discussion and debate activity

	very often	quite often	a few times	occasionally	never	no response	Total
very often	37	40	37	24	5		143( 12.9)
quite often	27	107	106	48	12	1	301( 27.2)
a few times	15	79	105	106	23	1	329( 19.8)
occasionally	21	54	69	94	31	1	270( 24.4)
never	6	8	17	14	17		62( 5.6)
<b>Total</b>	106(9.6)	288(26.1)	334(30.2)	286(25.9)	88(8.0)	3(0.3)	1105 (100.0)

Note:  $\chi^2= 148.17$  DF=20 p=0.00  
Figure in ( ) %

**Table 3** The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of learning speaking and their perception of the frequency of listening to another pupil giving talk

	very often	quite often	a few times	occasionally	never	no response	Total
very often	8	31	51	39	14		143( 12.9)
quite often	9	57	107	98	28	2	301( 27.2)
a few times	7	31	102	127	62		329( 29.8)
occasionally	1	19	61	133	55	1	270( 24.4)
never	2	5	11	14	29	1	62( 5.6)
<b>Total</b>	27(2.4)	143(12.9)	332(30.0)	411(37.2)	188(17.0)	4 (0.4)	1105(100.0)

Note:  $\chi^2= 126.92$  DF=20 p=0.000  
Figure in ( ) %

**Table 4** The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of learning speaking and their perception of the frequency of giving talk to class

	very often	quite often	a few times	occasionally	never	no response	Total
very often	7	25	43	42	23	3	143( 12.9)
quite often	2	36	91	122	47	3	301( 27.2)
a few times	3	25	81	137	82	1	329( 29.8)
occasionally		14	42	144	68	2	270( 24.4)
never	3	3	3	17	35	1	62( 5.6)
<b>Total</b>	15(1.4)	103(9.3)	260(23.5)	462(41.8)	255(23.1)	10(0.9)	1105(100.0)

Note:  $\chi^2= 131.05$  DF=20 p=0.00  
Figure in ( ) %



**Table 5 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of learning speaking and their perception of the frequency of listening to tapes**

	very often	quite often	a few times	occasionally	never	no response	Total	
very often	4	10	24	44	58	3	143( 12.9)	
quite often	1	10	31	114	144	1	301( 27.2)	
a few times	3	13	40	101	172		329( 29.8)	
occasionally	5	7	18	79	161		270( 24.4)	
never	1	5	3	9	43	1	62( 5.6)	
Total	14(1.3)	45(4.1)	116(10.5)		347(31.4)	578(52.3)	5(0.5)	1105(100.0)

Note:  $\chi^2= 59.51$  DF=20  $p=0.00$   
Figure in ( ) %

**Table 6 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of learning speaking and their perception of the frequency of using mock interviews activity**

	very often	quite often	a few times	occasionally	never	no response	Total
very often	6	15	16	36	67	3	143( 12.9)
quite often	1	12	38	84	156	10	301( 27.2)
a few times	1	12	30	94	186	6	329( 29.8)
occasionally		3	10	74	176	7	270( 24.4)
never			3	10	47	2	62( 5.6)
Total	8(0.7)	42(3.8)	97(8.8)	298(27.0)	632(57.2)	28(2.5)	1105(100.0)

Note:  $\chi^2= 83.01$  DF=20  $p=0.000$   
Figure in ( ) %

**Table 7 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of learning speaking and their perception of the frequency of using drama and role-playing**

	very often	quite often	a few times	occasionally	never	no response	Total
very often	18	24	40	37	23	1	143( 12.9)
quite often	6	46	89	121	38	1	301( 27.2)
a few times	2	25	104	123	74	1	329( 29.8)
occasionally	3	16	43	123	84	1	270( 24.4)
never	3	4	5	19	30	1	62( 5.6)
Total	32(2.9)	115(10.4)	281(25.4)	423(38.3)	249(22.5)	5(0.5)	1105(100.0)

Note:  $\chi^2= 158.40$  DF=20  $p=0.000$   
Figure in ( ) %

**Table 8 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of learning speaking and their perception of enjoying watching video**

	very much	quite a lot	sometimes	occasionally	never	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	51	44	36	9	3			143 ( 12.9)
quite often	78	119	91	10	3			301 ( 27.2)
a few times	89	119	107	10	4			329 ( 29.8)
occasionally	79	79	95	14	2		1	270 ( 24.4)
never	20	14	21	2	4	1		62 ( 5.6)
Total	317(28.7)	375(33.9)	350(31.7)	45(4.1)	16(1.4)	1(0.1)	1(0.1)	1105(100.0)

Note:  $\chi^2= 51.43$  DF=24  $p=0.00$   
Figure in ( ) %  
N/R = No Response  
N/A = Not Applicable

**Table 9 The relationship between students' perception on the frequency of learning speaking and their perception of enjoying group discussion and debate**

	very much	quite a lot	sometimes	occasionally	never	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	44	43	37	14	4	1		143( 12.9)
quite often	69	105	82	33	10	1	1	301( 27.2)
a few times	56	105	113	35	19	1		329( 29.8)
occasionally	35	72	89	48	23	1	2	270( 24.4)
never	9	12	21	2	16	1	1	62( 5.6)
Total	213(19.3)	337(30.5)	342(31.0)	132(11.9)	72(6.5)		4(0.4)	1105(100.0)

Notes:  $\chi^2= 95.08$  DF=24 p=0.000

N/R= no response

N/A= not applicable

**Table 10 The relationship between students' perception on the frequency of learning speaking and their perception of enjoying listening to other pupils talk**

	very much	quite a lot	sometimes	occasionally	never	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	24	44	49	12	11	2	1	143( 12.9)
quite often	19	86	130	51	13	1	1	301( 27.2)
a few times	29	71	136	49	42	2		329( 29.8)
occasionally	15	48	101	61	41	1	3	270( 24.4)
never	2	4	20	14	20	1	1	62( 5.6)
Total	89(8.1)	253(22.9)	436(39.5)	187(16.9)	127(11.5)	7(0.6)	6(0.5)	1105(100.0)

Note:  $\chi^2= 104.44$  DF=24 p=0.000

N/R= no response

N/A= not applicable

**Table 11 The relationship between students' perception on the frequency of learning speaking and their perception of enjoying giving talk to the class**

	very much	quite a lot	sometimes	Occasionally	never	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	14	19	41	36	32	1		143( 12.9)
quite often	13	37	93	79	76	2	1	301( 27.2)
a few times	7	25	85	94	114	4		329( 29.8)
occasionally	8	21	38	84	115	1	3	270( 24.4)
never	2	1	6	10	40	2	1	62( 5.6)
Total	44 (4.0)	103(9.3)	263(23.8)	303(27.4)	377(34.1)	10(0.9)	5(0.5)	1105(100.0)

Note:  $\chi^2= 102.92$  DF=24 p=0.000

N/R= no response

N/A= not applicable

**Table 12 The relationship between students' perception on the frequency of learning speaking and their perception of enjoying listening to tapes**

	very much	quite a lot	sometimes	occasionally	never	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	17	28	29	29	37	2	1	143( 12.9)
quite often	15	35	84	60	100	6	1	301( 27.2)
a few times	15	37	88	87	98	4		329( 29.8)
occasionally	14	30	60	59	98	6	3	270( 24.4)
never	4	2	9	9	34	3	1	62( 5.6)
Total	65 (5.9)	132(11.9)	270(24.4)	244(22.1)	367( 33.2)	21(1.9)	6(0.5)	1105(100.0)

Note:  $\chi^2= 55.17$  DF=24 p=0.000

N/R= no response

N/A= not applicable

**Table 13 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of learning speaking and their perception of enjoying mock interviews**

	very much	quite a lot	sometimes	occasionally	never	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	13	17	31	33	43	4	2	143( 12.9)
quite often	10	33	67	56	117	16	2	301( 27.2)
a few times	7	33	70	76	132	11		329( 29.8)
occasionally	13	9	40	65	132	7	4	270( 24.4)
never	2	2	7	8	39	3	1	62( 5.6)
Total	45(4.1)	94(8.5)	215(19.5)	238(21.5)	463(41.9)	41(3.7)	9(0.8)	1105(100.0)

Note:  $\chi^2= 64.54$  DF=24 p=0.000

N/R= no response

N/A= not applicable

**Table 14 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of learning speaking and their perception of enjoying drama and role-playing**

	very much	quite a lot	sometimes	occasionally	never	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	43	41	23	16	18	1	1	143(12.9)
quite often	88	77	48	45	42	1		301( 7.2)
a few times	55	89	72	59	52	1	1	329(29.8)
occasionally	35	64	52	49	66	1	3	270(24.4)
never	4	7	12	7	29	3		62( 5.6)
Total	225(20.4)	278(25.2)	207(18.7)	176(15.9)	207(18.7)	7(0.6)	5(0.5)	1105(100.0)

Note:  $\chi^2= 109.97$  DF=24 p=0.00

N/R= no response

N/A= not applicable

**Table 15 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of learning listening and their perception of the frequency of using watching video activity**

	very often	quite often	a few times	occasionally	never	no response	Total
very often	6	73	165	153	7		404( 36.6)
quite often		43	151	190	10		394( 35.7)
a few times	2	20	58	83	2		165( 14.9)
occasionally	4	10	25	62	2		103( 9.3)
never	2	3	11	19	3	1	39( 3.5)
Total	14(1.3)	149(13.5)	410(37.1)	507(45.9)	24(2.2)	1(0.1)	1105(100.0)

Note:  $\chi^2= 78.69$  DF=20 p=0.00

Figure in ( ) %

**Table 16 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of learning listening and their perception of the frequency of using group discussion and debates**

	very often	quite often	a few times	occasionally	never	no response	Total
very often	56	131	125	75	17		404( 36.6)
quite often	27	118	118	107	24		394( 35.7)
a few times	17	24	46	54	21	3	165( 14.9)
occasionally	3	11	31	42	16		103( 9.3)
never	3	4	14	8	10		39( 3.5)
Total	106(9.6)	288(26.1)	334(30.2)	286(25.9)	88(8.0)	3(0.3)	1105(100.0)

Note:  $\chi^2= 120.88$  DF=20 p=0.00

Figures in ( ) %

**Table 17 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of learning listening and their perception of the frequency of listening to another pupil giving talk**

	very often	quite often	a few times	occasionally	never	no response	Total
very often	16	64	126	141	56	1	404( 36.6)
quite often	5	56	117	156	58	2	394( 35.7)
a few times	4	15	47	66	33		165( 14.9)
occasionally	1	3	32	37	30		103( 9.3)
never	1	5	10	11	11	1	39( 3.5)
<b>Total</b>	<b>27(2.4)</b>	<b>143(12.9)</b>	<b>332(30.0)</b>	<b>411(37.2)</b>	<b>188(17.0)</b>	<b>4(0.4)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Notes:  $\chi^2=45.76$  DF=20 p=0.00  
Figure in ( ) %

**Table 18 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of learning listening and their perception of the frequency of giving talk to the class**

	very often	quite often	a few times	occasionally	never	no response	Total
very often	9	42	92	167	88	6	404( 36.6)
quite often	2	47	95	171	79		394( 35.7)
a few times	4	7	40	72	39	3	165( 14.9)
occasionally		3	27	39	34		103( 9.3)
never		4	6	13	15	1	39( 3.5)
<b>Total</b>	<b>15(1.4)</b>	<b>103(9.3)</b>	<b>260(23.5)</b>	<b>462(41.8)</b>	<b>255(23.1)</b>	<b>10(0.9)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2=42.22$  DF=20 p=0.003  
Figure in ( ) %

**Table 19 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of learning listening and their perception of the frequency of listening to tapes**

	very often	quite often	a few times	occasionally	never	no response	Total
very often	5	17	53	124	203	2	404( 36.6)
quite often	7	16	33	143	193	2	394( 35.7)
a few times	1	7	16	60	81		165( 14.9)
occasionally		3	13	16	71		103( 9.3)
never	1	2	1	4	30	1	39( 3.5)
<b>Total</b>	<b>14(1.3)</b>	<b>45(4.1)</b>	<b>116(10.5)</b>	<b>347(31.4)</b>	<b>578(52.3)</b>	<b>5(0.5)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2=45.61$  DF=20 p=0.00  
Figure in ( ) %

**Table 20 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of learning listening and their perception of the frequency of using mock interviews**

	very often	quite often	a few times	occasionally	never	no response	Total
very often	8	22	38	100	223	13	404( 36.6)
quite often		14	34	112	230	4	394( 35.7)
a few times		5	15	56	83	6	165( 14.9)
occasionally		1	5	26	69	2	103( 9.3)
never			5	4	27	3	39( 3.5)
<b>Total</b>	<b>8(0.7)</b>	<b>42(3.8)</b>	<b>97(8.8)</b>	<b>298(27.0)</b>	<b>632(57.2)</b>	<b>28(2.5)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2=45.47$  DF=20 p=0.000  
Figure in ( ) %

**Table 21 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of learning listening and their perception of the frequency of using drama and role-playing**

	very often	quite often	a few times	occasionally	never	no response	Total
very often	21	49	121	125	85	3	404( 36.6)
quite often	7	39	96	170	82		394( 35.7)
a few times	2	18	40	66	38	1	165( 14.9)
occasionally	2	5	20	45	31		103( 9.3)
never		4	4	17	13	1	39( 3.5)
<b>Total</b>	<b>32(2.9)</b>	<b>115(10.4)</b>	<b>281(25.4)</b>	<b>423(38.3)</b>	<b>249(22.5)</b>	<b>5(0.5)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2= 46.84$  DF=20  $p=0.000$

Figure in ( ) %

**Table 22 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of learning listening and their perception of enjoying watching video**

	very much	quite a lot	sometimes	occasionally	never	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	141	135	104	18	5		1	404( 36.6)
quite often	103	141	127	18	5			394( 35.7)
a few times	35	60	67	2	1			165( 14.9)
occasionally	24	30	42	5	2			103( 9.3)
never	14	9	10	2	3	1		39( 3.5)
<b>Total</b>	<b>317(28.7)</b>	<b>375(33.9)</b>	<b>350(31.7)</b>	<b>45(4.1)</b>	<b>16(1.4)</b>	<b>1(0.1)</b>	<b>1(0.1)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2= 70.61$  DF=24  $p=0.000$

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No Response

N/A = Not Applicable

**Table 23 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of learning listening and their perception of enjoying group discussion and debates**

	very much	quite a lot	sometimes	occasionally	never	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	104	122	109	47	21	1		404( 36.6)
quite often	78	127	123	43	20		3	394( 35.7)
a few times	14	50	66	20	12	3		165( 14.9)
occasionally	13	27	33	20	9		1	103( 9.3)
never	4	11	11	2	10	1		39( 3.5)
<b>Total</b>	<b>213(19.3)</b>	<b>337(30.5)</b>	<b>342(31.0)</b>	<b>132(11.9)</b>	<b>72(6.5)</b>	<b>5(0.5)</b>	<b>4(0.4)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2= 80.59$  DF=24  $p=0.00$

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No Response

N/A = Not Applicable

**Table 24 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of learning listening and their perception of enjoying listening to another pupil giving talk**

	very much	quite a lot	sometimes	occasionally	never	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	51	104	155	51	39	2	2	404( 36.6)
quite often	18	107	162	62	39	2	4	394( 35.7)
a few times	8	21	75	39	20	2		165( 14.9)
occasionally	11	16	29	30	17			103( 9.3)
never	1	5	15	5	12	1		39( 3.5)
<b>Total</b>	<b>89(8.1)</b>	<b>253(22.9)</b>	<b>436(39.5)</b>	<b>187(16.9)</b>	<b>127(11.5)</b>	<b>7(0.6)</b>	<b>6(0.5)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2= 85.19$  DF=24  $p=0.000$

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No Response

N/A = Not Applicable

**Table 25 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of learning listening and their perception of enjoying giving talk to the class**

	very much	quite a lot	sometimes	occasionally	never	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	26	50	94	102	129	1	2	404 ( 36.6)
quite often	10	34	102	115	128	2	3	394 ( 35.7)
a few times	5	8	37	53	57	5		165 ( 14.9)
occasionally	3	8	24	27	41			103 ( 9.3)
never		3	6	6	22	2		39 ( 3.5)
Total	44(4.0)	103(9.3)	263(23.8)	303(27.4)	377(34.1)	10(0.9)	5(0.5)	1105(100.0)

Note:  $\chi^2=54.47$  DF=24 p=0.000

Figure in ( ) %

N/R= No Response

N/A= Not Applicable

**Table 26 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of learning listening and their perception of enjoying listening to tapes**

	very much	quite a lot	some-times	occasionally	never	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	35	49	95	76	141	5	3	404( 36.6)
quite often	18	51	102	102	115	3	3	394( 35.7)
a few times	4	20	48	41	44	8		165( 14.9)
occasionally	6	10	21	18	46	2		103( 9.3)
never	2	2	4	7	21	3		39( 3.5)
Total	65(5.9)	132(11.9)	270(24.4)	244(22.1)	367(33.2)	21(1.9)	6(1.9)	1105(100.0)

Note:  $\chi^2=58.23$  DF=24 p=0.00

Figure in ( ) %

N/R= No Response

N/A= Not Applicable

**Table 27 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of learning listening and their perception of enjoying mock interviews**

	very much	quite a lot	sometimes	occasionally	never	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	23	36	77	84	167	12	5	404( 36.6)
quite often	11	34	81	87	161	16	4	394( 35.7)
a few times	2	17	40	43	56	7		165( 14.9)
occasionally	8	7	12	18	56	2		103( 9.3)
never	1		5	6	23	4		39( 3.5)
Total	45 (4.1)	94(8.5)	215(19.5)	238(21.5)	463(41.9)	41(3.7)	9(0.8)	1105(100.0)

Note:  $\chi^2=44.06$  DF=24 p=0.00

Figure in ( ) %

N/R= No Response

N/A= Not Applicable

**Table 28 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of learning listening and their perception of enjoying drama and role-playing**

	very much	quite a lot	sometimes	occasionally	never	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	104	97	71	55	74		3	404( 36.6)
quite often	78	104	75	68	65	3	1	394( 35.7)
a few times	25	46	29	35	28	2	1	165( 14.9)
occasionally	14	27	25	11	25		1	103( 9.3)
never	4	4	7	7	15	2		39( 3.5)
Total	225(20.4)	278(25.2)	207(18.7)	176(15.9)	207(18.7)	7(0.6)	5(0.5)	1105(100.0)

Note:  $\chi^2= 55.80$  DF=24 p=0.000

Figure in ( ) %

N/R= No Response

N/A= Not Applicable

**Table 29 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of watching video and their perception of enjoying this activity.**

	very much	quite a lot	sometimes	occasionally	never	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	6	4	3		1			14( 1.3)
quite often	55	57	36		1			149( 13.5)
a few times	124	149	123	12	2			410( 37.1)
occasionally	125	161	185	31	5			507( 45.9)
never	7	4	3	2	7		1	24( 2.2)
N/R						1		1( 0.1)
Total	317(28.7)	375(33.9)	350(31.7)	45(4.1)	16(1.4)	1(0.1)	1(0.1)	1105(100.0)

Note:  $\chi^2= 1320.88$  DF=30 p=0.00

Figure in ( ) %

N/R= No Response

N/A= Not Applicable

**Table 30 The relationship between students perception of the frequency of using group discussion and debate and their perception of enjoying these activities.**

	very much	quite a lot	sometimes	occasionally	never	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	36	41	23	5	1			106( 9.6)
quite often	66	104	79	25	12	2		288( 26.1)
a few times	61	103	116	41	13			334( 30.2)
occasionally	35	70	111	50	20			286( 25.9)
never	14	19	12	11	26	2	4	88( 8.0)
N/R	1		1			1		3( 0.3)
Total	213(19.3)	337(30.5)	342(31.0)	132(11.9)	72(6.5)	5(0.5)	4(0.4)	1105(100.0)

Note:  $\chi^2= 279.89$  DF=30 p=0.00

Figure in ( ) %

N/R= No Response

N/A= Not Applicable

**Table 31 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of listening to another pupil giving a talk and their perception of enjoying this activity.**

	very much	quite a lot	sometimes	occasionally	never	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	8	10	5	2	1	1		27( 2.4)
quite often	19	52	57	12	3			143( 12.9)
a few times	28	99	144	46	15			332( 30.0)
occasionally	25	78	188	89	30	1		411( 37.2)
never	8	12	41	38	78	5	6	188( 17.0)
N/R	1	2	1					4( 0.4)
<b>Total</b>	<b>89(8.1)</b>	<b>253(22.9)</b>	<b>436(39.5)</b>	<b>187(16.9)</b>	<b>127(11.5)</b>	<b>7(0.6)</b>	<b>6(0.5)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2= 344.47$  DF=30 p=0.00

Figure in ( ) %

N/R= No Response

N/A= Not Applicable

**Table 32 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of giving a talk to the class and their perception of enjoying this activity.**

	very much	quite a lot	sometimes	occasionally	never	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	4		7	2	2			15( 1.4)
quite often	7	24	35	19	17	1		103( 9.3)
a few times	12	30	91	77	50			260( 23.5)
occasionally	11	39	100	170	142			462( 41.8)
never	8	8	29	35	165	5	5	255( 23.1)
N/R	2	2	1		1	4		10( 0.9)
<b>Total</b>	<b>44(4.0)</b>	<b>103(9.3)</b>	<b>263(23.8)</b>	<b>303(27.4)</b>	<b>377(34.1)</b>	<b>10(0.9)</b>	<b>5(0.5)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2= 444.01$  DF=30 p=0.00

Figure in ( ) %

N/R= No Response

N/A= Not Applicable

**Table 33 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of listening to tapes and their perception of enjoying this activity.**

	very much	quite a lot	sometimes	occasionally	never	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	4	5	2	1	2			14( 1.3)
quite often	9	15	17	4				45( 4.1)
a few times	7	38	49	20	2			116( 10.5)
occasionally	18	49	126	109	42	3		347( 31.4)
never	27	24	75	109	320	17	6	578( 52.3)
N/R		1	1	1	1	1		5( 0.5)
<b>Total</b>	<b>65(5.9)</b>	<b>132(11.9)</b>	<b>270(24.4)</b>	<b>244(22.1)</b>	<b>367(33.2)</b>	<b>21(1.9)</b>	<b>6(0.5)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2= 425.09$  DF=30 p=0.00

Figure in ( ) %

N/R= No Response

N/A= Not Applicable



**Table 34 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of using mock interviews and their perception of enjoying this activity.**

	very much	quite a lot	sometimes	occasionally	never	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	3	3	2					8( 0.7)
quite often	4	13	16	3	6			42( 3.8)
a few times	9	21	44	16	7			97( 8.8)
occasionally	15	33	82	124	43	1		298( 27.0)
never	13	21	67	93	404	25	9	632( 57.2)
N/R	1	3	4	2	3	15		28( 2.5)
Total	45(4.1)	94(8.5)	215(19.5)	238(21.5)	463(41.9)	41(3.7)	9(0.8)	1105(100.0)

Note:  $\chi^2=650.50$  DF=30 p=0.000

Figure in ( ) %

N/R= No Response

N/A= Not Applicable

**Table 35 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of using drama and role-playing and their perception of enjoying this activity.**

	very much	quite a lot	sometimes	occasionally	never	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	13	9	9	1				32( 2.9)
quite often	48	41	14	7	5			115( 10.4)
a few times	72	102	60	33	13	1		281( 25.4)
occasionally	61	96	96	110	60			423( 38.3)
never	30	29	27	25	129	4	5	249( 22.5)
N/R	1	1	1			2		5( 0.5)
Total	225(20.4)	278(25.2)	207(18.7)	176(15.9)	207(18.7)	7(0.6)	5(0.5)	1105(100.0)

Note:  $\chi^2=500.31$  DF=30 p=0.00

Figure in ( ) %

N/R= No Response

N/A= Not Applicable

**Table 36 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of speaking to the teacher and their perception of feeling nervous while giving a talk to the teacher**

	very nervous	quite nervous	nervous	sometimes	not nervous	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	15	35	24	102	232	1	1	410( 37.1)
quite often	7	48	43	168	163	6	2	437( 39.5)
a few times	7	19	24	69	53	4		176( 15.9)
occasionally	7	6	5	27	18		1	64( 5.8)
never	4	2	1	3	6			16( 1.4)
N/R		1			1			2( 0.2)
Total	40(3.6)	111(10.0)	97(8.8)	369(33.4)	473(42.8)	11(1.0)	4(0.4)	1105(100.0)

Note:  $\chi^2=107.71$  DF=30 p=0.00

Figure in ( ) %

N/R= No Response

N/A= Not Applicable

**Table 37 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of speaking to the teacher and their perception of feeling nervous while giving a talk to the whole class**

	very nervous	quite nervous	nervous	sometimes	not nervous	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	68	68	66	122	79	1	6	410( 37.1)
quite often	75	104	97	110	36	7	8	437( 39.5)
a few times	48	43	28	31	20	4	2	176( 15.9)
occasionally	19	13	10	12	9		1	64( 5.8)
never	7	1	2	3	3			16( 1.4)
N/R		1			1			2( 0.2)
Total	217(19.6 )	230(20.8 )	203(18.4 )	278(25.2 )	148(13.4 )	12(1.1)	17(1.5)	1105(100.0 )

Note:  $\chi^2= 71.08$  DF=30 p=0.00

Figure in ( ) %

N/R= No Response

N/A= Not Applicable

**Table 38 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of speaking to the teacher and their perception of feeling nervous while giving a talk to the whole school**

	very nervous	quite nervous	nervous	sometimes	not nervous	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	219	50	53	37	30	9	12	410( 37.1)
quite often	255	45	59	20	16	18	24	437( 39.5)
a few times	122	14	11	9	8	7	5	176( 15.9)
occasionally	40	6	3	6	3	3	3	64( 5.8)
never	11		1	1	3			16( 1.4)
N/R	1	1						2( 0.2)
Total	648(58.6 )	116(10.5 )	127(11.5 )	73(6.6 )	60(5.4 )	37(3.3)	44(4.0)	1105(100.0 )

Note:  $\chi^2= 49.69$  DF=30 p=0.133

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No Response

N/A = Not Applicable

**Table 39 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of speaking to the teacher and their perception of feeling nervous while giving a talk to the visitors/ parents**

	very nervous	quite nervous	nervous	sometimes	not nervous	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	78	100	67	81	63	11	10	410(37.1)
quite often	81	94	96	93	36	23	14	437(39.5)
a few times	47	46	29	28	14	7	5	176(15.9)
occasionally	20	18	11	8	4		3	64( 5.8)
never	7	2	3	1	3			16( 1.4)
N/R		1		1				2( 0.2)
Total	233(21.1 )	261(23.6 )	206(18.6 )	212(19.2 )	120(10.9 )	32(2.9)	41(3.7)	1105(100.0 )

Note:  $\chi^2= 49.51$  DF=30 p=0.013 (accept null hypothesis)

Figure in ( ) %

N/R= No Response

N/A= Not Applicable

**Table 40 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of speaking to the teacher and their perception of feeling nervous while giving a talk to audience outside school**

	very nervous	quite nervous	nervous	sometimes	not nervous	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	102	63	55	79	95	7	9	410( 37.1)
quite often	106	69	66	97	66	14	19	437( 39.5)
a few times	58	31	21	32	24	5	5	176( 15.9)
occasionally	21	8	7	11	14		3	64( 5.8)
never	5	1	2	3	5			16( 1.4)
N/R	1				1			2( 0.2)
Total	293(26.5 )	172(15.6 )	151(13.7 )	222(20.1)	205(18.6)	26(2.4)	36(3.3)	1105(100.0 )

Note:  $\chi^2= 32.34$  DF=30 p=0.35

Figure in ( ) %

N/R =No Response

N/A =Not Applicable

**Table 41 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of speaking to the whole class and their perception of feeling nervous while giving a talk to the teacher**

	very nervous	quite nervous	nervous	sometimes	not nervous	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	5	15	4	34	70	2	2	132 (11.9)
quite often	4	22	23	59	100	1		209 (18.9)
a few times	10	39	28	110	121	1	1	310 (28.1)
occasionally	11	24	36	127	133	5	1	337 (30.5)
never	10	10	6	39	48	2		115( 10.4)
N/R		1				1		2( 0.2)
Total	40(3.6)	111(10.0 )	97 (8.8)	369(33.4)	473(42.8)	11(1.0)	4(0.4)	1105(100.0)

Note:  $\chi^2= 51.33$  DF=30 p=0.01

Figure in ( ) %

N/R= No Response

N/A= Not Applicable

**Table 42 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of speaking to the whole Class and their perception of feeling nervous while giving a talk to the whole class**

	very nervous	quite nervous	nervous	sometimes	not nervous	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	13	22	15	37	39	2	4	132( 11.9)
quite often	19	44	41	62	39	1	3	209( 18.9)
a few times	56	80	53	89	28	1	3	310( 28.1)
occasionally	88	58	82	73	27	6	3	337( 30.5)
never	41	25	12	17	14	2	4	115( 10.4)
N/R		1			1			2( 0.2)
Total	217(19.6 )	230(20.8 )	203(18.4 )	278(25.2)	148(13.4)	12(1.1)	17(1.5)	1105(100.0 )

Note:  $\chi^2= 129.37$  DF=30 p=0.00

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No Response

**Table 43 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of speaking to the whole Class and their perception of feeling nervous while giving a talk to the whole school**

	very nervous	quite nervous	nervous	sometimes	not nervous	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	55	16	21	15	15	4	6	132( 11.9)
quite often	101	27	30	15	16	13	7	209( 18.9)
a few times	189	36	40	18	9	4	14	310( 28.1)
occasionally	227	27	28	17	14	12	12	337( 30.5)
never	75	9	8	8	6	4	5	115( 10.4)
N/R	1	1						2( 0.2)
Total	648(58.6)	116(10.5)	127(11.5)	73(6.6)	60(5.4)	37(3.3)	44(4.0)	1105(100.0)

Note:  $\chi^2= 64.53$  DF=30 p=0.00

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No Response

N/A = Not Applicable

**Table 44 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of speaking to the whole class and their perception of feeling nervous while giving a talk to the visitors/parents**

	Very nervous	quite nervous	nervous	some-imes	not nervous	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	28	21	23	28	25	4	3	132( 11.9)
quite often	31	50	34	49	30	8	7	209( 18.9)
a few times	58	81	56	71	25	6	13	310( 28.1)
occasionally	78	81	76	49	30	10	13	337( 30.5)
never	38	27	17	14	10	4	5	115( 10.4)
N/R		1		1				2( 0.2)
Total	233(21.1)	261(23.6)	206(18.6)	212(19.2)	120(10.9)	32(2.9)	41(3.7)	1105(100.0)

Note:  $\chi^2= 52.91$  DF=30 p=0.01

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No Response

N/A = Not Applicable

**Table 45 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of speaking to the whole class and their perception of feeling nervous while giving a talk to the audience outside school**

	very nervous	quite nervous	nervous	sometimes	not nervous	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	28	19	14	21	44	4	2	132( 11.9)
quite often	48	32	25	39	51	7	7	209( 18.9)
a few times	74	61	45	77	34	5	14	310( 28.1)
occasionally	94	51	55	66	55	7	9	337( 30.5)
never	48	9	12	19	20	3	4	115( 10.4)
N/R	1				1			2( 0.2)
Total	293(26.5)	172(15.6)	151(13.7)	222(20.1)	205(18.6)	26(2.4)	36(3.3)	1105(100.0)

Note:  $\chi^2= 68.90$  DF=30 p=0.00

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No Response

N/A = Not Applicable

**Table 46 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of giving a talk to the whole class and their perception of feeling nervous while giving a talk to the teacher**

	very nervous	quite nervous	nervous	sometimes	not nervous	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	2	2	4	2	11			21( 1.9)
quite often	5	12	5	26	62			110( 10.0)
a few times	7	42	26	101	145			321( 29.0)
occasionally	9	31	47	163	160	2		412( 37.3)
never	17	23	15	77	94	7	4	237( 21.4)
N/R		1			1	2		4( 0.4)
Total	40(3.6)	111(10.0)	97(8.8)	369(33.4)	473(42.8)	11(1.0)	4(0.4)	1105(100.0)

Note:  $\chi^2= 178.56$  DF=30 p=0.00

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No Response

N/A = Not Applicable

**Table 47 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of giving a talk to the whole class and their perception of feeling nervous while giving a talk to the whole class**

	very nervous	quite nervous	nervous	sometimes	not nervous	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	2	3	3	7	6			21(1.9)
quite often	10	20	16	35	28	1		110(10.0)
a few times	48	77	63	92	41			321(29.0)
occasionally	94	90	93	97	36		2	412(37.3)
never	63	39	28	47	36	9	15	237(21.4)
N/R		1			1	2		4( 0.4)
Total	217(19.6)	230(20.8)	203(18.4)	278(25.2)	148(13.4)	12(1.1)	17(1.5)	1105(100.0)

Note:  $\chi^2= 225.17$  DF=30 p=0.00

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No Response

N/A = Not Applicable

**Table 48 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of giving a talk to the whole class and their perception of feeling nervous while giving a talk to the whole school**

	very nervous	Quite nervous	nervous	sometimes	not nervous	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	6	1	7	3	4			21( 1.9)
quite often	46	19	20	8	6	7	4	110( 10.0)
a few times	177	41	42	28	15	10	8	321( 29.0)
occasionally	287	29	36	17	19	10	14	412( 37.3)
never	131	25	22	17	16	10	16	237( 21.4)
N/R	1	1				2		4( 0.4)
Total	648(58.6)	116(10.5)	127(11.5)	73 (6.6)	60 (5.4)	37(3.3)	44(4.0)	1105(100.0)

Note:  $\chi^2= 105.28$  DF=30 p=0.00

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No Response

N/A = Not Applicable

**Table 49 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of giving a talk to the whole class and their perception of feeling nervous while giving a talk to visitors/parents**

	very nervous	quite nervous	nervous	sometimes	not nervous	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	3	4	4	6	4			21( 1.9)
quite often	18	22	16	33	13	3	5	110( 10.0)
a few times	62	70	63	66	44	5	11	321( 29.0)
occasionally	93	112	86	66	31	13	11	412( 37.3)
never	57	52	37	40	28	9	14	237( 21.4)
N/R		1		1		2		4( 0.4)
Total	233(21.1 )	261(23.6 )	206(18.6 )	212(19.2)	120(10.9)	32(2.9)	41(3.7)	1105(100.0 )

Note:  $\chi^2=71.29$  DF=30 p=0.00

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No Response

N/A = Not Applicable

**Table 50 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of giving a talk to the whole class and their perception of feeling nervous while giving a talk to audience outside school**

	very nervous	Quite nervous	nervous	sometimes	not nervous	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	4	1	5	5	6			21( 1.9)
quite often	27	19	8	24	24	2	6	110( 10.0)
a few times	74	46	47	71	65	8	10	321( 29.0)
occasionally	116	75	65	85	57	4	10	412( 37.3)
never	71	31	26	37	52	10	10	237( 21.4)
N/R	1				1	2		4( 0.4)
Total	293(26.5 )	172(15.6 )	151(13.7 )	222(20.1)	205(18.6)	26(2.4)	36(3.3)	1105(100.0 )

Note:  $\chi^2=80.35$  DF=30 p=0.00

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No Response

N/A = Not Applicable

**Table 51 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of giving a talk to the whole school and their perception of feeling nervous while giving a talk to the teacher**

	very nervous	Quite nervous	nervous	sometimes	not nervous	N/R	N/A	Total
very often		1	2	2				5(0.5)
quite often	3	4		2	13			22(2.0)
a few times	1	4	2	10	27			44(4.0)
occasionally	5	12	12	33	63			125(11.3)
never	31	89	80	322	367	8	4	901(81.5)
N/R		1	1		2	3		7( 0.6)
Total	40(3.6)	111(10.0 )	97( 8.8)	369(33.4)	473(42.8)	11(1.0)	4(0.4)	1105(100.0 )

Note:  $\chi^2=166.36$  DF=36 p=0.00

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No Response

N/A = Not Applicable

**Table 52 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of giving a talk to the whole school and their perception of feeling nervous while giving a talk to the whole class**

	very nervous	quite nervous	nervous	sometimes	not nervous	N/R	N/A	Total
very often		1	1	3				5( 0.5)
quite often	5	2	1	6	8			22( 2.0)
a few times	4	7	11	14	7	1		44( 4.0)
occasionally	20	19	24	31	31			125(11.3)
never	187	199	165	224	100	9	17	901(81.5)
N/R	1	1	1		2	2		7( 0.6)
N/A		1						1( 0.1)
Total	217(19.6)	230(20.8)	203(18.4)	278(25.2)	148(13.4)	12(1.1)	17(1.5)	1105(100.0)

Note:  $\chi^2= 103.34$  DF=36 p=0.00

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No Response

N/A = Not Applicable

**Table 53 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of giving a talk to the whole school and their perception of feeling nervous while giving a talk to the whole school**

	very nervous	quite nervous	nervous	sometimes	not nervous	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	1	1	2	1				5( 0.5)
quite often	4	6	6	3	3			22( 2.0)
a few times	12	9	8	11	3	1		44( 4.0)
occasionally	54	20	19	19	13			125(11.3)
never	575	79	91	39	41	33	43	901(81.5)
N/R	2	1	1			3		7( 0.6)
N/A							1	1( 0.1)
Total	648(58.6)	116(10.5)	127(11.5)	73(6.6)	60(5.4)	37(3.3)	44(4.0)	1105(100.0)

Note:  $\chi^2= 184.21$  DF=36 p=0.00

Figure in ( ) %

N/R=No Response

N/A=Not Applicable

**Table 54 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of giving a talk to the whole school and their perception of feeling nervous while giving a talk to the visitors/parents**

	very nervous	quite nervous	nervous	sometimes	not nervous	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	1	2	2					5( 0.5)
quite often	4	4	5	4	5			22( 2.0)
a few times	6	4	6	16	8	2	2	44( 4.0)
occasionally	20	26	19	36	20	2	2	125(11.3)
never	202	223	174	154	87	25	36	901(81.5)
N/R		2		2		3		7( 0.6)
N/A							1	1( 0.1)
Total	233(21.1)	261(23.6)	206(18.6)	212(19.2)	120(10.9)	32(2.9)	41(3.7)	1105(100.0)

Note:  $\chi^2= 111.37$  DF=36 p=0.00

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No Response

N/A = Not Applicable

**Table 55 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of giving a talk to the whole school and their perception of feeling nervous while giving a talk to the audience outside school**

	very nervous	quite nervous	nervous	sometimes	not nervous	N/R	N/A	Total
very often		1	2	1	1			5( 0.5)
quite often	5	2	4	6	4		1	22( 2.0)
a few times	4	6	6	12	12	3	1	44( 4.0)
occasionally	23	17	20	31	31	1	2	125(11.3)
never	259	145	119	171	156	20	31	901(81.5)
N/R	2	1		1	1	2		7( 0.6)
N/A							1	1( 0.1)
<b>Total</b>	<b>293(26.5)</b>	<b>172(15.6)</b>	<b>151(13.7)</b>	<b>222(20.1)</b>	<b>205(18.6)</b>	<b>26(2.4)</b>	<b>36(3.3)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2= 83.63$  DF=36 p=0.00

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No Response

N/A = Not Applicable

**Table 56 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of giving a talk to the visitors/parents and their perception of feeling nervous while giving a talk to the teacher**

	very nervous	Quite nervous	nervous	sometimes	not nervous	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	2	4	2	4	10			22( 2.0)
quite often	2	3	2	10	24	1		42( 3.8)
a few times	3	14	10	23	51			101( 9.1)
occasionally	5	18	15	78	98	1	1	216(19.5)
never	27	71	68	254	285	7	3	715(64.7)
N/R	1	1			4	2		8( 0.7)
N/A					1			1( 0.1)
<b>Total</b>	<b>40(3.6)</b>	<b>111(10.0)</b>	<b>97(8.8)</b>	<b>369(33.4)</b>	<b>473( 42.8)</b>	<b>11(1.0)</b>	<b>4 (0.4)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2= 78.32$  DF=36 p=0.00

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No Response

N/A = Not Applicable

**Table 57 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of giving a talk to the visitors/parents and their perception of feeling nervous while giving a talk to the whole class**

	very nervous	Quite nervous	nervous	sometimes	not nervous	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	5	2	4	8	3			22( 2.0)
quite often	6	6	5	12	12	1		42( 3.8)
a few times	20	15	24	30	10	1	1	101( 9.1)
occasionally	37	44	41	62	30	1	1	216(19.5)
never	149	160	129	165	90	7	15	715(64.7)
N/R		2		1	3	2		8( 0.7)
N/A		1						1( 0.1)
<b>Total</b>	<b>217(19.6)</b>	<b>230(20.8)</b>	<b>203(18.4)</b>	<b>278(25.2)</b>	<b>148(13.4)</b>	<b>12(1.1)</b>	<b>17(1.5)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2= 81.59$  DF=36 p=0.00

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No Response

N/A = Not Applicable



**Table 58 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of giving a talk to the visitors/parents and their perception of feeling nervous while giving a talk to the whole school**

	very nervous	quite nervous	nervous	sometimes	not nervous	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	9	4	3	3	2	1		22( 2.0)
quite often	11	7	10	7	3	4		42( 3.8)
a few times	50	10	22	7	5	5	2	101( 9.1)
occasionally	127	21	29	18	13	4	4	216(19.5)
never	448	73	62	38	36	21	37	715(64.7)
N/R	3	1	1		1	2		8( 0.7)
N/A							1	1( 0.1)
<b>Total</b>	<b>648(58.6)</b>	<b>116(10.5)</b>	<b>127(11.5)</b>	<b>73(6.6)</b>	<b>60(5.4)</b>	<b>37(3.3)</b>	<b>44(4.0)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2= 101.31$  DF=36 p=0.00

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No Response

N/A = Not Applicable

**Table 59 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of giving a talk to the visitors/parents and their perception of feeling nervous while giving a talk to the visitors/parents**

	very nervous	quite nervous	nervous	sometimes	not nervous	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	2	5	1	4	10			22( 2.0)
quite often	2	8	6	14	10	2		42( 3.8)
a few times	7	21	30	32	11			101( 9.1)
occasionally	36	37	53	58	30	2		216(19.5)
never	186	189	115	101	58	26	40	715(64.7)
N/R		1	1	3	1	2		8( 0.7)
N/A							1	1( 0.1)
<b>Total</b>	<b>233(21.1)</b>	<b>261(23.6)</b>	<b>206(18.6)</b>	<b>212(19.2)</b>	<b>120(10.9)</b>	<b>32(2.9)</b>	<b>41(3.7)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2= 188.57$  DF=36 p=0.00

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No Response

N/A = Not Applicable

**Table 60 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of giving a talk to the visitors/parents and their perception of feeling nervous while giving a talk to the audience outside school**

	very nervous	Quite nervous	nervous	sometimes	not nervous	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	2	2	4	6	7		1	22( 2.0)
quite often	1	4	7	14	14	1	1	42( 3.8)
a few times	12	17	19	27	24	2		101( 9.1)
occasionally	46	39	30	53	41	7		216(19.5)
never	230	110	91	122	116	13	33	715(64.7)
N/R	2				3	3		8( 0.7)
N/A							1	1( 0.1)
<b>Total</b>	<b>293(26.5)</b>	<b>172(15.6)</b>	<b>151(13.7)</b>	<b>222(20.1)</b>	<b>205(18.6)</b>	<b>26(2.4)</b>	<b>36(3.3)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2= 152.99$  DF=36 p=0.00

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No Response

N/A = Not Applicable

**Table 61 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of giving a talk to the audience outside school and their perception of feeling nervous while giving a talk to the teacher**

	very nervous	quite nervous	nervous	sometimes	not nervous	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	7	9	10	47	66	1		140(12.7)
quite often	1	9	6	20	33			69( 6.2)
a few times	6	12	6	33	75		1	133(12.0)
occasionally	4	23	23	69	86	1		206(18.6)
never	22	57	52	199	210	7	3	550(49.8)
N/R		1		1	2	2		6( 0.5)
N/A					1			1( 0.1)
<b>Total</b>	<b>40(3.6)</b>	<b>111(10.0)</b>	<b>97(8.8)</b>	<b>369(33.4)</b>	<b>473( 42.8)</b>	<b>11(1.0)</b>	<b>4(0.4)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2=97.30$  DF=36 p=0.00

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No Response

N/A = Not Applicable

**Table 62 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of giving a talk to the audience outside school and their perception of feeling nervous while giving a talk to the whole class**

	very nervous	quite nervous	nervous	sometimes	not nervous	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	30	19	25	34	31		1	140(12.7)
quite often	12	10	17	16	14			69( 6.2)
a few times	22	22	23	47	16	1	2	133(12.0)
occasionally	33	49	39	58	23	1	3	206(18.6)
never	120	127	99	123	62	8	11	550(49.8)
N/R		2			2	2		6( 0.5)
N/A		1						1( 0.1)
<b>Total</b>	<b>217(19.6)</b>	<b>230(20.8)</b>	<b>203(18.4)</b>	<b>278(25.2)</b>	<b>148(13.4)</b>	<b>12(1.1)</b>	<b>17(1.5)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2=108.60$  DF=36 p=0.

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No Response

N/A = Not Applicable

**Table 63 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of giving a talk to the audience outside school and their perception of feeling nervous while giving a talk to the whole school**

	very nervous	quite nervous	nervous	sometimes	not nervous	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	73	13	20	15	11	7	1	140(12.7)
quite often	35	9	12	6	6	1		69( 6.2)
a few times	63	20	24	15	5	2	4	133(12.0)
occasionally	127	22	22	14	7	6	8	206(18.6)
never	348	51	49	23	30	19	30	550(49.8)
N/R	2	1			1	2		6( 0.5)
N/A							1	1( 0.1)
<b>Total</b>	<b>648(58.6)</b>	<b>116(10.5)</b>	<b>127(11.5)</b>	<b>73(6.6)</b>	<b>60(5.4)</b>	<b>37(3.3)</b>	<b>44(4.0)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2=97.77$  DF=36 p=0.00

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No Response

N/A = Not Applicable

**Table 64 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of giving a talk to the audience outside school and their perception of feeling nervous while giving a talk to the visitors/ parents**

	very nervous	Quite nervous	nervous	sometimes	not nervous	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	23	22	26	37	27	4	1	140(12.7)
quite often	8	13	19	16	12	1		69( 6.2)
a few times	19	22	32	35	18	4	3	133(12.0)
occasionally	36	58	50	41	13	4	4	206(18.6)
never	147	144	79	82	49	17	32	550(49.8)
N/R		2		1	1	2		6( 0.5)
N/A							1	1( 0.1)
<b>Total</b>	<b>233(21.1)</b>	<b>261(23.6)</b>	<b>206(18.6)</b>	<b>212(19.2)</b>	<b>120(10.9)</b>	<b>32(2.9)</b>	<b>41(3.7)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2= 137.59$  DF=36 p=0.00

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No Response

N/A = Not Applicable

**Table 65 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of giving a talk to the audience outside school and their perception of feeling nervous while giving a talk to the audience outside school**

	very nervous	Quite nervous	nervous	sometimes	not nervous	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	12	11	20	36	61			140(12.7)
quite often	5	8	13	26	16	1		69( 6.2)
a few times	14	27	22	39	29	2		133(12.0)
occasionally	45	42	37	56	24	2		206(18.6)
never	216	84	59	65	72	19	35	550(49.8)
N/R	1				3	2		6( 0.5)
N/A							1	1( 0.1)
<b>Total</b>	<b>293(26.5)</b>	<b>172(15.6)</b>	<b>151(13.7)</b>	<b>222(20.1)</b>	<b>205(18.6)</b>	<b>26(2.4)</b>	<b>36(3.3)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2= 303.08$  DF=36 p=0.00

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No response

N/A = Not Applicable

**Table 66 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of speaking to teacher and their perception of the frequency of using speaking skills during work experience**

	very often	quite often	a few times	occasionally	never	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	253	108	31	11	2	1	4	410( 37.1)
quite often	196	156	58	14	5		8	437( 39.5)
a few times	61	66	31	11	3		4	176( 15.9)
occasionally	24	23	5	7	2	1	2	64( 5.8)
never	6	4	3		3			16( 1.4)
N/R		1		1				2( 0.2)
<b>Total</b>	<b>540(48.9)</b>	<b>358(32.4)</b>	<b>128(11.6)</b>	<b>44(4.0)</b>	<b>15(1.4)</b>	<b>18(1.6)</b>	<b>2(2.0)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2= 122.18$  DF=30 p=0.00

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No response

N/A = Not Applicable

**Table 67 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of speaking to the whole class with their perception of the frequency of using speaking skills during work experience**

	very often	quite often	a few times	occasionally	never	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	95	25	10	1		1		132( 11.9)
quite often	104	74	19	10		1	1	209( 18.9)
a few times	153	103	36	4	7		7	310( 28.1)
occasionally	139	120	45	20	5	1	7	337( 30.5)
never	49	35	18	8	3		2	115( 10.4)
N/R		1		1				2( 0.2)
<b>Total</b>	<b>540(48.9)</b>	<b>358(32.4)</b>	<b>128(11.6)</b>	<b>44(4.0)</b>	<b>15(1.4)</b>	<b>18(1.6)</b>	<b>2(2.0)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2=75.06$  DF=30 p=0.00

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No response

N/A = Not Applicable

**Table 68 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of giving a talk to the whole class with their perception of the frequency of using speaking skills during work experience**

	very often	quite often	a few times	occasionally	never	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	15	1	4	1				21( 1.9)
quite often	60	33	10	6			1	110(10.0)
a few times	161	114	31	7	4	1	3	321(29.0)
occasionally	192	130	56	20	4	1	9	412(37.3)
never	112	78	27	9	7		4	237(21.4)
N/R		2		1			1	4( 0.4)
<b>Total</b>	<b>540(48.9)</b>	<b>358(32.4)</b>	<b>128(11.6)</b>	<b>44(4.0)</b>	<b>15(1.4)</b>	<b>18(1.6)</b>	<b>2(2.0)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2=48.83$  DF=30 p=0.02

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No response

N/A = Not Applicable

**Table 69 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of giving a talk to the whole school with their perception of the frequency of using speaking skills during work experience**

	very often	quite often	a few times	occasionally	never	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	3	1	1					5( 0.5)
quite often	13	7	2					22( 2.0)
a few times	26	11	6		1			44( 4.0)
occasionally	62	43	15	3	2			125(11.3)
never	433	293	104	40	12	2	17	901(81.5)
N/R	3	2		1			1	7( 0.6)
N/A			1					1( 0.1)
<b>Total</b>	<b>540(48.9)</b>	<b>358(32.4)</b>	<b>128(11.6)</b>	<b>44(4.0)</b>	<b>15(1.4)</b>	<b>18(1.6)</b>	<b>2(2.0)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2=24.04$  DF=36 p=0.94

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No response

N/A = Not Applicable

**Table 70 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of giving a talk to the visitors/parents with their perception of the frequency of using speaking skills during work experience**

	very often	quite often	a few times	occasionally	never	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	12	5	3	1			1	22( 2.0)
quite often	23	15	3		1			42( 3.8)
a few times	62	23	11	1	2		2	101( 9.1)
occasionally	106	73	22	9	1		5	216( 19.5)
never	333	239	89	32	11	2	9	715( 64.7)
N/R	4	2		1			1	8( 0.7)
N/A		1						1( 0.1)
<b>Total</b>	<b>540(48.9)</b>	<b>358(32.4)</b>	<b>128(11.6)</b>	<b>44(4.0)</b>	<b>15(1.4)</b>	<b>18(1.6)</b>	<b>2(2.0)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2=31.66$  DF=36 p=0.67

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No response

N/A = Not Applicable

**Table 71 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of giving a talk to the audience outside school with their perception of the frequency of using speaking skills during work experience**

	very often	quite often	a few times	occasionally	never	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	83	38	10	7	1		1	140(12.7)
quite often	41	19	6		1		2	69(6.2)
a few times	72	42	15	1	1	1	1	133(12.0)
occasionally	89	75	26	10			6	206(18.6)
never	253	181	71	25	12	1	7	550(49.8)
N/R	2	2		1			1	6(0.5)
N/A		1						1(0.1)
<b>Total</b>	<b>540(48.9)</b>	<b>358(32.4)</b>	<b>128(11.6)</b>	<b>44(4.0)</b>	<b>15(1.4)</b>	<b>18(1.6)</b>	<b>2(2.0)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2=49.81$  DF=36 p=0.06

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No response

N/A = Not Applicable

**Table 72 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of speaking to teacher with their perception of the frequency of using listening skills during work experience**

	very often	quite often	a few times	occasionally	never	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	304	76	15	7	4		4	410(37.1)
quite often	261	140	18	7	2	1	8	437(39.5)
a few times	86	61	16	7	2		4	176(15.9)
occasionally	34	18	5	4	1		2	64( 5.8)
never	7	4	1	1	3			16( 1.4)
N/R	2							2( 0.2)
<b>Total</b>	<b>694(62.8)</b>	<b>299(27.1)</b>	<b>55(5.0)</b>	<b>26(2.4)</b>	<b>12(1.1)</b>	<b>1(0.1)</b>	<b>18(1.6)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2= 106.48$  DF=30 p=0.00

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No response

N/A = Not Applicable

**Table 73 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of speaking to the whole class with their perception of the frequency of using listening skills during work experience**

	very often	quite often	a few times	occasionally	never	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	99	21	7	2	1	1	1	132( 11.9)
quite often	136	60	7	5			1	209( 18.9)
a few times	202	75	18	4	4		7	310( 28.1)
occasionally	183	117	17	10	3		7	337( 30.5)
never	72	26	6	5	4		2	115( 10.4)
N/R	2							2( 0.2)
<b>Total</b>	<b>694(62.8)</b>	<b>299(27.1)</b>	<b>55(5.0)</b>	<b>26(2.4)</b>	<b>12(1.1)</b>	<b>1(0.1)</b>	<b>18(1.6)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2=49.51$  DF=30 p=0.01

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No response

N/A = Not Applicable

**Table 74 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of giving a talk to the whole class with their perception of the frequency of using listening skills during work experience**

	very often	quite often	a few times	occasionally	never	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	13	6	1	1				21( 1.9)
quite often	79	24	3	2	1		1	110(10.0)
a few times	222	74	18	3	1		3	321(29.0)
occasionally	237	132	18	11	4	1	9	412(37.3)
never	140	63	15	9	6		4	237(21.4)
N/R	3						1	4( 0.4)
<b>Total</b>	<b>694(62.8)</b>	<b>299(27.1)</b>	<b>55(5.0)</b>	<b>26(2.4)</b>	<b>12(1.1)</b>	<b>1(0.1)</b>	<b>18(1.6)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2=46.59$  DF=30 p=0.03

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No response

N/A = Not Applicable

**Table 75 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of giving a talk to the whole school with their perception of the frequency of using listening skills during work experience**

	very often	quite often	a few times	occasionally	never	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	5							5( 0.5)
quite often	15	6	1					22( 2.0)
a few times	35	6	2		1			44( 4.0)
occasionally	77	36	8	2	2			125(11.3)
never	556	250	44	24	9	1	17	901(81.5)
N/R	6						1	7( 0.6)
N/A		1						1( 0.1)
<b>Total</b>	<b>694(62.8)</b>	<b>299(27.1)</b>	<b>55(5.0)</b>	<b>26(2.4)</b>	<b>12(1.1)</b>	<b>1(0.1)</b>	<b>18(1.6)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2=28.75$  DF=36 p=0.79

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No response

N/A = Not Applicable

**Table 76 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of giving a talk to the visitors/parents with their perception of the frequency of using listening skills during work experience**

	very often	quite often	a few times	occasionally	never	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	20	1					1	22( 2.0)
quite often	31	8	2		1			42( 3.8)
a few times	77	15	5		2		2	101( 9.1)
occasionally	134	63	9	4	1		5	216(19.5)
never	426	210	39	22	8	1	9	715(64.7)
N/R	6	1					1	8( 0.7)
N/A		1						1( 0.1)
<b>Total</b>	<b>694(62.8)</b>	<b>299(27.1)</b>	<b>55(5.0)</b>	<b>26(2.4)</b>	<b>12(1.1)</b>	<b>1(0.1)</b>	<b>18(1.6)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2=42.62$  DF=36 p=0.18

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No response

N/A = Not Applicable

**Table 77 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of giving a talk to the audience outside school and their perception of the frequency of using listening skills during work experience**

	very often	quite often	a few times	occasionally	never	N/R	N/A	Total
very often	105	20	7	4	2	1	1	140(12.7)
quite often	43	18	3	1	2		2	69( 6.2)
a few times	93	32	4	1	2		1	133(12.0)
occasionally	120	74	2	4			6	206(18.6)
never	329	153	39	16	6		7	550(49.8)
N/R	4	1					1	6( 0.5)
N/A		1						1( 0.1)
<b>Total</b>	<b>694(62.8)</b>	<b>299(27.1)</b>	<b>55(5.0)</b>	<b>26(2.4)</b>	<b>12(1.1)</b>	<b>1(0.1)</b>	<b>18(1.6)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2= 64.15$  DF=36 p=0.00

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No response

N/A =Not Applicable

**Table 78 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of using speaking skills during work experience and their perception of the importance of speaking and listening for students seeking jobs**

	very important	Quite important	important	less important	not important	N/R	Total
very often	389	107	35	6	2	1	540( 48.9)
quite often	233	90	33	1		1	358( 32.4)
a few times	64	42	17	5			128( 11.6)
occasionally	24	9	8	2	1		44( 4.0)
never	4	6	2	1	2		15( 1.4)
N/R		2					2( 0.2)
N/A	11	4	3				18( 1.6)
<b>Total</b>	<b>725(65.6)</b>	<b>260(23.5)</b>	<b>98(8.9)</b>	<b>15(1.4)</b>	<b>5(0.5)</b>	<b>2(0.2)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2=118.62$  DF=30 p=0.00

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No response

N/A = Not Applicable

**Table 79 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of using listening skills during work experience and their perception of the importance of speaking and listening for students seeking jobs**

	very important	quite important	important	less important	not important	N/R	Total
very often	503	135	46	6	2	2	694( 62.8)
quite often	167	93	34	4	1		299( 27.1)
a few times	26	20	8	1			55( 5.0)
occasionally	11	7	6	2			26( 2.4)
never	6	1	1	2	2		12( 1.1)
N/R	11	4	3	3			18( 1.6)
N/A	1						1( 0.1)
<b>Total</b>	<b>725(65.6)</b>	<b>260(23.5)</b>	<b>98(8.9)</b>	<b>15(1.4)</b>	<b>5(0.5)</b>	<b>2(0.2)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2=149.72$  DF=30 p=0.00

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No response

N/A =Not Applicable

**Table 80 The relationship between students' perception of the importance of speaking and listening for students seeking jobs and the importance of speaking and listening at home**

	very important	Quite important	important	less important	not important	N/R	Total
very often	267	302	99	45	12		725( 65.6)
quite often	33	103	72	42	10		260( 23.5)
a few times	8	16	36	31	7		98( 8.9)
occasionally	1	2	2	7	3		15( 1.4)
never	2				3		5( 0.5)
N/R	1					1	2( 0.2)
<b>Total</b>	<b>312(28.2)</b>	<b>423(38.3)</b>	<b>209(18.9)</b>	<b>125(11.3)</b>	<b>35(3.2)</b>	<b>1(0.1)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2=818.89$  DF=25 p=0.00

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No response

N/A = Not Applicable

**Table 81 The relationship between students' perception of the importance of speaking and listening for students seeking jobs and the importance of speaking and listening in the class**

	very important	Quite important	important	less important	not important	Total
very often	504	178	39	2	2	725( 65.6)
quite often	79	130	46	4	1	260( 23.5)
a few times	22	30	42	3	1	98( 8.9)
occasionally	3	4	4	4		15( 1.4)
never	1				4	5( 0.5)
N/R	2					2( 0.2)
<b>Total</b>	<b>611(55.3)</b>	<b>342(31.0)</b>	<b>131(11.9)</b>	<b>13(1.2)</b>	<b>8(0.7)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2=766.43$  DF=20 p=0.00

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No response

N/A = Not Applicable



**Table 82 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of speaking to teacher and their perceptions of the importance of speaking and listening for students seeking jobs**

	very important	quite important	important	less important	not important	no response	Total
very often	315	64	26	4		1	410(37.1)
quite often	285	119	28	4		1	437(39.5)
a few times	90	48	32	6			176(15.9)
occasionally	28	25	9	1	1		64( 5.8)
never	5	4	3		4		16( 1.4)
N/R	2						2( 0.2)
<b>Total</b>	<b>725(65.6)</b>	<b>260(23.5)</b>	<b>98(8.9)</b>	<b>15(1.4)</b>	<b>5(0.5)</b>	<b>2(0.2)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2=296.86$  DF=25  $p=0.00$

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No Response

**Table 83 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of speaking to teacher and their perceptions of the importance of speaking and listening at home**

	very important	quite important	important	less important	not important	no response	Total
very often	151	148	59	41	11		410(37.1)
quite often	114	192	86	39	5	1	437(39.5)
a few times	31	54	47	33	11		176(15.9)
occasionally	12	26	13	8	5		64( 5.8)
never	3	2	4	4	3		16( 1.4)
No response	1	1					2( 0.2)
<b>Total</b>	<b>312(28.2)</b>	<b>423(38.3)</b>	<b>209(18.9)</b>	<b>125(11.3)</b>	<b>35(3.2)</b>	<b>1(0.1)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2=85.93$  DF=25  $p=0.00$

Figure in ( ) %

**Table 84 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of speaking to teacher and their perceptions of the importance of speaking and listening in the class**

	very important	quite important	important	less important	not important	Total
very often	285	89	34	1	1	410(37.1)
quite often	239	153	40	4	1	473(39.5)
a few times	61	68	42	4	1	176(15.9)
occasionally	22	29	8	3	2	64(5.8)
never	2	3	7	1	3	16(1.4)
no response	2					2(0.2)
<b>Total</b>	<b>611(55.3)</b>	<b>342(31.0)</b>	<b>131(11.9)</b>	<b>13(1.2)</b>	<b>8(0.7)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2=199.87$  DF=20  $p=0.00$

Figure in ( ) %

**Table 85 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of speaking to whole class and their perceptions of the importance of speaking and listening for students seeking jobs**

	very important	quite important	important	less important	not important	no response	Total
very often	105	19	7	1			132( 11.9)
quite often	148	48	12			1	209( 18.9)
a few times	201	81	21	7			310( 28.1)
occasionally	209	86	37	4		1	337( 30.5)
never	60	26	21	3	5		115( 10.4)
no response	2						2( 0.2)
<b>Total</b>	<b>725(65.6)</b>	<b>260(23.5)</b>	<b>98(8.9)</b>	<b>15(1.4)</b>	<b>5(0.5)</b>	<b>2(0.2)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2=86.49$  DF=25  $p=0.00$

Figure in ( ) %

**Table 86 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of speaking to whole class and their perceptions of the importance of speaking and listening at home**

	very important	quite important	important	less important	not important	N/R	Total
Very often	46	53	21	8	4		132( 11.9)
Quite often	58	95	35	17	4		209( 18.9)
a few times	93	113	66	33	5		310( 28.1)
Occasionall y	93	121	62	48	12	1	337( 30.5)
Never	21	40	25	19	10		115( 10.4)
N/R	1	1					2( 0.2)
<b>Total</b>	<b>312(28.2)</b>	<b>423(38.3)</b>	<b>209(18.9)</b>	<b>125(11.3)</b>	<b>35(3.2)</b>	<b>1(0.1)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2= 41.73$  DF=25  $p=0.02$  (accept null hypothesis)

Figure in ( ) %

N/R = No response

**Table 87 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of speaking to whole class and their perceptions of the importance of speaking and listening in the class**

	very important	quite important	important	less important	not important	Total
very often	94	24	12	1	1	132(11.9)
quite often	137	57	14		1	209(18.9)
a few times	167	103	36	4		310(28.1)
occasionally	170	123	38	5	1	337(30.5)
Never	41	35	31	3	5	115(10.4)
no response	2					2(0.2)
<b>Total</b>	<b>611(55.3)</b>	<b>342(31.0)</b>	<b>131(11.9)</b>	<b>13(1.2)</b>	<b>8(0.7)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2= 89.83$  DF=20  $p=0.00$

Figure in ( ) %

**Table 88 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of giving a talk to whole class and their perceptions of the importance of speaking and listening for students seeking jobs**

	very important	quite importan t	important	less important	not important	N/R	Total
very often	16	3	2				21(1.9)
quite often	81	25	3	1			110(10.0)
a few times	223	71	24	1		2	321(29.0)
Occasionally	266	98	39	7	2		412(37.3)
Never	136	62	30	6	3		237(21.4)
N/R	3	1					4 (0.4)
<b>Total</b>	<b>725(65.6)</b>	<b>260(23.5)</b>	<b>98(8.9)</b>	<b>15(1.4)</b>	<b>5(0.5)</b>	<b>2(0.2)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2= 32.53$  DF=25  $p=0.143$

Figure in ( ) %

N/ R = No Response

**Table 89 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of giving a talk to whole class and their perceptions of the importance of speaking and listening for students at home**

	very important	quite important	important	less important	not important	N/R	Total
very often	10	6	2	3			21( 1.9)
quite often	31	50	16	9	4		110( 10.0)
a few times	88	137	61	27	7	1	321( 29.0)
occasionally	130	148	77	45	12		412( 37.3)
never	51	81	53	40	12		237( 21.4)
N/R	2	1		1			4( 0.4)
Total	312(28.2)	423(38.3)	209(18.9)	125(11.3)	35(3.2)	1(0.1)	1105(100.0)

Note:  $\chi^2= 36.51$  DF=25  $p=0.064$

Figure in ( ) %

N/R= No Response

**Table 90 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of giving a talk to whole class and their perceptions of the importance of speaking and listening in the class**

	very important	quite important	important	less important	not important	Total
very often	12	8	1			21( 1.9)
quite often	79	27	4			110( 10.0)
a few times	203	86	29	2	1	321( 29.0)
occasionally	209	144	49	5	5	412( 37.3)
never	104	77	48	6	2	237( 21.4)
no response	4					4( 0.4)
Total	611(55.3)	342(31.0)	131(11.9)	13(1.2)	8(0.7)	1105( 100.0)

Note:  $\chi^2= 57.99$  DF=20  $p=0.00$

Figure in ( ) %

**Table 91 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of giving a talk to whole school and their perceptions of the importance of speaking and listening for students seeking jobs**

	very important	quite important	important	less important	not important	no response	Total
very often	4		1				5(0.5)
quite often	18	4					22(2.0)
a few times	35	7	1	1			44(4.0)
occasionally	84	25	12	1	1	2	125(11.3)
never	577	223	84	13	4		901(81.5)
no response	6	1					7(0.6)
not applicable	1						1( 0.1)
Total	725(65.6)	260(23.5)	98(8.9)	15(1.4)	5(0.5)	2(0.2)	1105(100.0)

Note:  $\chi^2= 30.85$  DF=30  $p=0.42$

Figure in ( ) %

**Table 92 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of giving a talk to whole school and their perceptions of the importance of speaking and listening at home**

	very important	quite important	important	less important	not important	no response	Total
very often	3			2			5( 0.5)
quite often	6	11	3	2			22( 2.0)
a few times	15	22	5	2			44( 4.0)
occasionally	42	57	14	8	3	1	125( 11.3)
never	242	330	187	110	32		901( 81.5)
no response	3	3		1			7( 0.6)
not applicable	1						1( 0.1)
<b>Total</b>	<b>312(28.2)</b>	<b>423(38.3)</b>	<b>209(18.9)</b>	<b>125(11.3)</b>	<b>35(3.2)</b>	<b>1(0.1)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2= 43.30$  DF=30 p=0.06

Figure in ( ) %

**Table 93 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of giving a talk to whole school and their perceptions of the importance of speaking and listening in the class**

	very important	quite important	important	less important	not important	Total
very often	5					5( 0.5)
quite often	15	6	1			22( 2.0)
a few times	30	12	1	1		44( 4.0)
occasionally	78	30	13	3	1	125( 11.3)
never	475	294	116	9	7	901( 81.5)
no respond	7					7( 0.6)
not applicable	1					1( 0.1)
<b>Total</b>	<b>611(55.3)</b>	<b>342(31.0)</b>	<b>131(11.9)</b>	<b>13(1.2)</b>	<b>8(0.7)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2= 26.25$  DF=24 p=0.34

Figure in ( ) %

**Table 94 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of giving a talk to visitors/parents and their perceptions of the importance of speaking and listening for students seeking jobs**

	very important	quite important	important	less important	not important	no response	Total
very often	16	1	4	1			22( 2.0)
quite often	31	10	1				42( 3.8)
a few times	73	20	7	1			101( 9.1)
occasionally	154	41	17	3		1	216( 19.5)
never	443	187	69	10	5	1	715( 64.7)
no response	7	1					8( 0.7)
not applicable	1						1( 0.1)
<b>Total</b>	<b>725(65.6)</b>	<b>260(23.5)</b>	<b>98(8.9)</b>	<b>15(1.4)</b>	<b>5(0.5)</b>	<b>2(0.2)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2= 28.79$  DF=30 p=0.68

Figure in ( ) %

**Table 95 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of giving a talk to visitors/parents and their perceptions of the importance of speaking and listening at home**

	very important	quite important	important	less important	not important	no response	Total
very often	9	4	3	6			22( 2.0)
quite often	15	18	7	1	1		42( 3.8)
a few times	34	43	16	7	1		101( 9.1)
occasionally	70	89	30	22	4	1	216( 19.5)
never	179	267	152	88	29		715( 64.7)
no response	4	2	1	1			8( 0.7)
not applicable	1						1( 0.1)
<b>Total</b>	<b>312(28.2)</b>	<b>423(38.3)</b>	<b>209(18.9)</b>	<b>125(11.3)</b>	<b>35(3.2)</b>	<b>1(0.1)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2= 41.20$  DF=30 p=0.08

Figure in ( ) %

**Table 96 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of giving a talk to visitors/parents and their perceptions of the importance of speaking and listening in the class**

	Very important	quite important	important	less important	not important	Total
very often	15	5		2		22 2.0)
quite often	25	17				42( 3.8)
a few times	72	19	9	1		101( 9.1)
occasionally	128	67	19	2		216( 19.5)
never	362	234	103	8	8	715( 64.7)
no response	8					8( 0.7)
not applicable	1					1( 0.1)
<b>Total</b>	<b>611(55.3)</b>	<b>342(31.0)</b>	<b>131(11.9)</b>	<b>13(1.2)</b>	<b>8(0.7)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2= 54.05$  DF=24 p=0.00

Figure in ( ) %

**Table 97 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of giving a talk to audience outside school and their perceptions of the importance of speaking and listening for students seeking jobs**

	Very important	quite important	important	less important	not important	no response	Total
very often	105	21	13	1			140(12.7)
quite often	50	12	5	1		1	69(6.2)
a few times	100	23	8	1	1		133(12.0)
occasionally	140	51	14			1	206(18.6)
never	234	152	58	12	4		550(49.8)
no response	5	1					6(0.5)
not applicable	1						1(0.1)
<b>Total</b>	<b>725(65.6)</b>	<b>260(23.5)</b>	<b>98(8.9)</b>	<b>15(1.4)</b>	<b>5(0.5)</b>	<b>2(0.2)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2= 43.73$  DF=30 p=0.05

Figure in ( ) %

**Table 98 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of giving a talk to audience outside school and their perceptions of the importance of speaking and listening at home**

	very important	quite important	important	less important	not important	no response	Total
very often	48	53	18	16	5		140( 12.7)
quite often	20	31	12	4	1	1	69( 6.2)
a few times	45	46	25	13	4		133( 12.0)
occasionally	67	86	37	15	1		206( 18.6)
never	127	206	117	76	24		550( 49.8)
no response	4	1		1			6( 0.5)
not applicable	1						1( 0.1)
<b>Total</b>	<b>312(28.2)</b>	<b>423(38.3)</b>	<b>209(18.9)</b>	<b>125(11.3)</b>	<b>35(3.2)</b>	<b>1(0.1)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2= 55.28$  DF=30 p=0.00  
Figure in ( ) %

**Table 99 The relationship between students' perception of the frequency of giving a talk to audience outside school and their perceptions of the importance of speaking and listening in the class**

	very important	quite important	important	less important	not important	Total
very often	87	33	16	4		140(12.7)
quite often	42	24	3			69(6.2)
a few times	84	31	14	3	1	133(12.0)
occasionally	117	74	15			206(18.6)
never	274	180	83	6	7	550(49.8)
no response	6					6(0.5)
not applicable	1					1(0.1)
<b>Total</b>	<b>611(55.3)</b>	<b>342(31.0)</b>	<b>131(11.9)</b>	<b>13(1.2)</b>	<b>8(0.7)</b>	<b>1105(100.0)</b>

Note:  $\chi^2= 44.53$  DF=24 p=0.00  
Figure in ( ) %

**Appendix 9-1****Speaking and Listening skills which industry requires of its 16+ entrants****The unskilled or semiskilled worker should be able to:**

- talk easily to foreman, supervisor or manager, explaining problems and asking questions
- discuss his/her job constructively with colleagues and fellow workers
- listen to instructions, asking any necessary questions

It is important to note that this level of job, with its very limited demands, is increasingly hard to come by. School leavers who can do these things and no more may well be unemployed for an extended period.

**Craft apprentices should additionally be able to:**

- describe their work and discuss it with fellow apprentices
- give a short talk to a group on a topic connected with their present tasks
- find their way around the factory, asking questions of those who can help them but may not be known to them directly
- discuss their work with foreman and senior and senior personnel, giving proper attention to what they have to say
- talk about...a suggested improvement in the way a process is done. (In one company, this degree of initiative is expected of craft and technical apprentices. It implies an active interest in the job and the company and, on the company's part, a concern to have an active and thinking workforce.)

**Craftsmen and potential foreman should be able to:**

- talk to workers about the job in hand, giving clear instructions
- talk at length and in detail to management on matters concerned with the job or working conditions

**Clerical workers should be able to:**

- talk to workers and managers usefully and informatively, avoiding bureaucratic unhelpfulness on the one hand and undue deference on the other.
- Make effective use of the telephone
- appreciate the need to widen vocabulary

In what ways are new entrants to industry falling below the standards required and what are the specific criticisms which industrialists make of schools?