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THE EFFECTIVENESS OF REFLECTION IN DEVELOPING STUDENTS' ORACY IN ENGLISH AT THE FACULTIES OF TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY

A Dissertation Submitted for the Degree of Ph. D. in Education

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Abstract

Researcher's Name: Jihan El-Sayed Ahmed Zayed

Research Title: The Effectiveness of Reflection in Developing Students' Oracy in English at the Faculties of Tourism and Hospitality

Source: Mansoura University, Faculty of Education, Dept. of Curriculum & Instruction

Abstract: This study aimed at determining the effectiveness of using reflection in developing Tourism and Hospitality students' oracy in English. Two modes of reflection (i.e., *active reflection* and *proactive reflection*) were used for developing two aspects of oracy: language awareness of some features of spoken language (i.e., *phonology*, *vocabulary*, *grammar*, and *pragmatics*) and some oral performance criteria (i.e., *active listening*, *turn-taking*, *questioning*, *responding*, and *overall performance quality*). To investigate the problem of the study, two sections from third-year, Tourism students – Faculty of Tourism and Hospitality, Suez Canal University – were randomly assigned to be either the experimental group (EG) or the control group (CG). Both groups studied six spoken texts; the former had the chance to practice reflection with its two modes while the latter had not that chance. They were pre-tested and post-tested on their oracy. A *t* test for independent samples demonstrated that there was a statistically significant difference between the mean score of the EG and that of the CG on the post OT favoring the EG in language awareness including *vocabulary*, *grammar*, and *pragmatics* and oral performance including *active listening*, *turn-taking*, *questioning*, *responding*, and *overall performance quality*. Therefore, it was concluded that using reflection is effective in developing Tourism and Hospitality students' oracy in English.

Key words: reflection, oracy, language awareness, oral performance

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Abbreviations

OT ....Oracy Test

SJ ....Spoken Journal

SQ ....Student Questionnaire

SR ....Scoring Rubric

CHAPTER I

The Problem

CHAPTER I

The Problem

Introduction

Communication is a mutual exchange between two or more individuals. It is shaped through a fusion between language and thinking. That is, communication is not merely a linguistic issue; it is an intellectual one. Besides, both language and thinking have a reciprocal relationship; one affects the other and is affected by it as well (Stoodt, 1988; Oxford, 1990; Mercer, 2000).

Students learn a language in natural contexts for their own goals: They learn to listen, speak, read, and write to fulfill meaningful functions in their lives. Consequently, effective language teaching requires teachers to give students meaningful purposes for listening and reading (comprehension) and speaking and writing (production). These language skills can be separated theoretically, but cannot artificially in the classroom. Language is one entity and must be addressed as such rather than dividing it into smaller, discrete parts; a language skill flows naturally into the other in actual instruction. In fact, instruction in one language skill enhances the others (Stoodt, 1988; Hennings, 1993).

For teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL), language skills are sequenced as follows: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. This sequence serves as a direction for teaching. Direction means that all new language concepts or tasks are to be first mastered in listening and speaking and then applied to reading and writing (Buckley, 1995). There are common attempts of "dualism" that combine two language skills; for example, the term *literacy* existed to refer to reading and writing, but recently the label *oracy* has been used to refer to listening and speaking (Trask, 1998).

Whereas oracy can exist without literacy, literacy could not ever exist without oracy. Language is primarily an oral system the main purpose of which is achieving communication. That is, language is primarily speech while writing is the visual representation of speech sounds through symbols based on these sounds. Speech is the most spontaneous and immediate form of communication; there is no way for stopping sound. If this happens, there will be mere silence. So, writing does not require the same attention from its receiver as speech does (Ong, 1992; Hennings, 1993; Nicholson, 1998).

Oracy is a vital component of the EFL curriculum. It provides a foundation for all kinds of learning since talk extends students' understanding by offering them opportunities to express and explore ideas to make connections between what they know and what they are about to know (Zhang & Alex, 1995; Nicholson, 1998). It helps students process their thinking and the ideas of others inspire them to make connections and come up with new understanding (Lifford et al., 2000). Therefore, "speaking to learn" is a vehicle for increasing and deepening knowledge. Consequently, classroom talk can be directed more towards the goals of exploring ideas found in texts and sharpening thought (Buckely, 1995; Zhang & Alex, 1995).

In essence, oracy is believed to be an important link in the process of learning and thinking development. The improvement of thinking involves the cultivation and caring of its critical and creative dimensions, as well as of its reflective aspect. Schools everywhere are accused not only because student knowledge is so scanty, but also because students hold this knowledge uncritically and reflect on it unimaginatively. Reflective students are aware of their own assumptions as well as conscious of the reasons and evidence that support a certain conclusion. Such reflection upon practice is the basis for inventing improved practices that will invite, in turn, further reflection (Lipman, 2003).

Reflection seems to be a channel through which students can acquire a deeper, holistic awareness of their learning (Hamada, 1999). High-achieving students are reflective ones, who consider critically not only what they have learnt, but are also aware of the process of their learning. To develop oracy, students need to be encouraged to adopt a reflective, analytical stance towards their language use and that of others (Grainger, 1999). That is, students are encouraged to reflect critically on *what* they are doing, *how* they know, and *why* in order to plan and direct their own learning (Wright & Bolitho, 1993; Ellis, 1998; Venn & Terrell, 1998; Bage, 1999; Lifford et al., 2000; Putnam, 2000).

Because language is generally systematic, it follows rules that are consistent and predictable. These rules enable speakers to generate messages that communicate their thoughts to others who speak the same language (Stoodt, 1988). Speakers do not consciously think out or verbalize these linguistic rules but gradually develop an intuitive sense of how to put words together in meaningful units. Chomsky's Generative Theory of language development explains a speaker's capacity to create sentences s/he has never heard or read. The speaker functions in terms of the rules for linguistic structures that s/he has internalized through hearing spoken sentences. Such functioning is possible because of the human being's innate predisposition for language (Hennings, 1993). According to Verity (2003):

> Everyone's a native speaker! Not a native speaker of English, but certainly – in the Chomskyan sense – a native speaker with a wealth of insights and intuitions, unconscious understanding, and (perhaps unexamined) exceptions about language and what it can and should do. We, humans, are not only speakers of language, but creators of language. (p. 133)

Students may not always be aware of what they are learning and experiencing. Teachers should raise their students' awareness of the underlying oracy rules. They must extend their wonder about what they hear to go beyond so much the words listened to. In order to offer them an opportunity to gain an assurance as makers of spoken texts, *learning through talk and about talk* can

give students control over their linguistic abilities (Nicholson, 1998). Chen (1999) clarifies this as follows:

> The goal is to become conscious of and reflect on what I say and what I think and what my impulses are. If I get in touch with my own assumptions, filters, biases, and impulses, I can begin to listen for these in the contributions of others to the conversation. And as we struggle collectively to listen more to ourselves and each other, we are actually building a common framework from which to build joint reflection. (p. xvii)

Using reflection for developing oracy, a teacher requires students to move beyond the acquisition of new knowledge and understanding into questioning of existing assumptions and perspectives. It is a valuable process of connecting ideas, discovering, analyzing, questioning, hypothesizing, and forming opinions. Besides simply making students "think too much", reflection also helps them gain increased awareness of and control over their oral performance (Imel, 1998; Reid & Golub, 1999).

For the purpose of the present dissertation, it was assumed that if students were given time to reflect on their and others' oral use of language, they could develop an awareness of their language learning process generally and how the English language works specifically. Besides, they could *generalize* rules of oracy, and the most important thing was that they could *transfer* these rules to real life situations.

Background of the Problem

Generally speaking, reflection means looking at an experience in order to discover. Reflective speakers can think critically about their and other's speech (Putnam, 2000). Not only did the researcher try to help her students be aware linguistically, but she also tried to help them be active performers outside the classroom. She did not want to direct their own every action and decision about their speech. Her goal was to teach them how to reflect on others' and their speech in order to gain understanding and become better speakers. Actually, there are some reasons that inspired her to initiate this study:

- In her M.A. thesis – Zayed (2003) –, the researcher felt the artificiality of separating speaking from the other language skills especially listening. In addition, the Oral Performance Test was not an authentic one because it did not simulate real situations as it was applied in a way that prevented testing other skills – a trend established by some oral tests like the Simulated Oral Proficiency Interview (SOPI). However, in everyday-life situations, speakers can speak in response to listening to music, viewing a video, listening to a speaker, jotting down ideas, or reflecting on personal experiences, and so forth. After receptivity, productivity comes and vice versa. For the purpose of the present dissertation, oracy (speaking in response to listening to a speaker) was adopted to be developed.

- In the same thesis, the researcher chose some skills to be developed, without concerning herself with what her students would have to do outside the classroom. Since reflection can be a lifelong resource for learning, the researcher concluded that using it as a process for raising students' awareness of how native speakers use English orally could help them generalize rules for developing their oracy. Consequently, they could apply the same process to everyday-life situations when they meet native or competent speakers outside the classroom.

- For eight years, the researcher taught prep stage <u>Hello!</u> series following the principles of the communicative approach. In this approach, students' primary attention is focused on meaning rather than on form – implicit learning. In actual teaching, it is not allowed to teach language rules explicitly, whereas when letting students reflect on language use, they are encouraged to search for rules (Ellis, 2001). So, when the researcher moved to work at the Faculty of Tourism and Hospitality, Suez Canal University, it was not surprising to find some students who do not know the meaning of a lot of language terminology (e.g., phrase, clause,

sentence, tense, part of speech, etc). She thought that if they learned how to reflect on language, they might develop an awareness of how language works and build what is called a metalanguage – a language to talk about language use in appropriate terminology.

- The researcher found that there is a considerable body of literature on *reflective teaching* by scholars trying to train pre-service or in-service teachers to be aware of the effect of their professional practices and perspectives on their students' performance (e.g., Knecht, 1997; El-Shura, 1999; Hamada, 1999; AlSheikh, 2000; Abdel-Wahab, 2001; El-Marsafy, 2002; Mohammed, 2002; Saey, 2005). Hamada (1999), for example, used Wallace's Reflective Model (1991) for developing the pedagogical grammatical awareness of some Egyptian English language trainee teachers. Another growing body of literature comes from training practitioners in several fields (e.g., law, nursing, business management, medicine, etc.) to reflect on their professional practices. In this respect, reflection is seen as an ongoing process of critically examining past and current professional practices against standards or objectives with the goal of increasing knowledge and improving future practices (Russo, 2004). However, there is not a similar body of research using reflection for developing language learning.

- Reviewing the Egyptian research context, the researcher found some studies (e.g., El-Lebody, 2000; Azazy, 2004; and Eissa, 2005) that tried to help students reflect to be aware of some aspects of the Arabic language – without explicit mentioning of *reflection* in the title of these dissertations. Besides, there is no study which attempted using reflection for developing oracy for EFL students.

- Faculty of Tourism and Hospitality, Suez Canal University, consists of three departments: Guidance, Hospitality, and Tourism. Teaching English

is lecture-based in addition to two hours per week for practicing English. Only the third and the fourth years have the chance to practice English at the language lab. The researcher observed her students' low level of oracy. To document this personal observation, a pilot study was carried out on a group of first year students (N=33) in 2005. Students' performance of a role-play situation was rated according to an adapted version of Lambert's rubric (2003), see Appendix A. Results of the pilot study are shown in Table (1).

Table (1)

Results of the Pilot Study

N	Minimum score	Maximum score	Mean	Std Deviation	Percentage
33	1	4	1.67	.89	41.75%

Table (1) indicates that the percentage of the mean score of these students' oral performance on the role-play situation is 41.75% < 50%. This proved students' poor level of oracy.

For the previous reasons, there is a need for studying the effectiveness of using reflection for developing Tourism and Hospitality students' oracy which is one aspect of their general English language development.

Need for the Study

Optimal learning occurs once the phenomenon of learning itself has become an object of reflection: conscious planning, and analysis; something that can be talked about and discussed explicitly. The importance of promoting reflection as a route to optimal learning has become a matter of conventional wisdom among many educators, as it goes beyond mere information processing; it concerns awareness of thinking and learning; it is learning to learn, evaluate, and correct information processing (Granville & Dison, 2005).

As mentioned above (see p. 2), oracy is an important link in the process of learning and thinking development. Actually, the relationship between oracy

and reflection is reciprocal: Speech provides a means of reflecting on thought process and controlling it (Bage, 1999). At the same time, for raising students' language awareness, reflection provides more explicit talk about language or what is called *meta talk.*

Until recently, however, meta talk and explanation have been a neglected area of research in foreign language teaching (Hamada, 1999). Knowledge about language is considered as enabling knowledge that provides students with tools to carry out their language learning effectively. Awareness-raising of students' language learning has been extensively researched and developed in relation to the learning of *grammar* (e.g. Keen, 1997; Svalberg, 1998; Berry, 2004; Collins & Segalowitz, 2004; Lyster, 2004), *reading* (e.g., Guimares, 2003), *writing* (e.g. Lindgren & Sullivan, 2004; Pronpibul, 2004) and *language learning* in general (e.g., Dodigovic, 2004).

Nevertheless, according to Carter (2003), a number of factors remains under-researched such as the role of metalanguage in student's responses, whether it enhances or hinders their language development, and the precise effect of introducing rules of language use on their performance. These factors provided the present study with some objectives to be taken into consideration when planning the sessions for the programme.

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) meets the needs of adult learners who need to learn EFL for use in specific fields, such as science, technology, medicine, tourism, and academic learning (Yildiz, 2004). In other words, ESP students are usually adults who already have some acquaintance with English and are learning it in order to communicate a set of professional skills and perform particular job-related functions. Students' knowledge of their field of specialty gives them a context they need to understand English. A teacher can make the most of this subject-matter knowledge, thus helping them learn English faster (Fiorito, 2005). Therefore, for the programme sessions, English

needed to be presented in authentic contexts to acquaint students with particular ways in which language is used in functions they would need to perform in their prospective jobs.

Students at the Faculty of Tourism and Hospitality, Suez Canal University, get language practice without reflecting on how they are learning. Even, the exams focus solely on the product or content and not, in any way, on the processes involved. Therefore, students do not reflect on the significance of what they are doing because the emphasis is on learning something rather than on learning to learn. In this sense, reflective tasks where students talk about language could be valid and effective. Returning to the results of the pilot study, Table (2) shows that 78.7% (i.e., 21.2% + 57.6%) of the students who participated in that study achieved below average ($\leq$ Grade 2). Those students needed to improve their oracy.

Table (2)

Percentages of Students According to their Grades

Grade	Frequency	Percentage
1	19	57.6
2	7	21.2
3	6	18.2
4	1	3.0

Therefore, the present study tried to find out if the more reflective students are about language learning process; the more effective they will be at managing their own learning. Students should reflect to actively make connection between their knowledge of the system of English and how English is used by others to uncover the unknowing in language use. In sum, the present study suggested developing oracy through helping students generalize rules towards skills building – students listen and then reflect on how others use the English language.

Statement of the Problem

Based upon the results of the pilot study, Tourism and Hospitality students' oracy level is below average, which impedes their on-the-job success. Previous research suggests that reflection helps increase students' awareness of how others communicate. Consequently, experimenting with reflection might ultimately lead to better, more developed oracy. Therefore, the present study attempted to answer the following main question:

- **What is the effectiveness of reflection in developing Tourism and Hospitality students' oracy in English?**

For achieving this, this study attempted to answer the following sub questions:

1. What are the aspects of oracy which Tourism and Hospitality students should develop?

2. What are the features associated with the characteristics of spoken language which Tourism and Hospitality students can reflect on?

3. What is the effectiveness of Tourism and Hospitality students' reflection on these features in developing their oracy?

4. To what extent can Tourism and Hospitality students' awareness of the target spoken language features predict their oral performance on the oracy post-test?

5. To what extent can Tourism and Hospitality students' scores on their oral assignments (Spoken Journal entries) predict their level on the oracy post-test?

Hypotheses of the Study

1. There is a statistically significant difference between the mean score of the control group (CG) and that of the experimental group (EG) on the oracy post-test at the level of (.05) favoring the EG.

According to the components of oracy, this hypothesis was divided in the following sub hypotheses:

a. There is a statistically significant difference between the mean score of the EG and that of the CG in *phonology* at the level of (.05) favoring the EG.

b. There is a statistically significant difference between the mean score of the EG and that of the CG in *vocabulary* at the level of (.05) favoring the EG.

c. There is a statistically significant difference between the mean score of the EG and that of the CG in *grammar* at the level of (.05) favoring the EG.

d. There is a statistically significant difference between the mean score of the EG and that of the CG in *pragmatics* at the level of (.05) favoring the EG.

e. There are statistically significant differences between the mean scores of the EG and those of the CG in *language awareness* at the level of (.05) favoring the EG.

f. There is a statistically significant difference between the mean score of the EG and that of the CG in *active listening* at the level of (.05) favoring the EG.

g. There is a statistically significant difference between the mean score of the EG and that of the CG in *turn-taking* at the level of (.05) favoring the EG.

h. There is a statistically significant difference between the mean score of the EG and that of the CG in *questioning* at the level of (.05) favoring the EG.

i. There is a statistically significant difference between the mean score of the EG and that of the CG in *responding* at the level of (.05) favoring the EG.

j. There is a statistically significant difference between the mean score of the EG and that of the CG in *overall performance quality* at the level of (.05) favoring the EG.

k. There are statistically significant differences between the mean scores of the EG and those of the CG in *oral performance* at the level of (.05) favoring the EG.

2. Tourism and Hospitality students' awareness of some spoken language features (i.e., *phonology*, *vocabulary*, *grammar*, and *pragmatics*) can predict their oral performance – including criteria such as *active listening*, *turn-taking*, *questioning*, *responding*, and *overall performance quality* – on the oracy post-test.

3. Tourism and Hospitality students' *oral assignments* (Spoken Journal entries) can predict their level on the *oracy post-test*.

Purposes of the Study

The present study aimed to:

1. identify the aspects of oracy which Tourism and Hospitality students should develop,

2. determine the features associated with the characteristics of spoken language which Tourism and Hospitality students can reflect on,

3. prepare a programme for helping Tourism and Hospitality students reflect for developing their oracy,

4. assess the effectiveness of reflection in developing Tourism and Hospitality students' oracy, and

5. design a spoken journal which Tourism and Hospitality students can use to monitor their learning experiences.

Significance of the Study

The present study attempted to:

1. direct the attention of researchers, instructors, course designers, curriculum developers, teacher trainers and students to the importance of using reflection for developing Tourism and Hospitality students' oracy in English;

2. pave the way for other researchers to investigate the role of reflection in improving other instructional fields;

3. enable Tourism and Hospitality students and instructors alike to use metalanguage as a factor in developing language learning;

4. help ESP students – Tourism and Hospitality students – increase their sensitivity to spoken English;

5. sharpen Tourism and Hospitality students' awareness of why some language characteristics work in speech but not in writing; and

6. show the value of awareness – by students themselves in their spoken journal entries – of the features of spoken language.

Limitations of the Study

The present study was limited to:

1. a sample of two sections of third-year, Tourism students (N=61) from the Faculty of Tourism and Hospitality, Suez Canal University. Third-year students were chosen since they have the chance to continue developing their oracy when they practice reflection on spoken texts next year at the language lab. Reflection might help students nurture a well-developed oracy by giving them a method for monitoring their own learning experiences.

2. six spoken texts related to the field of specialty of Tourism Department. form the Longman course book, <u>English for International Tourism</u>. The London Chamber of Commerce and Industry Examinations Board recommend this course book for English for Tourism Industry Examination. These specific texts provided sufficient occurrences of the target features of spoken language. Students could have a comprehensive view of the target features and hence drew rules of using them.

Definitions of Terms

Reflection

It is "the process of stepping back from an experience to carefully and persistently ponder its meaning to the self through the development of inferences" (Seibert, 1999, p. 20).

In the present study, reflection means *an awareness-raising process of stepping back from an experience of listening to some spoken texts for linguistic analysis and generalization of oracy rules.* According to a classification by Seibert (1999), this process has two modes:

1. *active reflection*: students' on-the-spot (while they are still inside the language lab) analysis of non/native speakers' verbal use of the target spoken features of the English language, and

2. *proactive reflection*: students' deliberate thinking (while they are doing their SJs at home) about the whole language learning process, which is temporally and spatially removed from the experience of reflecting on the target spoken features of the English language.

Oracy

The definition of oracy could be found in some online dictionaries. For example:

• Allwords.com Dictionary (2007) defines it as "the ability to express oneself coherently and to communicate freely with others by word of mouth"; and

• MSN Encarta Dictionary (2007) refers to it as "oral communication and comprehension: the ability to convey thoughts and ideas orally in a way that others understand and to understand what others say."

Other published dictionaries define oracy as follows:

• "the ability to express oneself fluently in speech" (The New Shorter Oxford Dictionary on Historical Principals, 1993, 2(N-Z), p. 2013);

- "skill in spoken communication and self-expression" (<u>The Cassell's Concise Dictionary</u>, 1998, p. 1018); and

- "the ability to express oneself fluently and grammatically in speech" (<u>The Concise Oxford Dictionary</u>, 1999, p. 1001).

In this study, oracy means *the ability to understand and respond to oral speech*. It includes two aspects: **language awareness** *of some spoken language features (i.e., phonology, vocabulary, grammar, and pragmatics) and* **oral performance** *including five criteria (i.e., active listening, turn-taking, questioning, responding, and overall performance quality)*. Therefore, it was tested by the two-part OT.

Thus, the present study aimed at investigating the effectiveness of reflection in developing Tourism and Hospitality students' oracy in English. The remainder of the dissertation includes the following chapters:

- **<u>Chapter II</u>** lays a theoretical framework for the thesis concerning review of literature and related studies to oracy and reflection.

- **<u>Chapter III</u>** introduces the methodology of the study. It includes design, subjects, and instruments of the study, setting of the experiment; and administration of the programme.

- **<u>Chapter IV</u>** aims at presenting the results of the experiment in light of the research questions and hypotheses and discussing these results in light of the theoretical background and related studies.

- **<u>Chapter V</u>** presents a summary of the study, draws conclusions, offers recommendations, and proposes suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER II

Review of Literature and Related Studies

CHAPTER II

Review of Literature and Related Studies

This chapter lays a theoretical framework for the dissertation, concerning review of literature and related studies in the following areas:

A. Oracy

B. Reflection

C. Reflection and Oracy

Review of Literature

Communication is a modification of the Latin word *commūnicātus*, meaning, "to share". *Sharing* suggests that communication is a social process that has common understanding as its ultimate purpose: a unity within the social group. That is to say, communication involves enabling someone else to understand what is often referred to as *a message* (Hennings, 1993; Lynch, 1996).

Language is a medium of communication. Communication can be either written or oral according to how language is used (see Figure 1). Oral communication is a two-way process between a speaker and a listener and involves the productive skill of *speaking* and the receptive skill of *listening*.
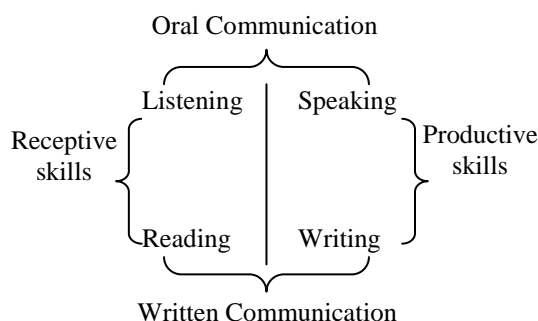
Figure (1): Types of Communication, *Adapted:* Byrne (1991)

Figure (2) identifies the different components involved in oral communication. The arrows point in both directions; at one moment, one person is listening to a speaker, and at the next moment, the roles may be reversed (Underhill, 2000). Anderson and Lynch (2001) distinguish three parts of this sequence:

Figure (2): The Different Components Involved in Oral Communication, Underhill (2000)

1. *Input:* the words uttered by the speaker,

2. *The listening process:* the listener's application of various types of information available to him, and

3. *Output:* the response from the listener.

Since listening and speaking go hand-in-hand, there are basically two kinds of oral situations. First, in **conversational situations**, an immediate, *listen-and-respond* results in "cross-flow" of ideas. Face-to-face discussions are typically conversational with one person and then

Figure (3): Oral Skills,
Adapted: Byrne (1991)

another assuming the talking role and with others functioning as "not-now-talking" persons. Second, in **presentational or reportorial situations**, a presenter *initiates* the primary speaking role with listeners serving as audience and contributing through nonverbal feedback and occasional verbal input (Hennings, 1993), as shown by Figure (3).

However, there has been a tendency when teaching either to treat listening as discrete from speaking, particularly as extended texts to be responded to after hearing them, or to focus on speaking rather than listening in the teaching of conversational skills. True, there is a practice of both, but at different stages of the task (Gardener, 1998).

This sort of practice is likely to lead to suppose that successful listening is a purely receptive activity in which a listener merely receives and records what s/he hears, rather than actively attempts to integrate the incoming information and seeks clarification when that interpretation-building process meets an obstacle; here, speaking is an integral part of listening (Gardener, 1998; Anderson & Lynch, 2001). In the same way, speaking is looked upon as merely a productive skill without including that before producing an utterance, a speaker receives a stimulus. These techniques may be limited for developing

either listening or speaking skills. Therefore, the kind of interaction (i.e., listen-speak-listen) will be focused on in this dissertation where there is an opportunity for a speaker and a listener to exchange roles.

In 1965, Andrew Wilkinson coined the term *oracy* for referring to speaking and listening (see Figure 4). He formed it from the Latin syllable *or-* which means mouth and the syllable *-acy* on the pattern of literacy, numeracy and mediacy. About its importance,

	Production	*Reception*
ORACY	Speaking	Listening
LITERACY	Writing	Reading

Figure (4): Wilkinson's Language Model, Wilkinson (1970)

Wilkinson (1970) says, "Ninety-nine of times out of a hundred the speech situation is compulsory; we must communicate when we are in a situation" (p.74). That is, according to him, communication happens most of the time through oracy and very little through literacy.

A. Oracy

> "Knowledge that is not available for use is knowledge that is dead…" (Thornbury, 2005b, p. 31).

Reporting its current use in the 1960s, Fillion (1969) says, "Oracy is a neologism currently in vogue in British schools" (p. 1231). *Orality* is sometimes misused as a synonym to it. The New Oxford Dictionary of English (1998) defines orality as, "the quality of being spoken or verbally communicated, preference for or tendency to use spoken forms of language" (p. 1303). Oracy, on the same page, is defined as "the ability to express oneself fluently and grammatically in speech". In simpler terms, orality is used for describing oral language use; whereas oracy is used to mean the ability of this oral use.

Orality is a key word in Walter Ong's book (1982), Orality and Literacy: The Technologizing of the Word. In this book, Ong states that about 3500 years ago, human beings around the world began to organize themselves into social systems passing through a series of various shifts; from the "magical" to the

"scientific", or from the "pre-logical" to the "rational" even from the "savage" to the "domesticated". These may be best described as transitions from oral cultures to literate ones (Cassell, 2007). The former simply means that they were delivered by word of mouth; utterances, whether spoken, recited, or sung. It is the era of passing stories, myths, sagas, and epic poems from one generation to the next without the benefit of the script (Primus, 2002; Hill, 2007).

Ong's book has pedagogical implications. Because literacy standards remain the benchmark for assessing student performance, it is possible for remarkably gifted but "orate" students, who prefer to use spoken language, to fall to the wayside. Yet, orality was not usurped by literacy completely and still plays an important role in some societies where success is often associated with vocal wits (Cassell, 2007) as Trask (1998) confirms:

> Oral skills can be deeply important, and not merely for making political speeches or selling vacuum cleaners. … oral skills … may confer great prestige. In American inner-city ghettos, gang members can acquire status by their ability to hurl biting insults; in small African and Asian communities, the most effective speakers are likely to be the headmen and chiefs. (p. 217)

School systems, however, continue to operate on the assumption that facility with skills essential to literacy is the highest achievement of education (Cassell, 2007).

Wilkinson's coinage of *oracy* was a deliberate attempt to draw the attention to the importance of listening and speaking as well as reading and writing. Indeed back in 1965, Wilkinson et al. argued, "Oracy is a condition for learning in all subjects; it is not a frill but a state of being in which the whole school must operate" (as quoted by Grainger, 1999, p. 57).

In the last century, oracy in schools has grown out of the shadows towards the light. Classroom in which silent students listened to their teacher and only spoke to answer questions and demonstrate their knowledge, have

given way to more interactive contexts. Professional support for oracy became an important factor leading to the introduction of spoken language assessment into public examinations (e.g., GCSE) (Seddon & Pedrosa, 1990; Orr-Ewing, 1998; Grainger, 1999; Cameron, 2000).

Development of oracy movement is neither rapid nor without problems. In the USA, many of the issues and concerns that have been raised by researchers and educators there concerning official oracy policy and practices echo some of the concerns in the UK (Hewitt & Inghillari, 1993). The following part shows what went on in the UK.

1. Traditions of Oral Work in the UK

Hewitt and Inghillari (1993) have witnessed that oral work in English classrooms in Britain is divided into two traditions:

a. **The Augustan Tradition**: It has its roots in the 19th and the early 20th century classroom activities. The emphasis was both on the aesthetics of oral performance; that is, the recitation and the performance of dramatic or poetic texts, and the class debate or individual talk on a chosen topic. The student was expected to "echo" the voice of high culture with clear, preferable, eloquent expression.

b. **The Romantic Tradition**: It emerged during the 1960s and 1970s. It emphasized less on the high culture existing outside the individual student and far more on her/his "voice" in a social context. This was a product of the dramatic restructuring of the British education following World War II, when the education of the working class received national attention. By the 1960s, more attention was paid to oracy as a valuable civic attribute related both to the democratic process and to talk in the workplace.

Teachers in the UK schools were alerted to the importance of oracy by a national, policy-related interest through some important publications.

2. British, State Publications

a. The Bullock Report – A Language for Life – *(Department of Education and Science, DES, 1975):*

It gave official sanction to oracy, with its specific recognition that "by its very nature, a lesson is a verbal encounter through which the teacher draws information from the class, elaborates, and generalizes it, and produces a synthesis" (p. 142). It endorsed the use of oral language across the curriculum, but its recommendations were not fully implemented; whereas students' active use of language was highlighted, the teacher did most of the talking either transmitting information connected to the subject or giving instructions related to classroom behaviour (Orr-Owing, 1998).

b. The National Curriculum (NC) – *First introduced in 1988, revised in 1995 and 1999, and applied to England, Wales and Northern Ireland only:*

In 1987, the British government set up the National Curriculum Council (NCC) to identify the areas of the educational system which were most urgently in need for reform. The Council instituted the National Oracy Project (NOP) (1988-1993), which came up with the idea that in order to improve the level of the educational field, the best method would be to approach literacy through oracy (i.e., the spoken word) (Sorsy, 2000). The NC required that students 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
- listen, understand, and respond appropriately to others.

With its emphasis on standard English, the NC showed little awareness of the cognitive and linguistic benefits of bilingualism, which widened the gap between the evident value of talk and reality which students would encounter (Grainger, 1999). Haworth (2001) clarifies:

Oracy had kept its place, but it was also kept in its place; the spoken word was licensed, but it would be voiced in standardized correct forms. … The loss of voice and the neglect of the students' agenda in the oral curriculum were relevant once more. (p. 14)

Sorsy (2000) cautioned that the UNESCO's definition of Literacy (1993) would conceal the oracy concept. This definition came as follows:

Literacy involves the integration of listening, speaking, reading and writing and critical thinking. It includes the cultural [sic] which enables the speaker, writer or reader to recognize and use language appropriate to different social situations. Literacy allows people to use language to enhance their capacity to think, create and question. (para.1)

This perspective paved the way to several issues to undermine oracy stature and reduce its pedagogic potential, including:

c. **The National Literacy Strategy (NLS)** – *prepared in the National Literacy Project; first trialed in 1997, obligatory in all primary schools in 1999, applied to the first year of the secondary stage (age 11-12) and ultimately to (age 11-14) from 2001:*

It was implemented as the Literacy Hour which took place every day. It added a more detail to the general requirements of the NC for English. It focused upon teaching, not learning, and profiled literacy instruction. It tended to use oral strategies to promote reading and writing skills and, once these are attained, the specified focus becomes increasingly visual. Therefore, oral presentation skills, narrative ability, confidence, clarity, interaction with the audience, spontaneity, etc. were not specifically required (Sorsy, 2000).

Haworth (2001), in his analysis of the Introduction to the NLS, prompts concern about the status of oracy as a dimension of literacy. He explains:

Whilst oracy is firmly established as a partner in the business of literacy, the slippery syntax casts it as something of a sleeping partner. The Introduction defines literacy in close relationship to oracy, yet the conjunctions suggest concession – if not quite subordination.

…subsequent detailed accounts of the Literacy Hour feature the teacher as busy 'impresario' guiding biddable students through a strict regime controlled, literally, by the hands of clock. … students should be trained not to interrupt

> the teacher. … Oracy slips off the page.
>   …but the teacher is the controller of the spoken word; the students remain in the shadows. Oracy is ensnared. (pp. 13-15)

One of the most controversial features of the NLS is the assumption that explicit grammar teaching helps improve writing. From 2003 on, at least 20% of scores was given for grammatical accuracy at the GCSE.

d. **The Nuffield Inquiry into Language (2001)** – *Launched in 1998, reported early in 2000:*

It mainly deals with foreign language teaching and learning in the UK. Among other things, this report recommends *Language Awareness* (LA) as a basis for teaching foreign languages. The main tenet of LA is using language as a cognitive tool for enquiry and knowledge construction. Students should be autonomous in developing their language awareness.

LA can ensure oracy status; oracy serves as a medium of instruction as well as an object. In addition, LA makes use of bilingualism. For example, when reflecting on language, students contribute their previous knowledge of both L1 and L2. That is, a teacher is no longer the controller of the spoken word. For its importance to the aim of the present dissertation, it is dealt with in detail in the following section.

3. Language Awareness (LA)

LA refers to "the development in students of an enhanced sensitivity to the forms and functions of language" (Association for Language Awareness, ALA, 2004, para. 1). The term *knowledge about language* (KAL) is sometimes preferred. (Wright & Bolithio, 1993). It aims to develop the ability to look at language critically and analytically as an object of study (Valentin, 1996). It is characterized by a holistic and text-based approach to language, of which a natural extension is work in Critical Language Awareness (CLA). CLA presents the view that language can conceal and reveal the social and ideological nature of all texts (Carter, 2003).

The concept of LA is not new. In 1937, a Dutch educator called A. J. Schneiders wrote about similar concepts like *language understanding* (*taalbegrip*), and *language feeling* (*taalgervoel*). He considered grammar-analytical approach as a violation of language education; the language is learned in order to be unlearned (Van Lier, 1996). In 1982, a Language Awareness Working Party was set up by the National Congress on Language in Education (NCLE), and in 1984, Eric Hawkins wrote his famous book, Language Awareness: An Introduction. He held that in order to learn about the world, human beings have to *distinguish*, *order*, *induce*, and *generalize* all of which are capacities developed through awareness (at some level) of language. In 1992, the ALA was founded, taking Language Awareness its official organ (Pousada, 2004).

Wright and Bolithio (1993) display key features of an LA activity as follows:

1. *Talking about language* is valuable and enjoyable: It helps students ask questions about language. They become autonomous explorers of language, capable of maintaining a spirit of inquiry after a course ends.

2. It has an *affective* element: It helps evolve attitudes and values.

3. LA has *cognitive* dimensions: It encourages thinking at various levels and of various types.

4. LA work involves the *left brain*: It is logical and rational. It may also involve the *right brain*: it involves intuition and the unexpected.

The exponents of LA raised some controversial issues that can be mentioned as follows:

a. Consciousness Raising

In the 1980s, some linguists, like Krashen (1982 & 1985), claimed that language acquisition is subconscious. That is, the most useful learning is

incidental (i.e., not done on purpose). They confused wanting to learn with being forced to learn, creating a false dichotomy between *deliberate* learning and *incidental* learning. For Andrews (1995), students do not normally acquire language through a passive but, rather, through an active, interactive, rule-making process.

Van Lier (1996) presents a model – Figure (5) – of some processes involved in perceiving an object. He views that for learning something, one must first notice it. This *noticing* is an awareness of its existence, obtained by paying attention to it. *Paying attention* is focusing one's consciousness, or pointing one's perceptual powers in the right direction, and making mental energy available for processing. *Processing* involves linking something that is perceived in the outside world to structures that exist in the mind.
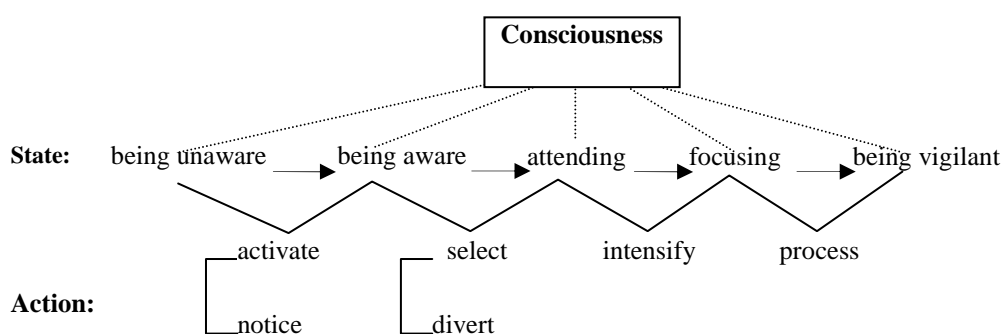
Figure (5): Varieties of Attention Involved in Perceiving an Object, Van Lier (1996)

According to Ying (2003), LA can be broadly defined in two distinct senses. The first sense (inside version) is an information-processing capacity which underlies one's spontaneous use of language for the purpose of communication; a conscious understanding of the language system which can be verbalized. The second sense (outside version) is the need for promoting students' conscious awareness of language as a rule-governed system. This does not mean letting students passively receive a set of language rules and explicit knowledge.

Nevertheless, LA develops students' noticing of language. What is noticed is more likely to be retained in memory, and noticing is a necessary step in turning *input* into *intake* (see Figure 6). *Intake* refers to language that is responded to by
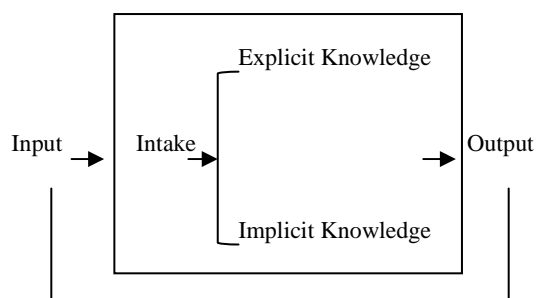
Figure (6): A Computational Model of L2 Acquisition, *Adapted:* Ellis (2001)

the learner, in other words, processed in various ways (Van Lier, 1996). Furthermore, talking about language raises students' awareness of language to an explicit level, which requires them to co-create "joint knowing". Encouraging students to *talk about language* integrates learning about language with meaningful communication in the language, and helps develop their power of observation and purposeful analysis of language, which may help them further in their independent learning (Ying, 2003).

To sum up, students should have a conscious idea of all the assumptions and negotiations that go into a language-learning situation. LA work gives importance to students' internal language processing. Such work emphasizes getting students cognitively involved in thinking about language and having them come up with their own understanding into learning the new content.

b. Grammar Teaching

For some years, particularly in the 1970s, Hymes introduced the concept of *communicative competence* which encouraged language in use and real communication at the expense of grammar teaching: It was suggested that grammatical accuracy should be "sacrificed" for the sake of successful communication. In 1985, Krashen set out some principles which played down grammar teaching. According to him, information about grammar is claimed to be automatically acquired when the student receives a sufficient amount of *comprehensible input* (Hamada, 1999). In simpler terms, grammar is to be acquired incidentally without explicit teaching.

The communicative approach is adopted in Egypt. For Ellis (2001), this approach is more likely to result in implicit knowledge and therefore can contribute to the kind of proficiency needed to use language easily and fluently. Students are exposed to exemplars of English rules and are asked to focus on meaning rather than form.

The communicative approach brought the field of language teaching out of the dark ages of grammar-translation method. However, the field is in need to balance; students used to come out of language classes with grammar knowledge but no practical skills. Now, they get no grammar, but without the "momentum" to deliver the communicative competence advertised. On the contrary, LA stands in a valid position which is that grammar teaching has to be done well enough that students see the benefits (Fradkin, 1994).

LA emphasizes that students need to be aware of *what* they are doing and *why* and that information cannot only foster certain skills, strategies and processes, but also increases the *comprehensibility* of the input. This does not mean that LA should replace the communicative approach. On the contrary, they should complement each other (Hamada, 1999). While use of the language in a variety of communicative activities is the central goal of instruction, discussion of how the language works can enhance both comprehension and production (Girard, 1990).

There is no way to limit the boundaries of LA sharply: many activities can be said to raise awareness of how language works. An activity gains an LA dimension when it is used to encourage discussion about the language phenomenon illustrated by the content (Verity, 2003). For example, students can express their implicit knowledge of the rules underlying their use of L1, and then to search for and find out the rules of the L2 system.

Learning grammar should be *about doing grammar*, not *learning about grammar*: the former means inducing rules through involvement, observation,

sensitivity to pattern, interpretation, abstraction and generalization (Valentin, 1996). To achieve that goal efficiently, students and teachers need a common repertoire of terms and concepts (Fradkin, 1994; Ying, 2003). This repertoire – Craig (2003) calls it a "literary toolbox" – has a relation to metalinguistics which helps students be aware of the totality of language and describe this with spontaneity and elaboration (Andrews, 1995). Metalinguistics is not taught for its own sake but to provide an economic and precise way of discussing particular functions and purposes (Hamada, 1999).

c. Metalanguage Teaching

Metalanguage is a language for talking about language use – *language about language* (Waki, 2003). It helps students think about language as an object. For example, if a student has difficulty in putting someone else's language into her/his own words, the difficulty could be either linguistic or metalinguistic. If s/he does not know synonyms for the words or does not have a variety of sentence structures, then the problem will be linguistic. If, on the other hand, the whole act of paraphrasing; that is, a conscious manipulation of the language to make it different, is the problem, then the difficulty is metalinguistic (Ehren, 2004).

Metalinguistic awareness can be a result of increasing language "objectification"; the ability to see language as something that can be manipulated and talked about technically. Craig (2003) refers to metalinguistic awareness with, "the ability to 'step back' and use words to analyze how language works… thinking in a more abstract way about what we hear and what we say" (p. 9). There is a difference between language use when the focus is on meaning and language use when aspects of language become objects for observation and analysis (Van Lier, 1996). Students use metalanguage (the mother tongue or target language) for describing, for analyzing, for making comparisons to find similarities and differences between L1 and L2, and for

discovering rules (Ellis, 2004).

In specific terms, metalanguage can help students develop a facility with terms and concepts such as *context*, *text, genre*, *audience*, and *register*, and so forth. All these describe the situation which produced the text, the social and cultural structures which were operative in shaping the text. In addition, students understand and use such terms and concepts as *phrase*, *sentence*, *paragraph*, *tense*, *parts of speech*, *punctuation marks*, and so forth (Valentin, 1996).

Briefly, according to Lochlainn and Mhaonaigh (2008), LA can help students notice and be inquisitive about such things as:
- the way the language works and patterns within the language,
- differences and similarities between the target language and languages they already know,
- socio-linguistic awareness (e.g., the existence of dialect and the contrast between dialect and standard English),
- how they themselves learn and their awareness and understanding of the language learning process, and
- the metalanguage of learning (e.g., grammatical terminology).

Actually, LA does not simply involve a focus on language itself. Its adherents also stress the cognitive advantages of reflecting upon language (Carter, 2003). Some researchers (e.g., Forw, 2004) use the term LA to refer to "the aim of developing in students a reflective capability about their own use of language and the language use of others" (sec. II, para. 1). They depend upon Hawkins' call (1984) that students need to reflect on language to get some general idea of what sort of phenomenon a language is.

LA developed considerably in the eighties. It is now widely used outside Britain in other European countries. In France, for example, LA was first mentioned in the 1985 ministerial guidelines for teaching EFL. The term used

was "reflection on language", "*réflexion sur la langue…approche conceptuelle*" (Valentin, 1996).

B. Reflection

> "The only real path is the one you see after walking across the desert when you look back and see your own footsteps" (Brockbanck et al., 2002, p. 6).

Reflection comes from the Latin root *reflectere*, meaning, "to bend back". It is a type of thinking, which involves scanning memory of the past, and seeking connections, discrepancies, and meanings in the current situation as a guide for a future action. Using reflection to learn has ancient roots. **Socrates**' seminars were structured to take the student thought from the unreasoned to the reasoned (Shermis, 1999). He constantly challenged his students' beliefs, including **Plato**, whose work developed as a consequence of Socrates' training in how to reflect. **Sophocles** declared that one learns by observing what one does time and time again. **John Locke** believed that knowing is purely a function of thoughtful reaction to experience (Seibert, 1999).

Early research on learning, dominated by **behaviourism** and **cognitive psychology**, limited itself to measurable, observable outcomes. Its testing methods reveal a model of the human learners as passive receptacles. New research has taken into account how students learn as well as what they learn. Its move from "testing" to "asking" builds on **personal construct psychology**, allowing students to create their own constructs and meanings in describing their learning through interactive reflection (Brockbank et al., 2002).

Lipman (2003) compares two sharply contrasting paradigms of educational practice: the **standard paradigm** and the **reflective paradigm** as shown in Table (3):

Table (3)

A Comparison Between Two Paradigms of Education: Standard and Reflective

	Standard Paradigm	**Reflective Paradigm**
Education	transmission of knowledge from those who know to those who do not know	the outcome of participation in a teacher-guided community of inquiry
Knowledge	unambiguous, unequivocal, and untemporary	ambiguous, equivocal, and temporary
Teacher	authoritative role (only if a teacher knows, can students learn what he knows)	"fallibilistic" role (one that is ready to concede)
Students	acquire knowledge by absorbing information (i.e., data about specifics; an educated mind is a well-stocked one)	the focus is on the grasp of relationships within and among the subject matters under investigation.

The main point is that the reflective paradigm assumes education to be inquiry, whereas the standard paradigm does not. For example, in the latter teachers question students, whereas in the former, students and teachers query each other.

Reflection is much more than just thinking about something. At its most powerful aspect, students "dig beneath the surface" to search for the genesis of knowledge. Their contextualized understanding helps them mentally file information in a manner that allows it to be easily recalled. Without such contextual understanding, the memory-work pedagogies fail to achieve its most basic objective: the memorization of knowledge. Once the test is over, most students no longer have any use for such information and quickly forget it (Kincheloe & Steinberg, 1998). Because information is not linked through experience to the students' memory, it becomes impossible to retrieve it (Beard, 2006). The following section highlights two roles of reflection:

1. Reflection is a Key to Learning from Experience

Experience is an essential element of learning (Legutke & Thomas, 1997; Mason, 2002). Beard (2002) defines *experiential learning* as "the sense-making process of active engagement between the inner world of the person and the outer world of the environment" (p.19). Therefore, an experience is assumed to produce learning, but simply having an experience does not guarantee that learning will occur (Seibert, 1999). For Carroll et al. (2002), students learn from

the meaning they give to experience; they give meaning to experience by reflecting on it.

Reflection is a process that describes, analyzes, and evaluates an experience. When the former is effective, individuals develop inferences about potential ways to respond to the demands they face in the latter. In doing this, they learn. Thus, reflection is a primary tool to trigger learning from experience (Seibert, 1999). This role of reflection is well-documented in the works of the following theorists:

a. John Dewey

John Dewey is, arguably, the foremost exponent of the use of experience for learning. This is clear in a number of titles of his books, including Experience and Nature (1925), Art as Experience (1934), and Experience and Education (1938). He posited experience as an essential component of the education process. His *educational continuum* distinguished between educational experiences that are worthwhile versus those that are not. A worthwhile experience prepares students for a later one of deeper and expansive quality when they integrate prior knowledge and experiences to extract meaning.

Reflection, as a creative process that organizes thinking, is a core feature of Dewey's approach – an idea he developed in How we think: A Restatement of the Relation of Reflective Thinking to the Educative Process (1910). It means "the active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it and the future conclusions to which it tends" (as quoted by Seibert, 1999, p. 20). Dewey's writing gave rise to the trend called *reflective teaching*: the development of reflective practices in student teachers. In addition, outdoor learning experiences are full of teachable moments calling for reflection.

For Dewey, a teacher's role is to provide students with meaningful experiences that they had some acquaintance with. It is wholly futile to urge

students to *reflect* when they have no prior experiences that involve some of the same conditions (Seibert, 1999; Pollard, 2002). Three elements of reflection are:

1. *Description***:** describe the event,

2. *Analysis*: analyze what you are reflecting on, and

3. *Action*: talk about how it has pushed you into some kind of action.

Dewey (1925) later developed a conceptualization of learning based on the distinction between **primary** and **secondary experiences**. Primary experiences are the gross, everyday activities that are crude and involve a "minimum" of reflective activity, which can lead to systematic thinking. Dewey terms this more reflective activity secondary experience. Secondary experiences clarify the meaning of the primary ones, organizing them so that there is a useful accumulation of *knowledge*, which can run a complete range of *judgments* (see Figure 7) about the relationship between an action and its

Figure (7): Dewey's Learning Process, *Adapted*: Beard (2006)

consequence(s) in an early activity, to the development of hypotheses and theories to explain and examine later activities (Glassman, 2001).

b. David Kolb

Dewey's work formed the basis for David Kolb's model of Experiential Learning Theory (ELT) described in Experiential learning: Experience as the Source of Learning and Development (1984). In this book, he defines learning as "the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience" (p. 41). The ELT model – Figure (8) – portrays an idealized learning cycle or spiral where the learner "touches all the bases": an *experience* is the basis for *reflection*,
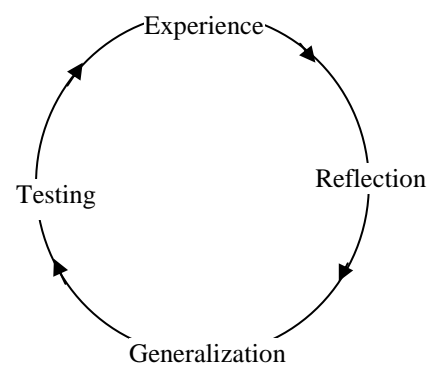
Figure (8): Kolb's Learning Cycle, *Adapted*: Beard (2006)

which is assimilated and distilled into abstract *generalization* from which new implications are subject to *testing* (i.e., an action) in a future experience.

Kolb and Kolb (2005) declare that the ELT is built on six propositions that learning is:

1. best conceived as a process, not in terms of outcomes;

2. relearning, which is facilitated by a process that draws out the students' beliefs and ideas about a topic so that they can be examined, tested, and integrated with new, more refined ideas;

3. a process in which one moves back and forth between opposing modes of reflection and action;

4. is not just the result of cognition but involves the integrated functioning of the total person: thinking, feeling, perceiving, and behaving;

5. a result from synergetic transactions between the person and the environment; and

6. the process of creating knowledge.

ELT proposes **a constructivist theory of learning**. In a constructivist classroom, activities are designed to help students gain access to their previous experiences and beliefs so they can they can reshape them in the light of new course content. Therefore, the ability to engage in reflection is an essential condition because it enables students to become aware of their own knowledge construction process (Dantas-Whitney, 2002).

c. Lev Vygotsky

According to Vygotsky, as a constructivist theorist, a learner must actively build knowledge and skills, and this information exists within the "constructs" rather than in the external environment (Zhai & Kim, 2007); here, *knowledge construction* replaces the notion of *knowledge acquisition*. Interacting together, students can construct knowledge, a process whereby they function as reciprocal support for each other (Alexander et al., 2002).

Two of Vygotsky's most important contributions are of great value to the present dissertation (i.e., *zone of proximal development*, zpd, and the interrelationship between *language and thinking*), which were published in Mind in Society (1978) and Thought and Language (alternative translation: Thinking and Speaking) (1986) respectively. Vygotsky defines the *zpd* as:

> The distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers. (p. 78)

His notion here seems to be that a student's latent ability could be measured by the extent to which one profits from guided instruction (Morris, 2008).

In theory, Vygotsky recommends a social context which promotes sustained achievement and cognitive growth. It is a bit like the Socratic method in which the teacher asks a question to lead the student to discover or derive the answer using his or her thinking abilities. The inquiry process is one which the student internalizes, becoming more independent in learning as he or she applies the same method when working with peers or alone on assignments (Galloway, 2001; Hausfather, 2001).

Vygotsky believes that what a student is able to do in collaboration today; s/he will be able to do independently tomorrow. He proposes that this process proceeds in four stages as shown by Figure (9):

- **Stage 1:** Assistance provided by more capable others
- **Stage 2:** Assistance provided by the self
- **Stage 3:** Automatization through practice
- **Stage 4:** De-automatization; recursiveness through previous three stages
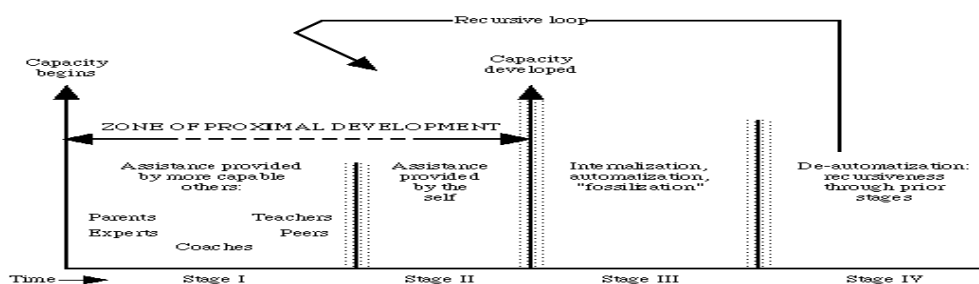
Figure (9): The ZPD as a Four-Stage Process, Gallimore and Tharp (1990)

Concerning the interrelationship between *language and thinking*, Vygotsky holds that speech greatly enhances students' ability to engage in social interactions and share their experiences. He analyzes the role of speech, delineating the process of children progressing from *external speech* to *egocentric speech* to *inner speech*; wherein each stage is a consequence of learning from observing and interacting with the immediate social environment (Galloway, 2001; Dahms et al., 2008).

External speech is to communicate with and influence others, while the egocentric speech is a private speech where the child talks aloud to her/himself and uses this speech to guide her/his thinking and actions. Finally, private speech becomes inner speech. At this point in development, a child is able to take a situation or problem and instead of asking guidance from an adult, the child will turn inward and appeal to her/his own knowledge and understanding to find a solution to the problem (Galloway, 2001).

Although Vygotsky believes that inner speech develops from external speech via a gradual process of internalization, he claims that it is unintelligible to anyone except the thinker. Hence, thought itself develops socially. This is not to say that thinking cannot take place without language, but rather that it is mediated by it and develops to a much higher level of sophistication (Cheyne & Tarulli, 1999).

Hence, a learner – passing through a process of ongoing, gradual, sustained experiences of interaction with the others – develops into an educated person. Reflection is an essential factor in this process as it helps trigger learning from an experience. It helps in so through generalizing rules from the present experience to be tested afterwards in a future action.

2. Reflection Develops the Ability to Generalize

A great deal can be learned from experiences, but after a while, learning is supplanted by tacit habits. Instead of responding sensitively to situations, one

frequently reacts according to established patterns. There is an urgent need to engage students in few brief moments to reflect on these patterns (Mason, 2002) and connect them with new information. As Waters (2006) puts it:

> … learning occurs when the mind makes connection between what it already knows and new…information. Many modern … textbooks nowadays incorporate such activities as a way of stimulating active thinking by learners both in order to increase their knowledge of the language system and their ability to use it in communication. (p. 319)

That is to say, engaging in reflection requires moving beyond the acquisition of new knowledge into questioning of the existing beliefs about language. Lipman (2003) explains:

> Beliefs are thoughts we are convinced of despite the fact that we do not continually question them; practice is what we do methodically and with conviction but without a conspicuous degree of inquiry or reflection. (p. 15)

It is the responsibility of the teacher to expose such taken-for-grated beliefs to reflection. Language is such a phenomenon that students become somewhat "blasé" about how they and others use it (Forw, 1998). In this sense, interactive tasks where student talk about language are valid and effective. Students move from their tacit knowledge to explicit rules (Ying, 2003). Reflection entails building new understanding (i.e., generalization) to inform their action in the situation that is unfolding (Smith, 2005).

Such inductive learning of language rules allows learners time and space to develop their own experiential responses to learning, especially to its contextual meanings (Carter, 2003). Students can form rules about how language works in a specific situation and transfer them to solve problems in everyday situations (as shown by Figure 10). This sets up the link between classroom instruction and the students'

Figure (10): Rules Induced from an Experience to Inform Everyday Situations

greater noticing and intake outside the classroom, when they are confronted

with further language data from other sources. The analytical attention they pay to these generalizations is the beginning of another learning cycle (Ying, 2003).

Language learning is a "life-long endeavor". In modern societies, students are continually "barraged" by vast, complex, changing, linguistic stimuli from: television, the internet, peers, teachers, friends, magazines, books, and so forth. So, content learning is no longer a priority. Knowing how to find information and understanding both the content and the process of discovering that information are the skills that students require in order to become life-long learners (Friedman, 2000; Martin, 2000).

It is therefore a saying that concerns giving someone a fish, thus feeding him a day, as opposed to teaching him how to fish, thus feeding him for a lifetime. In a language learning setting, this means moving away from the acquisition of information towards the use of relevant reference sources; that is, encouraging familiarity and efficient use of sources such as grammar books, dictionaries, reference books, thesauruses, etc. This sits well with the recent development of a view of language learning as a reflective process (Hales, 1997).

There is a clear distinction between holding some linguistic rules without knowing the reasons or grounds on which such rules rest and holding such rules while being aware of the reasons and grounds that support them. The second way is more reflective. Students need to reflect upon spoken language – whether their own or of the others (native or nonnative) – to be aware. Awareness is thus a capacity, whereas reflection is a process; but the two are "inextricably" linked. In simpler terms, awareness subsumes reflection: the process of reflection can, if successful, develop awareness.

Three Levels of Reflection on Language Learning

According to Ellis (2004), students get lots of implicit practice, but without being told explicitly about why they are using certain cognitive strategies (e.g. compare, classify, match, guess, predict, etc.) or to get them reflect on how they are learning. In other words, the *metacognitive* dimension is missing. Although some activities get students to review what they have learnt, they focus solely on the linguistic content not on the process involved. Granville and Dison (2005) confirm:

> Reflection becomes metacognitive when it involves evaluating one's own thinking process. … This involves asking questions about how to deepen understanding; for example, *what is this about? Why do we need it? What does it mean? What are the implications?* (p. 100)

When students learn, they may improve their performance, transform themselves, and may also develop, prosper, and survive. Brockbank et al. (2002) identify three levels of reflection on learning as follows:

a. *Improvement:* Students process, assess, and reconsider their work for improved performance; that is, they "do things right";

b. *Transformation:* Students reconsider their work questioning and challenging existing patterns, thereby, opening the door for creativity and innovation; that is, they "do the right things"; and

c. *Learning about learning*: It can only occur as a consequence of the first two. It entails that a student standing back from her or his improvement and transformation and seeking to identify "*how I did that*", so that this knowledge can be transferred to future situations.

In addition, Brockbank et al. (2002) relate these three levels to the following notions:

a. Single-loop learning (maintenance learning)

The cyclical nature of learning – Kolb's model (1984), Figure (8, p. 33) – achieves immediate improvement, and leaves underlying values unchanged.

b. Double-loop learning (revolutionary learning)

Figure (11) adds an upper circle to the circle in Figure (8), p. 33. That is, when assumptions are questioned, a student may swing out of the lower circle orbit and begins to traverse the upper one in a double-loop learning mode. The option remains to return to the single loop when appropriate perhaps to test a new theory, and continue to achieve improvements with a new understanding.
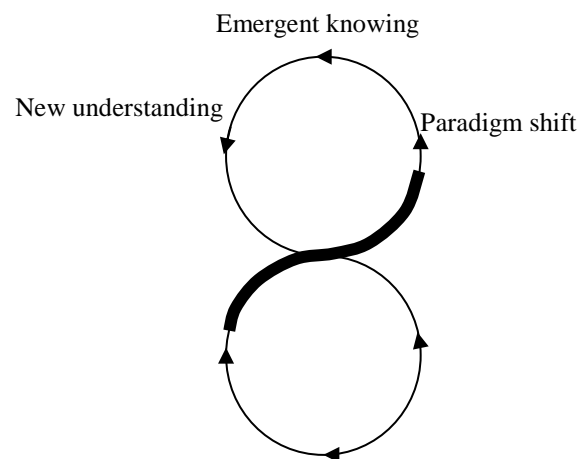
Figure (11): Double-Loop Learning, Brockbank et al. (2002)

Smith (2005) mentions that the terms single- and double- loop learning were first used by Chris Argyris and Donald Schön in 1974 when they looked at three elements, Figure (12), which are:

a. *Governing variables:* those values students keep from previous experiences,

b. *Action strategies:* the moves and plans used by students to keep their governing values, and

c. *Consequences:* what happens as a result of an action. These can be both intended and unintended for the self and/or the others.
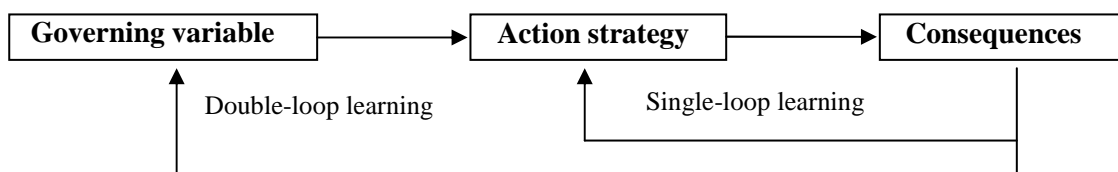
Figure (12): Argyris and Schön's Model of Learning, Lynch and Johan (2007)

In his book, <u>The reflective Practitioner: How Professionals Think in Action</u>, Donald Schön (1983) considered knowledge inherent in practice to be understood as an "artful doing". Schön's key insight is that there are forms of professional knowledge that, though often tacitly held, are essential for the

exercise of judgment when the complexities of professional life are confronted (Smith, 2005). This gave greater coherence to the function of *generalization* – Figure (8). That is, generalizations, which a student has, become something s/he can analyze and work from.

Knowing-in-Action: (knowledge inherent in action)

The workday life of the professional depends on tacit knowing-in-action. He knows how to carry out actions spontaneously; he does not have to think about them prior to or during their performance. He is often unaware of having learned to do these things; he simply found himself doing them. In some cases, he was once aware of understandings which were subsequently internalized in his feeling. In other cases, he may usually be unable to describe the knowing which his action reveals. In this sense that knowing-in-action is the characteristic mode of ordinary, practical knowledge (Pollard, 2002), which can be developed through:

a. Reflection-in-action

As practice becomes more repetitive and routine, and as knowing-in-action becomes tacit and spontaneous, the practitioner may miss important opportunities to think about what he is doing. As a practitioner experiences many variations of a small number of types of cases, he is able to "practice" his practice; he has "over-learned" what he knows (Brockbank et al., 2002).

As long as his practice is stable in the sense that it brings him the same type of cases, he becomes less and less subject to surprise. Nevertheless, when intuitive performance leads to surprises or unexpected outcomes, he may turn thought back on action and on the knowing which is implicit in action. He may ask himself, for example, "What features do I notice when I recognize this thing? What are the criteria by which I make this judgment? What procedures am I enacting when I perform this skill? How am I framing the problem that I am trying to solve?" When a practitioner reflects-in-action, he becomes a

researcher in the practice context. He does not separate thinking from doing. Because his experimenting is a kind of action, implementation is built into his inquiry (Brockbank et al., 2002; Smith, 2005).

b. Reflection-on-action

While reflection-in-action is a kind of on-the-spot experimenting which occurs when it can still make a difference in the situation at hand, reflection-on-action is a kind of thinking that occurs when a practitioner is involved in an unrelated activity. This type of reflection involves multitasking; while a practitioner is consciously reflecting on one task, he is engaged in another task such as traveling, exercising, doing housework, engaging in a hobby and so forth. Seibert (1999) quotes a manager's description of this kind of reflection as follows:

> I'll re-reflect. When I have spare time, I'll go back over and review what I think, what my judgments and conclusions are. You can't be doing that during the fray of the battle. Sometimes I just trace my steps. When I get up in the morning my mind races, I have lots of thoughts about new ideas before I ever leave the house. And then I have a 45-minute commute and I use that time. (p. 98)

As reflection-in-action helps practitioners respond immediately to the demands of a situation, refection-on-action serves other purposes which Seibert (1999) mentions as follows:

1. It enables a practitioner to gain perspective on specific events by putting time and space between the event and when he reflects on it.

2. It provides an opportunity to simply "clear your mind", since being removed from having to make immediate response. The sense conveyed here is that a break from work and from reflecting can actually promote reflection later on.

3. It is associated with complex, abstract, and especially troublesome issues; the types of issues that a practitioner often finds himself reflecting on away from work even when he has not intended to do.

Actually, these two types of reflection (i.e., reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action) will be retrieved later on in the following section of reflection on oracy in correspondence with the two modes of reflection (i.e., active reflection and proactive reflection) classified by Seibert (1999).

Reflection requires students to look at the process they used to reach their goals. Although the end product is important, it is no longer the focus of learning. Instead, the steps of a process taken to develop this product are the focus of learning (Martin, 2000). Teachers need to help students not only know something, but also reflect about their own way of knowing to become conscious of *what* and *how* they have learned. Thus, reflection helps students gain increased awareness and control of their language learning process and performance at the same time (Reid & Golub, 1999; Friedman, 2000).

It is true that genuinely natural spoken texts will be difficult to obtain in contrived classroom circumstances. However, Hamada (1999) considers using specially written material to be useful as follows:

> … learners need to observe sufficient occurrences of the concept … and hence can draw their conclusions. … when learners internalize this concept, they become ready to explore authentic texts, observing how this concept is used in everyday language and comparing the data in the text with their previous knowledge. (p. 26)

The following section presents a theoretical background of using reflection for developing oracy in the classroom.

C. Reflection and Oracy

> "If you know how something works, you can begin to know how to interfere with it" (Prof. Lewis Wolpert, BBC Radio 4 on 27 May, 1995, as quoted by Lynch, 1996, p. xiv).

Communication is a process of presenting and receiving; of speaking and listening, of writing and reading. Even though written language is quite different from spoken language, it is founded upon inner speech development: Writing is speech without an interlocutor, addressed to an absent or an

imaginary person or to no one in particular. Nevertheless, writing hardly becomes spontaneous as speech.

Language originates in speech: both historically in human development and in an individual's linguistic development. For Thornbury (2005a), most day-to-day language use is oral. Moreover, from an educational point of view, most (but not all) learners of EFL are keen to acquire at least a measure of oral fluency. However, speaking represents a real challenge to most of them; as it is a creative process, speakers are almost always in a position of formulating what they are saying as they go along; adjusting what they are saying as a result of the behaviour of their own listeners.

In the case of one-way, oral communication such as radio broadcast, a member of the audience can justifiably be referred to as a listener, since s/he has no opportunity to respond or to intervene. In two-way, oral communication such as face-to-face conversation, the social role of listening often involves a considerable amount of talking. However, this talking is not to be considered of the listening skills (Lynch, 1996). Lynch classifies the listening roles in different oral communication types in Table (4).

Table (4)

Oral Communication Types and Listening Roles, Lynch (1996)

	partner	addressee	auditor	overhearer	judge
one-way		listening to a telephone answering machine	listening to a radio phone-in	hearing someone leaving a telephone message	a judge listening to a witness in a court
two-way	holding an informal conversation	listening to a lecture	listening to a debate between politicians	listening to other people's conversation	(an inspector) watching a school lesson

Condon and Čech, (2001) define two-way, oral communication as "communication in which messages are produced with the expectation that they will be processed and answered immediately" (p.1). That is, this type of communication requires at least two partners to be equally active and present-

minded. Both of them can cooperate in the management of speaking turns. Neither of them is listening nor speaking forever. Actually, this type of oral communication which the present dissertation is concerned for developing students' oracy; one partner interprets the other speaker's contributions while simultaneously planning her/his own next contribution – quite unlike the situation typical of writers composing in tranquility.

However, the rapidity of spoken language causes students to find it more difficult to listen to a spoken message than to read the same message on a piece of paper; a listening passage comes into the ear in the twinkle of an eye, whereas written material can be read as long as the reader likes. Yet, for many students, especially if they have been trained to focus on structure, there will be an urge to try to grasp every word. In many instances, they do not have the time to "unravel" the mix of structures before they receive the next part of the message. But more importantly, they are frequently in a position where simply using their knowledge of "correct, written grammar" to sort out the spoken message does not work (Underwood, 1990; Yagang, 1993; Burton, 1996).

In addition, listeners may think that spoken texts are formless and purposeless. However, this is not true. They have shape, structure, and sense. Its sense is co-constructed; each speaker builds on what other speakers have said and always keeps them "in mind". Besides, spoken messages can include street gossip, proverbs, and colloquial vocabulary unfamiliar to the students. In many cases, listeners cannot predict what speakers are going to say. Even, it is impossible to ask the speaker to repeat something as many times as the interlocutor might like (Yagang, 1993; Thornbury, 2005b).

Speaking also typically takes place in real time with little time for detailed planning the next part, perhaps speakers change what they are about to say as a result of their partners' responses or other external factors. This process causes speakers to hesitate, to go back to the beginning of an idea and start

again, to repeat themselves, to contradict themselves, to change their minds in mid-sentences, and to produce "ungrammatical utterances" (Underwood, 1990) (i.e., it does not conform to the well-formedness of writing). This *ungrammaticality* of spoken language has led some linguists at times to conclude that it is inherently sloppy and inferior to written language (Qualifications and Curriculum Authority, QCA, 2004; Guenter, 2008).

Now, spoken language is distinctive as a mode of communication, especially when compared to written language. It deserves reflection in its own right because of the special characteristics that enable speakers to communicate complex ideas and feelings in changing and fluid environments. In addition, talk is also the first form of language one learns, but with neither reflection on what has been learnt nor enough knowledge about this basic system of communication. Therefore, explicit understanding of spoken language features can be helpful in sharpening students' awareness of key differences between writing and talk (McCarthy and Carter, 1995; QCA, 2004). This explicit understanding can be established through the following:

1. Learning Through Talk and Learning about Talk

Teaching about some features of spoken language, the present dissertation used spoken language both as a medium and as a message. This could enhance students' oracy and contribute to a clearer understanding of how interpersonal relationships are negotiated through speaking turns. This explicit teaching put oral language under the microscope and might increase students' awareness of its organization.

Reflection on spoken texts enables students to be aware of different linguistic devices, and thus could become competent communicators. An awareness of these devices offers students an opportunity to gain assurance as makers of spoken texts (Nicholson, 1998). Thompson (2006) examines his students' "need to develop their ability to talk about word; currently they are

only communicating with word. They seem less able to speak technically…" (p. 214). That is, they learn through talk; he needs them to learn about talk, where they focus explicitly on spoken texts. In which case, they need to speak technically about the language (i.e., speak linguistically about the language).

To learn about talk, a metalanguage to describe and define its components can be useful to teachers and students alike. Such a metalanguage would enable fruitful discussion and investigations about talk; teachers and students use metalanguage to analyze spoken language of native speakers, student-teacher interactions, and student's speech when they analyze stretches of tapescripts of spoken texts.

Spoken Texts

Course-book writers work hard to compress the essentials of a vast subject between the covers of a book and teachers work hard to convey those essentials to their students. Students do what they are asked to do and expect that "keep doing the work" is sufficient to ensure learning. Completing tasks becomes the aim and end of lessons (Mason, 2002; Lipman, 2003). However, oracy should be developed in a context of living issues, of reflection upon authentic materials, not of neutralized, pseudo-topics invented solely to give a semblance of content to talk for talk's sake (Haworth, 2001).

Teachers need to ask students to close their books and reflect. For Wright and Bolitho (1993), when students listen to a spoken text, they can be asked questions like: *who are the speakers? What are their goals? How do they use the language to achieve their goals? Do we use language in the same way? What are our assumptions about language uses? Let us have a review of what we know about language.* Students may know some of these things simply from their previous learning of EFL or even from their L1. So, the activities aimed at developing students' oracy can be called *awareness-raising* activities, rather than *presentation* activities, since the former allows the possibility of

discovering and even filling their knowledge gaps themselves, while the teacher is there to guide the process and provide feedback where necessary. For raising students' awareness, Thornbury (2005b) proposes three steps as follows:

1. *Paying attention:* Students must attend to a certain spoken language feature in the spoken text. They need to be interested, involved, and curious. The feature may be the same in L1 and L2, so the teacher should refer to that.

2. *Noticing:* Students might notice the difference between their own novice performance and the performance of a native speaker. This is called *noticing the gap*[*].

3. *Understanding:* Students recognize a general rule, or a pattern. This is more likely if there are several instances of the feature being targeted.

These three steps parallel other steps offered by McCarthy and Carter (1995). They introduced those steps in their revision of the traditional, well-established "three Ps" methodology of Presentation-Practice-Production. For them, a "three Is" – Illustration-Interaction-Induction – methodology may be appropriate for raising students' awareness of the distinction between spoken and written modes of English.

For the present study, reflection is a process leading to awareness of some spoken language features as an end goal. One way to raise students' awareness of features of spoken language is to expose them to instances of speaking and to have them study tapescripts of them. Traditionally, this has taken the form of playing tape recordings, of either monologue or multiparty talk, which are pre-scripted and performed by actors.

However, lack of spontaneity that results form being both scripted and performed means that these recordings seldom display the features of interactive

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[*]For this, Thornbury (1997) mentions two other alternative terms: (1) *matching* is used since a student must continuously compare her or his current language use with the target use, and (2) *cognitive comparison* since this better captures the fact that students need to notice when their output is the same as well as when it is different.

talk, such as turn-taking in anything but a rather idealized way; turns are tidied up to be of roughly equal length. They alternate with a machine-like precision, with no overlaps, interruptions, or repetitions. This lack of authenticity is compounded by the fact that these recordings are often designed to display a pre-selected grammar structure and are usually simplified to ensure intelligibility. Add to this, talk which has been "tidied up" is easier to read on the page and is not necessarily easier to listen to; the information load is concentrated and more difficult to process aurally (Thornbury, 2005a; Thornbury, 2005b).

There is a good case, then, to expose students to naturally occurring, spontaneous (i.e., unscripted) examples of spoken language. But first for any language teacher who tries to "keep abreast" with the developments in Applied Linguistics, s/he needs to keep up-to-date with *discourse analysis* field. This field is concerned with how speakers combine utterances into broader speech units. In simpler terms, it is interested in how real people use real language, as opposed to studying artificially created sentences. Numerous investigators have produced insights into: *how texts are structured beyond sentence level*, *how talk follows regular patterns in a wide range of different situations*, *how such complex area as intonation operates in communication*, and *how discourse norms* (the underlying rules that speakers adhere to) *and their realizations* (the actual language forms which reflect those rules) *differ from culture to culture*. All these matters are of great interest for language teachers to know when they engage students in exercises and activities aimed at making them proficient users of EFL, or when they evaluate a piece of commercially published material before deciding to use it (McCarthy, 2000; Clark, 2007).

Discourse analysis is of great importance for the present dissertation as it tried to extract different features of naturally occurring spoken texts. Actually, complete naturalness is probably impossible in the classroom, but the feeling

that one is being taught authentic and naturally occurring situations to use in simulations of real-life talk is of great interest.

The best resources of spoken language data come from relatively recent bodies of recorded data – linguistic corpora – held on computers. Major collections of data, 400 million words, include the British National Corpus (BNC) of over 100 million words of spoken and written British English, 5 million words of Cambridge and Nottingham Corpus of Discourse of English (CANCODE) and the spoken component of Collins Birmingham University International Language Database (COBUILD). People, who recorded in modern British corpora, come from different regions and careful preparation ensures a balance regarding *gender*, *age* and *social class* of the speakers (QCA, 2004).

Recordings are made computer-readable, so that very fast and sophisticated computer programmes can identify frequent or salient structures alongside the contexts in which they are used. Analyses of these resources offer ways of exploring and describing basic spoken language features in everyday contexts such as *service encounters*, *workplace exchanges*, *family conversation* and so forth. It is in these jointly constructed spoken texts, rather than in *formal spoken presentations* or *solo performances*, that talk is most distinctive and least like the written mode; this is the source of current, developing understandings about features of spoken English. Such features enable speakers to respond to pressure of communicating in real time and to link what they say to shared contexts (McCarthy, 2000; QCA, 2004).

Characteristics of Spoken Language

It is generally accepted that knowing a language and being able to speak it are not synonymous. Yet, the researcher's M.A thesis (Zayed, 2003) was carried on as if knowing and speaking were the same thing. Using some "written stories" (i.e., do not reflect the characteristics of spoken language), she taught some pronunciation, some grammar, some vocabulary, and some language functions

as a way for developing her students' oral performance – assuming that the characteristics of written language features are transferable across the language. Thornbury (2005b) contradicts:

> For a long time, it was assumed that the ability to speak fluently followed naturally from the teaching of grammar and vocabulary with a bit of pronunciation thrown in.
> ...speaking activities are often simply ways of rehearsing pre-selected grammar items or functional expressions. If speaking-as-skill is dealt with, it is often dealt with only at the level of pronunciation.
> However, a lifetime spent studying the grammar is no guarantee that speaking will come naturally, either. (pp. iv-31)

That is, language teachers tend to work with a set of norms based on written language, where clause and sentence structures are clearly defined. Corpora show that spoken data frequently contains forms that would be considered ungrammatical in writing. Such *mistakes* usually go quite unnoticed in natural talk. It is only when looking at tapescripts, linguists realize how common they are (McCarthy, 2000). Therefore, it is through helping students reflect on tapescripts of naturally occurring, oral situations, they can distinguish some features of spoken language associated with its characteristics. The following section deals with some of these characteristics in turn.

1. Spontaneity

Most speech is produced "on-line"; that is to say, in real time and it is therefore essentially **linear**; it cannot be replayed. Its contingent nature whereby it is produced utterance-by-utterance (i.e., the spoken equivalent of sentence) accounts for its spontaneity. Spoken language, especially in informal situations, consists of short phrases or clauses, called **idea units**, strung together in a rather loose way, often connected more by the coherence of the ideas than by any grammatical relationship. Consequently, most spoken texts are just a rough, first draft. This is referred to as **unplanned discourse** (Buck, 2001).

This is not to say that speech is unplanned, only that the planning time is severely limited, and the planning of one utterance may overlap with the
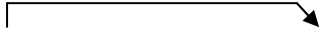
production of the previous one. When speaking, interlocutors have not already worked out what forms of language they are going to use. In their heads, they may well have quite clear intentions, but they will actually express these intentions spontaneously when they get the chance to. Some linguists (e.g., Thornbury, 2005b) call spoken language features which are associated with speaking in real time *performance effects*, others (e.g., Davies, 2005) call them *non-fluency features*. They include:

a. **Unfilled or filled pauses:** All speakers pause to draw breath. Natural-sounding pauses │are those that occur at the intersection of clauses, │or after a group of words that forms a meaningful unit. │ (The vertical lines in the last sentence mark where natural pauses might occur if the sentence were being spoken.) A speaker may disguise pauses by filling them. The most common pause fillers are *uh*, *um* (also spelt *er* and *erm*, respectively).

b. **Repetitions (often combined with hesitation):** That is, repetition of a word at the point where formulation has been temporarily paused. For example, *In in in about four months' time.*

c. **False starts and backtracking:** These are due to pressure of limited time for production. For example, *And there's a...a they're sort of doing... recycling them.*

d. **Mispronunciations and slips:** In the rush to speak, interference from neighboring words causes pronunciation slips. For example, *win a pin* for *with a pin* (where an anticipated consonant is articulated early).

e. **Spoken clause structure:** One clause is added to another in a linear and incremental way. Speakers do not normally have time to construct elaborate patterns of main and subordinate clauses. Much more common are chains of clauses linked by coordinating conjunctions (e.g., *and* or *but*) or by simple subordinating conjunctions (e.g., *cos* or *so*).
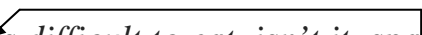
f. Heads and tails: These are words and phrases placed at the start or finish of utterances in ways that help the listener to orient to the topic or remember what has been said. They are defined in the QCA (2004) as follows:

"A **head** involves a noun or noun phrase placed strategically at the beginning of a clause which is then followed by a subsequent pronoun to ensure that the listener follows the reference" (p. 17), as in this example,

  That girl, Jill, her sister, she works in our office.

"A **tail** occurs at the end of clauses, normally echoing an antecedent pronoun. It helps to reinforce what is said, adding emphasis and ensuring that the listener does not lose reference to the original topic" (p. 17). For example, *It's difficult to eat, isn't it, spaghetti?*

g. Chunks: They are multi-word units that behave as if they were single words and are typically stored and retrieved in their entirety. They are known as *lexical phrases*, *holophrases*, or *prefabs*. Thornbury (2005b) gives some of the most common types of chunks:

- **collocations**: *set the table, rich and famous*

- **phrasal verbs***: run out of, get up*.

- **idioms**, **catchphrases**, and **sayings**: *make ends meet, as cool as a cucumber*.

- **sentence frames**, (i.e. the fixed components of sentences, especially at the beginning of sentences): *would you like a …? the thing is …, what really gets me is…*

- **social formulas**: *see you later, by the way, I take your point*.

   Of course, this segmentation into bite-sized chunks not only makes production easier, but it makes processing on the part of the listener easier too. This is a fact that is sometimes forgotten when material writers write texts for listening practice that are usually constructed out of sentence-length units. In a well-intentioned attempt to tidy-up spoken language, they may make it harder to process (Thornbury, 2005a).

2. Interactivity

Spoken language is normally a process of face-to-face communication. Speakers are alert to feedback and constantly adjust what they say in the light of an ongoing situation. As a collaborative and interactive process, spoken language exists primarily to be exchanged with partners in a conversation. They keep silent when someone is speaking, interrupt at times and signal their agreements or amusements by grunts, laughs and chuckles (Buck, 2001). Features of spoken language that are associated with this interactivity include:

a. **Asking and answering questions:** Speakers acknowledge their audience by asking them and answering their questions.

b. **Back-channelling:** Partners do it as a kind of feedback in order to register that they are following the speaker's drift. Sometimes this feedback involves specific words (e.g., *oh I see* and *that's interesting*), no more than vocalizations (e.g., *yeah*, *mmm*, *uh, huh* and *oh*), or even be non-verbal like a nod of the head (QCA, 2004).

c. **Turn-taking:** The degree of interaction is related to the extent that the listener must collaborate with the speaker to maintain a conversation. In a typical two-way conversation, they change roles, back and forth, and they collaborate to manage it. In such a conversation, decisions about who talks, and when are not random, but are determined by a very complex set of shared, turn-taking rules. These rules depend on the *relationship* between the partners, the *topics* expected to be discussed, and the *context*. With so many speakers trying to have a turn, it is not an easy matter, this is reflected in the number of interruptions, and overlapping turns (Dudley-Evans & St John 2000; Buck, 2001; Sayer, 2005).

d. **Discourse markers:** Speakers use these devices to signal their intentions and to show how what they are going to say, or have just said, is connected to what went before or what is coming up. In other words, discourse markers

are used to mark boundaries in conversation between one topic and the next (e.g., *anyway*, *right*, *okay*, *I see*, *I mean*, *well*, *right*, *what's more*, *so* and *now*). They often have pragmatic meanings which are different from their dictionary meanings. Thus, in actual dialogue, *right*, for example, does not mean 'correct', rather it indicates that speakers need to make a decision or that a decision has been accepted. An interlocutor uses *anyway* to finish a particular topic or return to another topic. Similarly, *so* can indicate that a speaker is summing up a topic (QCA, 2004).

e. **Intonation:** It serves to signpost the direction and interconnections of talk. It is marked with a step up in pitch to emphasize new information in a conversation. Sentences usually have a falling intonation pattern whereas questions have rising or falling intonation patterns according to the intent of the speaker for asking a question whether for asking about some information or for showing uncertainty (Thompson, 1995).

3.   Interpersonality

There are two main purposes for speaking. Speaking serves either a **transactional** function, in that its primary purpose is to convey information, get things done, or facilitate the exchanges of goods or services; or it serves an **interpersonal** function, in that its primary purpose is to establish and maintain social relations (Thornbury, 2005b; Donald, 2008). A typical transactional speech event might be phoning to book a table at a restaurant. A typical interpersonal speech event might be a casual conversation between friends that takes place at the restaurant.

Service encounters typically begin with a greeting followed by an offer, followed by a request. At the same time, a casual conversation is often punctuated by laughter, or at least chuckles. Even when speakers disagree, they do it in such a way as not to threaten the face of other speakers (Thornbury, 2005a). Hence, speakers use the following features:

a. Hedges: In order to blunt the force of disagreement, speakers use, for example, *yeah but*.

b. Vague language (lexical and grammatical): It is used to mark friendliness or to avoid sounding over-assertive or too elaborate. It is commonly used for number approximations (e.g., *lots of*, *round about*, *or so* and *or thereabouts*), for example, *"There were sixty or so people there."*

It can include individual, "general", lexical terms (e.g., *thing*, *stuff, sort of* and *whatever*) as well as high frequency verbs (e.g., *make*, *do*, *get* and *take*) and basic adjectives and adverbs (e.g., *nice*, *good*, *terrible*, *usually*, *totally* and *hopefully*). It is constantly referring to shared knowledge and appealing for agreement using markers (e.g., *you know*), question tags (e.g., *isn't it*? *don't you?*) and rising intonation.

c. Modal expressions: Like "vague language", modal expressions (e.g., *possibly*, *probably*, *I don't know*, *I don't think*, *I think*, *I suppose* and *perhaps*) help to soften what is said. For example, *"I don't know, I think it's probably a change coming away, I suppose."*

Modal expressions make it possible for the speakers to shift their stance towards a subject as they speak, becoming more or less tentative, depending on the listener's response (QCA, 2004). For example, *"I suppose it must be sort of difficult to phone or whatever."*

d. Adverbs: Adverbs and adverbial phrases are commonly used to qualify, or modify what is said. They may occur after question tags, or at the end of clauses in ways that would not be acceptable in written texts. For example, *"Spanish is more widely used, isn't it outside of Europe?"*

e. Evaluative language: Evaluative language and exaggeration are used as a means of flagging the speaker's attitude to what is being said, in order to minimize the chance of misunderstanding and also to bring talk into line with the views of the other speakers. For example,

A: *Oh, they' re <u>amazing</u>.*

B: <u>*Unbelievable*</u>*!*

The on-going evaluation of talk can also take the form of swearing and the use of expletives. For example,

C: *It is just quite extraordinary what is on that on that <u>bloody</u> Internet.*

D: *Absolutely extraordinary.*

When speakers fail to demonstrate "high involvement" in any of the previous ways of achieving interpersonality, they risk being considered "cold" or even "hostile" (Thornbury, 2005a).

4. Relevance

a. Coherence

Unlike written text, whose coherence is principally the responsibility of one person, the writer, coherence in speaking is a collaborative enterprise. Speakers co-operate to ensure that what they say is relevant to what has been said and to the overall purpose of the talk. Failure to co-operate in this joint work is likely to result in conversational breakdown, and the resultant lack of relevance is often a characteristic of the speech of mental patients (Thornbury, 2005a).

b. Cohesion

Even where the relevance is not explicit, speakers attempt to infer it using some features which Thornbury (2005a) gives some of them as follows:

1. ***Repetition:*** It serves at least two functions: it binds utterances together, and it also creates a sense that all participants are in harmony. Alongside direct repetition, various forms of indirect repetition also serve to maintain topic consistency. One of these is the use of **Lexical chains** such as using words relating to a theme, for example, of computers: *Internet*, *Apple*, *load up*.

2. ***Conjuncts:*** such as *so*, *and*, *but*, *or*, make connections within and across utterances.

3. ***Deixis*** (Temporal or spatial)**:** Deictic words refer to who is speaking and who is included or excluded from the message, orientating the listener in time and space (QCA, 2004). For example, "*Could <u>we</u> <u>now</u> move <u>that</u> into <u>this</u> corner <u>here</u>?*"

4. ***Ellipsis:*** It enables efficient, clear communication. Speakers are highly sensitive to their listeners and skilled in deciding just how much it is necessary to include in the message for the listener. Although ellipsis is often defined as the absence of elements normally required by written grammar (e.g., a subject before a finite verb), in reality nothing is "missing"; they contain enough for the purposes of communication (McCarthy & Carter 1995; QCA, 2004). For example, *"Sounds good to me."*

5. ***Macrostructure:*** It is a way that talk is imbued with sense and it conforms to certain fairly-predictable, organizational sequences which extend over several turns (McCarthy & Carter 1995; Thornbury, 2005a; Clark, 2007). It includes several types such as:

a. *Adjacency pairs*: two-way exchanges, such as greetings or saying "thank-you". For example,

   A: *Hi!*
   B: *Hi there.*

b. *IRF* (initiate-respond-follow up) *exchanges*: Three-part exchanges are characteristic of a lot of classroom talk, as in this example,

   Teacher (*initiates*): *What is the capital of Peru?*
   Student (*responds*): *Lima.*
   Teacher (*follows up*): *Good.*

c. *Opening and closing:* As with service encounters, conversation between friends also has its opening and closing.

d. *Story sequence:* Apart from opening and closing, a casual conversation has regular occurrence of a story sequence being defined

very generally as to include:

- *a temporal location*
- *specification of participants*
- *a sequence of events*
- *evaluation*

e. *Speech-in-action:* This is talk that focuses on the immediate environment of the speakers, including whatever the speakers themselves are doing.

Casual conversation consists largely of alternating sequences of story-plus-commentary and speech-in-action, all framed by opening and closing. This kind of organization provides a safe and predictable framework within which speakers can appear to be spontaneous and creative.

Thus, *spontaneity*, *interactivity*, *interpersonality*, and *relevance* compose some characteristics of spoken language. For developing their oracy, Tourism and Hospitality students were to reflect on some of the features associated these characteristics when they were exposed to spoken texts.

Assessment of Oracy

To assess oracy, there are two opposing schemata. The first one views oracy as a rule-governed, linguistic activity that reflects what **Chomsky (1965)** calls *competence*, which is unobservable but "psychological real." Therefore, oracy is best assessed at the de-contextualized level of the intrapersonal utterance. However, **Hymes (1971)** distinguishes between on the one hand, *communicative competence* – knowledge necessary to use language in a social context – and, on the other, actual *performance* of language in real time – instances of the realization of this potential ability. Accordingly, the second schema looks at oracy as a set of descriptive, and thus observable, habits conditioned by the context. Thus, oracy can be assessed at the contextualized level of appropriate conveyance of interpersonal messages (Kimball, 1998; Lin, 2004).

Yet, in determining the communicative competence, topical knowledge as well as cognitive and affective factors should be considered (Acar, 2005; Karminia & Izaparast, 2009). Based upon different models (Hymes, 1972; Chomsky, 1980; Canale & Swain, 1980; Canale, 1983; Bachman, 1988; Bachman, 1990; Bachman & Palmer, 1996), the researcher proposed a model (Zayed, 2003), Table (6), which classifies the components of the communicative competence underlying oral performance in actual language use. However, the present study concentrates upon the component of *language knowledge* only.

Table (5)

Components of Communicative Competence Underlying Oral Performance

Communicative Competence		Oral Performance
Language Knowledge (Organizational Competence and Pragmatic Competence)+ Topical Knowledge	Affective Schemata + Strategic Competence	

In the present study, **language knowledge** consists of the following domains:

1. *Organizational Competence*: includes knowledge involved in creating or recognizing grammatically correct utterances (i.e., phonology, vocabulary, and grammar).

2. *Pragmatic Competence*: includes knowledge of the pragmatic conventions for performing felicitous language functions (i.e., speech acts) and knowledge of sociolinguistic rules of appropriateness (i.e., register).

Therefore, being skillful orally necessitates having some kind of a knowledge base. The activities used in the study were awareness-raising ones. So, oracy has two aspects (i.e., *language awareness* and *oral performance*) and has to be tested on these two levels. Thornbury (2005b) lists some kinds of knowledge that proficient speakers draw on in oral performance. He ranges them along a cline from "the big picture" (i.e., sociolinguistic knowledge and genre knowledge) to "the fine print" (i.e., phonological knowledge). Actually,

the boundaries between the categories are blurred, and they work interdependently. Nevertheless, for convenience, these different levels of language knowledge (spoken language features) will be discussed in turn and specified in light of the aim of the present dissertation to be reflected on by Tourism and Hospitality students.

1. *Sociocultural knowledge*

The value of explicit teaching of sociocultural knowledge (i.e., the culturally embedded rules of social behaviour) is debatable. For Tourism and Hospitality students, such rules may be *irrelevant* since they are learning English as an International Language (EIL) rather than the English that is used in a certain country. What is more important might be the ability to manage cross-cultural encounters irrespective of the culture of the speakers.

2. *Genre knowledge*

It includes knowing how different speech events are structured, and this will be particularly relevant to students whose specific purposes for learning English include mastering spoken genres of a more formal type, such as giving a presentation or an academic lecture. In the case of the present dissertation, day-to-day communication, such as service encounters or casual conversation, the genres are likely to be either easily transferable from the students' L1 or so loosely defined to be difficult to teach in any formal sense. For example, teaching them that a guest greets a receptionist on entering a hotel and then waits to be asked what s/he wants, may be somewhat "condescending". What they need are specific ways of realizing macrostructures in a particular situation. In simpler terms, they need *speech-act* knowledge.

3. *Speech acts*

Students need to know the ways specific acts are typically encoded. For example, *"you'd better…"* is a way of offering advice. On the other hand, *"I advice you to…"* is perfectly possible from a grammatical point of view, never

or rarely occur. This suggests that students cannot necessarily intuit the way that speech acts are customarily realized, or the way they are realized in spoken, as opposed to written English.

4. *Register*

Students need to know how to adapt speech-act formulas for different situations, according to such context variables as the *status* of the person they are talking to. Exposure to different registers of speech, plus directed attention to the way in which spoken language is made more or less formal, can be sufficient to sensitize students to this area.

5. *Discourse*

Discourse knowledge assumes an understanding of how speaking turns are managed. For example, knowing that talk is collaboratively constructed through the taking and yielding of turns. However, since this is a universal feature of spoken interaction, it is not something students need to be taught. They simply need to know how these turn-management moves are realized through the use, primarily, of *discourse markers*.

6. *Grammar*

Since spontaneous speech is produced in clause-length units, a sentence grammar will be of limited usefulness for speaking. Depending on the analysis of spoken language features in the previous section, the following features of spoken grammar can be determined:

- Clause is the basic unit of construction
- Clauses are usually added (co-ordinated)
- Head + body + tail construction
- Ellipsis
- Many question tags
- Performance effects, including:
  - Hesitations
  - Repeats
  - False starts
  - Incompletion

7. *Vocabulary*

Corpora of transcribed speech have demonstrated that the fifty most frequent words in spoken English make up nearly 50% of all talk. As an example, the word *well* occurs about nine times more often in speech than in writing. Add to this, the use of *evaluative language*, *adverbs* and *adverbial phrases*, *chunks*, and *deictic expressions* which are easily retrieved to help the speaker respond to the demands of the immediate, real-time interaction. According to some estimates, a vocabulary of just 2500 content words covers nearly 95% of spoken texts. Even the top 200 function words provide the student with a lot of their conversational needs; they include:

- *Wh*-question words *(e.g., where, why, when, how, etc.)*
- Auxiliary verbs *(e.g., will, can, might, etc.)*
- Pronouns *(e.g., I, they, me, etc.)*
- Prepositions *(e.g., in, on, from, etc.)*
- Discourse markers *(e.g., now, anyway, etc.)*
- Backchannelling devices *(e.g., really, no, how awful! etc.)*
- Conjuncts *(e.g., and, so, but, etc.)*
- Hedges *(e.g., rather, sort of, etc.)*
- All-purpose words (*e.g., thing, time, make, do, etc.*)

Actually, Tourism and Hospitality students have previous knowledge of these function words and a minimum base of content words; even if they find a new word or more, they can consult their dictionaries. Therefore, explicit teaching of vocabulary is of little use for the aim of the present study. Spoken vocabulary tends to be far more colloquial and much less formal. There are many words and expressions that are only used in speech, never used in writing. Rather, students need to be aware of using *backchannelling devices*, *hedges*, and *deictic expressions*.

8. Phonology

In normal-speed speech, some sounds are modified by adjacent sounds; some are dropped, others are combined in complex ways. In other cases, many words are quite indistinct, and it is the surrounding context that enables the listener to identify them with little trouble, for example, the difference between "*I wish she would*" and "*I wish you would*." Therefore, explicit teaching of these minimal differences is difficult as they differ according to the context.

Besides, a word *stress pattern* is as much a part of the word as its actual phonemes. Yet, speakers stress words that express the core meaning. Similarly, the *intonation pattern* of an utterance is related to its structure. For example, an intonation indicates clausal boundaries, marks questions, and when it is appropriate for the listener to respond (Buck, 2001). So, the present study is not going to teach pronunciation of words (phonemes and stress pattern) which is affected by the context, but rather the *intonation patterns* rising or falling at the end of utterances as affected by structure.

To sum up, the following spoken language features which Tourism and Hospitality students were to reflect on:

A. Phonology:
1. Sentence intonation pattern
2. Question intonation patterns

B. Vocabulary:
1. Backchannelling devices
2. Hedges
3. Deictic expressions
4. Discourse markers

C. Grammar:
1. Clauses are usually added (coordinated)
2. Head + body + tail construction
3. Ellipsis
4. Question tags
5. Performance effects, including:
   a. Hesitations
   b. Repeats

      c. False starts

      d. Incompletion

D. Pragmatics:

    1. Speech acts

    2. Register

These features formed the basis for Tourism and Hospitality students' oral performance development in subsequent tasks. To identify the criteria of oral performance, it was useful to refer to the definition of the MSN Encarta Dictionary (2007) of oracy as "oral communication and comprehension: the ability to convey thoughts and ideas orally in a way that others understand and to understand what others say." That is to say, for assessing Tourism and Hospitality students' oral performance (i.e., actual manifestation of language use in real time), it was aimed to measure their ability to:

1. convey thoughts and ideas orally in an understandable way, and

2. understand what others say.

For so doing, the following criteria were identified:

1. Active listening: It is developing a clear understanding of the speaker's concern and clearly communicating the listener's interest in the speaker's message (Ward et al., 2007). At the same time, a listener's responses can provide a wide range of meanings from relative indifference or doubt, through simple affirmation to enthusiastic interest and agreement

A listener is expected to provide regular and appropriate feedback to signal his/her active involvement in communication. This feedback includes some interactional devices: *non-verbal signals* – have been excluded from the present analysis – (e.g., head nods, facial expression and direction of gaze), and *verbal feedback* in many forms, ranging from brief vocalizations such as laughter, minimal responses such as *mhmm* and *yeah* and other brief expressions of overt support or agreement (Stubbe, 1998; Stein, 2000; Rautalinko & Lisper, 2004; McNaughton, et al., 2007; Ward et al., 2007).

2. ***Turn-taking:*** For Finset (2008), a turn denotes "the continuous block of uninterrupted speech when the speaker holds the floor" (p. 1). A turn can vary in length from a single word to a complete story. Its rule is that no one monopolizes the floor but the participants take turns to speak (Wei-dong, 2007). Transitions from one turn to the next occur both in a "soft" way, through pauses and synchronization between speakers, and also in a "non-soft" way, through overlaps and mutual interruptions, when speakers talk simultaneously changing the interactive rhythm (Maroni et al., 2008).

3. ***Questioning:*** "Questioning is an active process whereby individuals can reach sound decisions by critically challenging what they hear, see, read, and experience" (Profetto-McGrath, 2004: p. 36). Questions can be of *yes/no-* or *wh-*type with different intonation pattern.

4. ***Responding:*** While a question suggests that the next turn will be an answer, a greeting suggests that the next turn will be a greeting. Many things people say could have several meanings; the next turn shows what the other people take it to mean, for now. Therefore, if someone insults somebody, and he responds "Thank you," he is taking the insult as a compliment (Wei-dong, 2007).

5. ***Overall performance quality:*** Jones and Evans (1995) define *voice quality* as "the overall pattern of suprasegmental features which results in the general auditory impression of the speaker's voice" (p. 245). The interaction of these features (e.g., pitch, rhythm, stress, speed, loudness, vocal setting, and the realization of particular phonemes) rather than occurring in isolation is what really gives performance its communicative force. Grainger (1999) refers to the same idea and mentions other features which he calls *surface features* (i.e., clarity, volume, and quantity). The present dissertation combined these two concepts in *overall performance quality* of the speaker's message as expressed in her/his expressiveness, clarity, audibility, and quantity of the taken turns.

In sum, the previous section reviewed some issues concerning assessing the two aspects of oracy (i.e., language awareness and oral performance). The following section presents some other practical issues when students reflect on how others (non/native) use the language in actual oral performance.

2. Reflection: A Time to be Silent and a Time to Speak

Facilitating thoughtful, reflective learning is not especially difficult, but it does take time, and goes beyond the traditional classroom values. Students need to have time to set aside specifically for reflection on their language performance to see their growth. Students may not likely prefer *reflection* since it takes a great deal of brainpower but, as with anything that takes effort, the rewards are great (Reid & Golub, 1999; Putnam, 2000). Sprenger (2005, p. 43) gives the impact of having time for reflection as follows:

a. Responses change in length form a single word to whole statements.

b. Self-confidence increases.

c. Speculative thinking increases.

d. Students "piggyback" on each other's ideas. Responses by "slow" students increase.

e. The interaction becomes a student-student discussion, moderated by the teacher, instead of a teacher-student inquisition.

f. Students ask more questions.

g. Students propose more investigations.

h. Student achievement improves.

Students focus their attention on enhancing awareness by sharpening and enriching those moments when they get a taste of freedom to participate in creative moments, to be sensitive to the situation, and to respond appropriately (Mason, 2002). These moments of personal freedom, of meaning, of worth-whileness, and of self-esteem keep them going.

A teacher helps students exploit their metalinguistic potential to build new knowledge of EFL. Students should naturally be involved in talking about the language: discuss it analytically, share their beliefs, make suggestions to the teacher, and express their conclusions (Valentin, 1996). They can keep some reflective tools (e.g., questionnaires, journals, learning contracts, etc.) to help both themselves undertake a reflective stance towards their own language learning (process and content) and the instructor gain an insight into their own progress and any difficulty they may have. For Boud and Knights (1994), the use of these tools can be conceptualized as having the purpose of "turning experience into learning." While each of these tools has a particular focus, they share a feature that students are encouraged to return to their own experiences in class and outside it and concentrate on what these events mean to them. The present study used the following reflective tools.

a. Spoken Journals

Journal-keeping is a systematic, reflective tool of self-expression and documentation of learning. Spoken journals can foster reflection, in a way that makes it easier for students to articulate their developing understanding. Some questions can help students do their spoken journal entries after they have left the classroom. As a mental activity students engage in to try to make sense of an experience (Russo, 2004), students can practice reflection process inside the classroom and outside it. Seibert (1999) proposes two modes of reflection: **active reflection** and **proactive reflection**. They correspond to the previously-mentioned Schön's notions of **reflection-in-action** and **reflection-on-action** respectively (refer to pp. 41-43).

Active reflection is of the moment, referring to thinking about what one is experiencing as it occurs. It involves looking to her/his experiences, connecting them with feelings, and attending to theories in use. It entails building new understandings to inform actions in the situation that is unfolding with the

added opportunity to receive assistance from others (Smith, 2005).

If active reflection occurs spontaneously, proactive reflection involves thinking about an experience that is deliberate and temporally and spatially removed from the experience. The latter enables students to spend time exploring why they acted as they did, what was happening in a group and so on. In so doing, they develop sets of questions and ideas about their activities and practice (Seibert, 1999; Carroll et al., 2002; Smith, 2005). Hospitality and Tourism students practiced proactive reflection while doing their spoken journals at home.   To help their did their journals, detailed lists of reflective questions were referred to as suggested by Ellis (1998), Seibert (1999), and Fairholme (2000). Consequently, some questions were devised for designing the questions for the spoken journal entries.

b. Student Questionaire

Reflection is a conscious act of the student. The intent of the student is crucial as s/he must be willing to sustain and protract that state of thinking on his learning. Setting assignments which will encourage reflection is not sufficient; the students' intent is essential as most activities can be turned into ones in which the semblance of reflection can be portrayed. According to many students, this kind of intellectual search is disagreeable; they want to get it ended as soon as possible. A questionnaire helped the researcher know Hospitality and Tourism students' preferences and commitment to the whole process of reflection.

Methods of Reflection

Seibert (1999) classifies three methods of reflection according to three theoretical perspectives:

a. Individual

Jean Piaget supports the development of a reflective process centered on the individual. He believes that learning is a cyclical interaction between the individual and the environment that requires integration between concepts and experience.

It is the teachers' responsibility to instill in their students both a capacity and a disposition to reflect on their experiences. They help them master the basics and gradually build up autonomous learning skills on their own (Dadds, 1990; Gopinathan, 1999; Kwan, 1999). Without reflection, students cannot assess their past learning or plans for future action. To reflect individually, students have different strategies, experiences, and levels of awareness about their learning. This type of "talking to oneself" can be an important component of learning and of seeking balance, direction and meaning in life (Seibert, 1999; Cotterall, 2000).

b. Peer-based

Kurt Lewin supports the development of a reflective process involving peer group discussion. Underlying all his work is a belief in a spirit of inquiry, expanded consciousness, and choice; and authenticity in relationships.

Through mutual sharing, a small group can achieve a vision richer than any individual could achieve alone. There is less chance of error in learning than in individual reflection (Seibert, 1999). There are, after all, many objections to students talking to students in the language class. One commonly held belief is that student-student interaction can only lead to the exchange and eventual "fossilization" of errors. Therefore, real learning is only possible from student-teacher interaction, and that peer group work is at best a social exercise, a feature of coursework that requires group activities regardless of other considerations (Courtney, 1996).

c. Tutor-guided

John Dewey believes that reflection could occur in discussions with others who are not in position of authority and that uses the advice, guidance, and interpretation of someone with more expertise or experience.

In tutor-guided reflection, teachers dispossess a great deal of the authority they used to have in traditional education. They give students more tailor-made advice, while they have their own choices for learning. This makes them feel more confident in learning English. It suggests the importance of teachers' being sensitive to the varied abilities of students and of the need to provide work at appropriate levels of difficulty. Nicholson (1998) states:

> ...effective learning takes place when *students* are assisted by the 'give and take' of conversation, where they develop an active mind through dialogue with others. In generating and testing their hypotheses, sharing descriptions of their work, and negotiating with others ... *students* and their teachers create a classroom culture in which collaborative practices foster independent thought. [*students* is substituted for *children* in the original] (p. 29)

Through a one-on-one, coaching-type relationship, the tutor and the students work together to surface insights from student's experience. Seibert (1999) confirms:

> ... a relationship with a person who will listen to a learner verbalize what she is experiencing in a particular situation. The role of the listener is to place all her awareness and attention at the disposal of the learner and to listen with interest and appreciation without interrupting. … talking through one's ideas with thoughtful attention of another person is a powerful way of clarifying confusion, identifying appropriate question, and reaching significant insights. (p. 25)

In reflection, both the teacher and the student are aware: teacher is aware of the needs of her/his students in different contexts and students are aware of being reflecting on authentic, spoken texts and their own speech for gaining insight and forming generalizations of how to use language in real life situations.

After covering these practical issues, the following section presents the experience of some researchers who manipulated reflection and oracy in actual experimental studies.

Related Studies

This section aims at presenting an overview of some related studies that were directed towards reflection and oracy. In correspondence with the review of literature, these studies will be grouped under three main headings:

A. Oracy

B. Reflection

C. Reflection for developing oracy

Actually, the first and the second points will be tackled giving a hint of the direction followed in researching them. Being the point of the present study, the third point will be elaborated showing how previous studies inspired the experiment.

A. Oracy

From its very inception, research into oracy has focused on its effectiveness in developing learning, literacy, and thinking.

1. Learning

In Britain, the national aspiration to raise standards for all, in all subjects, needs a set of keys to unlock the potential in all pupils to achieve; oracy – the effective teaching and use of talk in all subjects – is one of these keys. Oracy is acknowledged as a medium for learning and personal and moral development. The crucial claim is that talking in particular ways helps students learn more effectively across the curriculum; many students can extend their understanding of math, science, social studies, and so forth when these classes involve oral communication. Students who are not comfortable with their oracy are at a disadvantage. They tend to feel depressed and frustrated (Reynolds, 1996; Kimball, 1998; Guerin, 2003; Howe, 2003; Cameron, 2004; Saracho & Spodek, 2007).

Previous studies (e.g., **Dockrell et al., 2004**; **Jones, 2007**; **Darby, 2008**; **Sterenberg, 2008**) have come up with that when students talk to each other, the

knowledge gained and shared forms a firm foundation for future individual learning. Talking in group activities also provides students with the opportunity to think aloud and to establish their ownership of newly acquired knowledge. Therefore, by planning for talk, a teacher is automatically planning for the sharing of individual knowledge, and for the redrafting and evaluation of students' ideas.

For example, **Dockrell et al. (2004)** devised a project called "Talking Time" which aimed to address some of the inequities in children's early language skills. Talking Time supports the goals of providing opportunities for children to communicate their thoughts, ideas, and feelings when telling stories and experiences. Many of the children in the nurseries, who had English as a second language, were neither speaking nor understanding at the expected level for their age. The project was built around three activities designed to increase:

1. children's vocabulary, through the use of specially chosen drama activities;

2. predictive use of language, through the use of open ended questioning; and

3. narrative skill, through the use of sets of pictures from familiar tasks and activities.

Children worked twice a week in groups of five or six for a period of six months. The groups comprised children with varying levels of oral language competence. The results of the study were promising in that children in the Talking Time intervention made significantly more progress than children in the alternative intervention in terms of both their receptive and expressive vocabulary. Talking Time also influenced syntactic development, with significantly more progress in the Talking Time children's ability to repeat increasingly complex sentences, and to produce longer sentences. Thus, there was evidence that the building blocks of narrative skill were beginning to be put in place.

However, recent evidence from sources such as QCA Curriculum Reviews and the Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted) Reports shows that

although pupils may have plenty of opportunities to talk, teachers are often unsure about how to organize and manage it; a further concern is over what to teach. Whereas reading and writing are well-established features of literacy education, teaching speaking and listening is still, for many, "uncharted territory" (Howe, 2003).

2. Literacy

Oracy is a fundamental part of literacy education. Smith (2003) considers it a "precursor" to literacy. Students need to talk in an effective way to think, use the language, and practice their knowledge of how language works. Where there is effective discussion in English, it can lead to significant gains in students' ability to understand, recall, and respond to, for example, aesthetic elements in literature. The centrality of oracy to literacy underpins many studies directed towards developing literacy (e.g., **Butler, 1999**; **August, 2003**; **Dawson & Schunlle, 2003**; **Howe, 2003**; **Ramos-Sanchez, 2004**; **Thompson et al., 2004**; **Evans, 2006**; **Macleod et al., 2007**).

In his case study**, Flynn (2007)** selected three recognized, effective teachers who all worked in successful schools where results for literacy were measured by national (British) tests. That was for observing how at that time some schools were making very good progress with the NLS while teaching large numbers of English as an Additional Language (EAL) students.

Semi-structured observation forms were designed and a pilot lesson observation was carried out with each teacher in the autumn term of 2002 in the Literacy Hour. The lessons were observed during nine literacy lessons, three per teacher, in the spring term of 2003. The focus was on the teachers and their planning and delivery. Interviews were carried out again in January 2005. Results identified the crucial role of those teachers' use of oracy for developing literacy, meaningful contexts for learning and overt teaching of the conventions of spoken and written English for EAL pupils.

However, previous studies (e.g., **Dockrell et al., 2004**) confirm that devising a supportive framework for oral language is not easy. Careful preparation is needed to ensure that all students receive these experiences on a regular basis in naturally occurring interactions. Moreover, it is not sufficient simply to provide "good models"; the language from the teacher needs to be carefully tuned to the student's language. It needs to be offered in such a way as to extend and support, and students need plenty of opportunities to practice their skills.

3. Thinking

Scholars have made evident their deep concern to explore the relationships between thought and language – oracy in particular: Thinking requires ideas, which come from language. **Locke**'s contemporary importance lies in his clear assertion that knowledge about the world is purely verbal. **Piaget**'s pedagogy has often taken the point on the provision of an environment rich in experience. **Vygotsky**'s criticism of Piagetian, cognitive modelling turned on a neglect of the social, cultural contexts within which learning occurred and the role of dialogical engagement in the construction of meaning (Evans & Jones, 2007).

In a partnership between the London Borough of Hammersmith and Fulham and King's College, London, **Robertson (2000)** used a programme, Cognitive Acceleration through Science Education at Key Stage 1 (CASE@KS1), to raise Year 1 pupils' general thinking patterns. It aimed to accelerate the transition between two types of thought processes. The first type of thought, pre-operational, is best described as working like a *photocopier*: Children take in an idea and then reproduce it. The other type, described as *concrete*, involves manipulating at least two ideas in order to produce a third, new idea, which is what the sessions encourage the children to do. Pupils worked with a teacher in groups of six and each activity took about 30 minutes. The sessions were completely oral. For example, one activity used sticks of

various lengths. The pupils moved from using the word "stick" to "long" and "short" and gradually "this stick is longer than that one but shorter than this one."

Throughout the activity, the teacher frequently tried to move the pupils to a level once removed from the activity, in other words, to think about their thinking (metacognition). In doing this, pupils developed the notion that reflecting on their learning could assist learning further. Another important aspect of a CASE@KS1 session is the idea of bridging, that is, taking what has been learned to other aspects of the curriculum. This study stressed the value of developing thinking through oracy. It stimulated *dialogic learning* and emphasized metacognitive approaches to oracy. Among them, reflection does come.

B. Reflection

There is a considerable number of related studies which aimed at training teachers to reflect (reflective teaching) to be aware of their own perspectives and their effects on students (e.g., **Borg, 1998**; **Knecht, 1997**; **AlSheikh, 2000**; **Saey, 2005**). Another growing body of studies comes from vocational education; in law, nursing, and medicine, for helping practitioners be aware of their professional practices (e.g., **Fairholme et al., 2000**; **Farrell, 2001**; **Carroll et al., 2002**; **Rautalinko & Lisper, 2004**). Some studies on reflection impact can be shown in the following domains:

1. Reflective Teaching

Reflective teaching refers generally to teachers learning to subject their own beliefs of teaching and learning to reflection, and taking more responsibility for their actions. Chen (1999) represents in twenty chapters of his book, <u>Reflective Spin: Case Studies of Teachers in Higher Education Transforming Action</u>, the experiences of some teachers of professionals trying to develop opportunities for reflection. Thoughtful teachers gather information, experiment, converse,

create, and apply what they learn from their reflective processes. **Chandler (2000),** for example, learned these processes with a group of five educators over a span of twenty-one weeks. He wrote about this learning from the perspective of a participant, facilitator, and a researcher in a reflective practice. Results indicated that reflective conversation is the best form of educational renewal for teachers.

In a three-case study by **Knecht (1997),** interviews, participant observation, and document analysis were used to collect data throughout the nine months of the 1996-1997 school year in an elementary metropolitan school in the USA. The study participants were part of a non-traditional pre-service teacher education programme which emphasized collaboration and active reflection. They reflected throughout the school year on how to help their students learn with understanding by using a variety of teaching methods. Study findings suggested that university supervisors and cooperating teachers could act as coaches for reflective, inquiring teaching practice. A framework for reflection would be helpful in these endeavors.

Twenty-four student teachers, who were training in primary and secondary schools, took part in a study conducted by **Monk (2005)**. The study tried to develop the trainees' ability to communicate reasons for behavior and feelings with students and to exhibit empathic listening skills. The research needed to avoid being perceived as creating additional work for teachers, whilst effectively improving the quality of observations and joint-reflections and then to investigate whether the trainee's own teaching improved by learning and practising these skills. Results stress that the sincerity of the listener (a teacher) affected the response of the children. At the same time, teachers' self-awareness of their strengths and weaknesses alongside awareness of how others perceive and respond to behavior resulted in reflection and adjustment to management of style.

Constantinou (2009) explored how six Arab EFL teachers constructed meanings of reflection, and how these meanings informed their teaching practice. Teacher interviews, reflective journals and classroom observations illuminated how the teachers interpreted and practiced reflection through: (1) defining reflection, (2) questioning as reflection, (3) opportunities for reflection, (4) looking back on action, (5) reflection is based on personal beliefs and educational theory, (6) encountering peers/cooperating teachers, (7) self-reflections, (8) verbal reflections, (9) written reflections, and (10) content of reflection. The findings revealed that teachers possessed a general understanding of reflection and practiced technical and interpretive levels of reflection in different contexts.

That is, engaging in reflective practice encourages teachers to question their own beliefs and theories. Reflection is a key element in teacher development. It is a vehicle which can help teachers progress from a level where they are mainly guided by intuition to a level where their actions are guided by reflection and self-inquiry.

2. Language Instruction

For developing language skills, there are some studies which used reflection for developing literacy (e.g., **Mayo, 2000**). However, the majority of previous studies treated each language skill as discrete from the others. For example:

Granville (1997) describes two action research cycles, each consisting of a 6-week teaching intervention. The first took place in September/October 1993, 6 months before South Africa's first democratic election and the second in May/June 1994, only weeks afterwards, a period of intense social and political change. The study aimed to investigate the possibility of changing student teachers' ideas and practices in the teaching of *literacy*. This attempt created conflict and unease among students in the classroom and revealed how "collisions" between established literacy practices and newer approaches make

transformation difficult to effect. Later, the use of reflection enabled the researcher to bring about better "connections" between students themselves and their engagement with the theoretical and practical features of the course material. Reflection helped teachers change their practice for the best: methods of teaching paralleling political changes.

Granville and Dison (2005) conducted a study on 250 first-year, ESL student teachers doing a foundation course in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) at the Humanities Faculty, Witwatersrand University, Johannesburg. The course consisted of two, 6-month modules in one year. Students were divided into eight classes of about 30 students. Written journals were a reflective instrument for helping them think about the effectiveness of the reflection process.

Students were able to get a glimpse into their learning experience in that particular learning context. The research suggested that reflexivity is a developable capacity – the ability to self-reflect is not separate from the process of coming to know and understand. Besides, written journals could be used extensively as a reflective tool to extend classroom learning, develop writing skills, and promote reflective thinking skills. Previous studies confirmed this value (e.g., **Gray, 1998**; **Woodfield & Lazarus, 1999**; **Putnam, 2000**; **Al-Hazmi, 2006**).

Simply put, EFL teachers should provide their students with some opportunities for reflection, sharing, and communication which might help them acquire new language skills. Promoting thinking about one's own process of language learning is appropriate, accountable and effective in the EFL context.

C. Reflection for Developing Oracy

Reviewing research carried out for developing different aspects of oracy, it has been benefited in the following domains:

1. Explicit Teaching of Spoken Language Features

With the emphasis that communicative language teaching (CLT) places on oral production, course designers and teachers employ a repertoire of activities to help students develop their ability to produce coherent, fluent sentences. There is a recent emphasis that reflection helps students gain an awareness of language as a rule-governed system. This may retreat the CLT neglect of form at the expense of meaning. The following studies reflect this trend:

Washburn and Christianson (1996) developed some activities which promoted negotiated interaction between students. This technique encouraged them to use strategies for avoiding and repairing breakdowns and required them to take initiative and accept responsibility for their success. It involved the taping of conversations held by pairs of learners at the language laboratory.

Over the course of a semester (14 weeks), a researcher introduced various conversation strategies (e.g., checking comprehension, requesting clarification, repeating utterances, stressing key words, and switching topics) to assist students in holding their weekly conversations. They were required to tape these conversations and to complete them within a time frame (3 to 15 minutes, at the discretion of the teacher). Students were evaluated according to the appropriate use of a strategy from the time it has been presented, losing points for leaving them out when they are needed. As they listened to imperfect performances (corrected transcripts of these conversations can be handed out), it became clear that the teacher valued the process which the speakers were engaged in: the questions, the repetitions, the fillers, and other behavior which the speakers used to communicate successfully.

Requiring students to make tapes gave them an opportunity to experience themselves as successful English speakers. Furthermore, by using their own production as examples of successful English conversation strategies, students were encouraged to learn from each other.

Sayer (2005) presented a teacher-initiated action research project carried out in a public university in Mexico. The participants were a class of 23 students (17 females and 6 males) between the ages of 21-24. All were L1 Spanish speakers in the BA TESOL programme. Excerpts from transcripts of students' conversations were included to illustrate how activities of explicit teaching of conversation strategies (e.g., turn-taking, monitoring, and negotiating meaning) could be effective in improving student performance on conversation tasks. Students were involved in thinking about and analyzing their own language use, and since their own conversations become the materials with which they were working, the course content was relevant and meaningful.

Explicit reflection on language features should form a part of the school curriculum. Not that it should completely dominate EFL teaching, but that its potential as one force in study should be fully exploited. Such an idea looked like a suggestion to return to the old "grammar grind", but this is not true as the following was concluded:

- Students need a healthy mix of awareness to form and to meaning.
- Reflection can potentially raise students' interest in learning EFL.

Besides, these two previous studies show that taping students' speech help them analyze their oral use of the language. This analysis helps them know their strengths and weaknesses. Consequently, as a part of the oracy test, the present study taped students' oral performance of a role-play situation. They were trained in taping and analyzing their speech while doing their spoken journals.

2. Spoken Journals

Learning sciences have discovered that when students externalize and articulate their developing knowledge, they learn more effectively. It is not the case that students first learn something, and then express it. Instead, the best learning takes place when students articulate their unformed and still developing

understanding and continue to articulate throughout the process of learning (Sawyer, 2002). The researcher referred to the following previous studies:

Goh (1997) conducted his study on some ESL students from the People's Republic of China. They were enrolled in an intensive-English-six-month programme at the National Institute of Education, Singapore. To help them keep a journal, he printed some short questions to reflect on specific occasions when they listened to English and to report what they did in order to understand better. Each week, students gave him one entry. They did so for ten weeks. Forty of those spoken journals were analyzed. The students' beliefs and observations were classified under: *personal knowledge*, *task knowledge*, and *strategic knowledge*.

This study showed that every student processes some metalanguage about listening in another language. Sharing these valuable resources helps everyone benefit, and may help the whole make faster progress. In addition, recording what one knows and how s/he came to know it could be valuable in EFL learning.

In Oregon State University, USA, **Dantas-Whitney (2002)** carried out his study as a part of a university content-based ESL course to encourage his students to build connections between the themes explored in class and their personal experiences, values and beliefs. Data for this study came from 54 spoken journal entries made by 18 students. Analysis by the teacher/researcher identified recurring themes through a constant-comparison method.

This study suggested that through spoken journals, students were able to investigate course content in ways that were particularly relevant to their lives. They used reflective thinking skills to analyze topics explored in class. Finally, students perceived keeping journals as a valuable opportunity for oral language practice and self-assessment. As students became responsible for linking course content to their personal experiences, they made conscious choices about areas

of the curriculum they wished to explore further and the strategies they would use to monitor and evaluate their learning. Being involved in learning, students reported that their attitudes towards developing oral language have highly increased.

However, this study recommended the use of a scoring method for students' spoken journals that can provide common grounds for self-evaluation, reflection and peer review. The use of the scoring method aims at accurate and fair assessment, fostering understanding and indicating the way to proceed with subsequent teaching/learning.

Therefore, the present study used a **scoring rubric** as a tool for subjective assessments. A rubric is a set of criteria and standards linked to learning objectives that was used to assess students' oral performance of the role-play situation in the oracy test, and their SJ assignments. Consequently, students' use of a spoken journal was an incentive to keep pushing ahead: They could track the progress they have made. They also began to notice the gaps in their knowledge and skills.

Methods of Reflection

Reflection helps students make meaning out of content applied in a specific practice situation and better understand the complexity of how one acts and might act in a future situation. The following previous studies highlight Seibert's classification (1999) of reflection methods into *individual*, *peer*, and *tutor-guided*.

Clennell (1999) drew on recorded data from a completed classroom research project, carried out by an EAP class in South Australia. Students were asked to describe a process which allowed them as non-native to experience authentic oral interaction with native speaking peers and teacher as well as providing opportunities for them to reflect on the linguistic and socio-pragmatic features of spoken discourse as they arose.

This study draws attention to four salient pedagogic conditions. Firstly, students can own their oral texts, have a personal affective involvement in the subsequent analysis and related learning outcomes. Secondly, this textual ownership focuses attention on specific aspects of the text at different levels of linguistic complexity. Thirdly, there is the role of collaboration, both in the creation of the text itself, and in the subsequent reevaluation of peers and teacher of the final product. Finally, *individual* students take responsibility for investigating their communication difficulties, and share this responsibility with their teacher and their peers.

In an action research study, **Kauffman (1999)** explored shared humanity through *guided reflection* and discussion processes within a spiritual development programme, held at a Roman Catholic Parish of Chicago, Illinois, for cross-faith participants. Through storytelling, the participants grew in awareness of their shared humanity and its crucial role in community building processes.

Referring to the collaborative learning process as a mix between the cognitive and the affective domains, students enjoyed the three-step process implemented: *self-reflection*, *small-group* sharing, and *large-group* discussion. In bringing this dissertation to closure, real-life experiences with everyday spirituality were shared by every participant, offering powerful stories for contemplation and potentiality for transformative learning to occur.

Radinsky (2000) examined the process of developing reflective dispositions in *individual* students in the context of middle-school earth science inquiry unit designed by the researcher and collaborating teachers. The study proposed a conceptual reflective mode that identified reflective disposition as a property not just of the individual, but also of the individual within an activity system. Reflection was found to be an often-shared, *peer-based*, social process, shaping and being shaped by the negotiation of the meaning of activity.

Vitanova and Miller (2002) conducted their study on fourteen student teachers enrolled in a graduate pronunciation course in a mid-western university setting in the USA. While the students' language competency varied (primarily Chinese and Korean, but also Spanish, Russian, Taiwanese, Greek, French, and Indian), they all had formal English instruction in the past, although not necessarily in pronunciation. They concluded that by giving *individual* students the skills to analyze their language learning processes; teachers help them keep improving even after they have left the context of the classroom. This study

The ability to transfer generalizations from the classroom environment to language use in natural settings is a main factor in developing independent students, who will continue to improve beyond the pronunciation course they are taking. In her final reflection, a participant noted that this course on pronunciation learning has increased her attitudes to continue to work on her pronunciation after the course exactly because she felt equipped with the knowledge to approach this task autonomously.

Ying (2003) carried out a study on a tertiary EFL classroom in the People's Republic of China. Ninety university freshmen participated in the study to raise their explicit awareness of one language phenomenon: **adverbial positioning** in English. Results revealed that interactive, *peer-guided*, reflective tasks (in the form of student explanation and discussion) were more effective than non-interactive, individual tasks in generating a higher level of learning motivation, better understanding, and better learning outcomes.

Building on the notion that *individual* reflection is a central component in the building of self-consciousness, **Valkanova and Watts (2007)** focused on the role of digital video in promoting oral language development through reflective self-learning (RSL) in seven-year-old children.

In an effort to understand the nature of children's individual reflection, self-recorded narratives produced to accompany children's video clips were

analyzed. Results suggested ways in which the oral and visual self-narratives of personal experiences may contribute to classroom learning. At the same time, this study examined the presumption that making films about one's own everyday classroom learning experiences may serve as an individually tailored platform for exploration of the self and a way for developing oracy.

Based upon these previous studies, the purpose of reflection is to learn from experiences. To help students reflect on their language learning is to teach them how to become an audience for their own performance. Typically, they do not know what they are doing when they do it. Reflection helps them return to their experiences and reconsider them. If one aim of education is to prepare students to be lifelong learners, then it is important to help them become aware of themselves as learners and to take control of their own activities. Reflection helps them achieve this aim.

After reviewing literature and related studies, Figure (13) show a model devised for proceeding with the sessions of the programme.
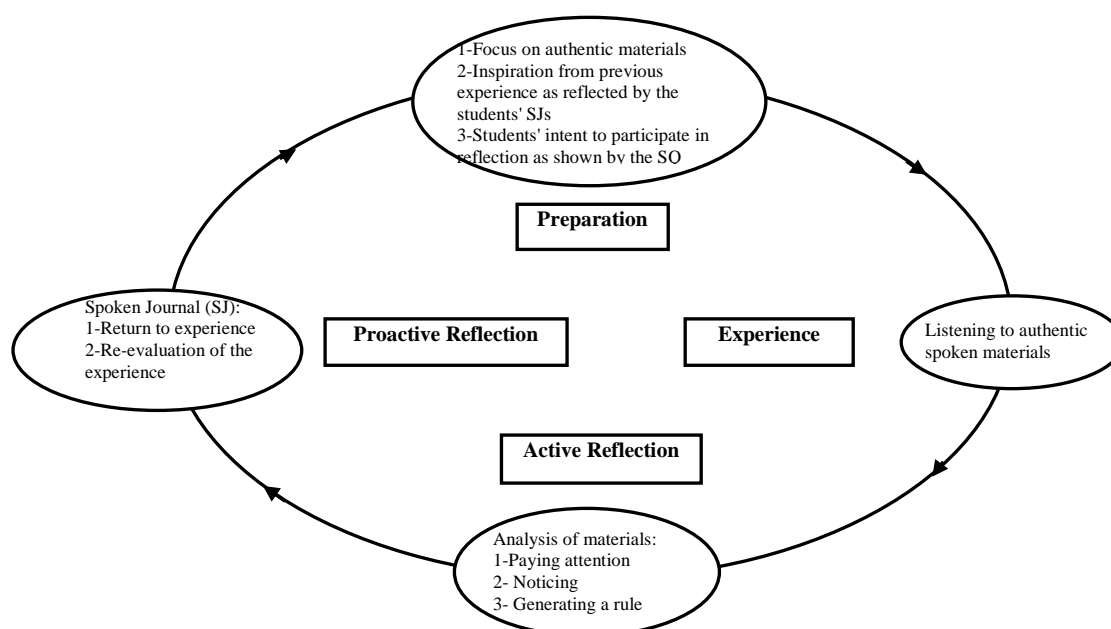
Figure (13): A Model for Proceeding with the Sessions of the Programme

Sessions proceeded in four stages: preparation, experience, active reflection, and proactive reflection. The first one was carried out by the researcher on an

ongoing basis according to the students' needs as being exhibited in their SJs. The second and the third stages occurred at the language lab during students' reflection on how others used the target spoken language features. The EG did the last stage while being away from the lab in reflecting on their learning process. The arrows indicate that each stage provided feedback to the consecutive one. Chapter III presents how these stages went on.

CHAPTER III

Methodology of the Study

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This chapter introduces the methodology of the study. It includes design, subjects, and instruments of the study, setting of the experiment, and administration of the programme.

Design of the Study

The study adopted the quasi-experimental design, in terms of using one experimental group (EG) and one control group (CG). Two sections from third-year, Tourism students were randomly assigned to be either the EG or the CG. Both groups were pre-tested and post-tested on their oracy.

Subjects of the Study

From Ismailia Faculty of Tourism and Hospitality, Suez Canal University, **sixty-one, third-year, Tourism students** were randomly selected to be the subjects of the study. Ismailia Tourism and Hospitality students:

- come from not only the Suez Canal region, but also from different Egyptian governorates;
- join the faculty after finishing their secondary education;
- have supposedly mastered basic English language skills; and
- are more or less at the same stage of mental development; a change from Piaget's concrete operations to formal reasoning. During this stage, they are at an ideal time to begin developing thinking, learning, and metacognitive abilities (Ellis, 2004).

Therefore, reflection was used to enable these students to mentally process their learning experiences: identify what they have learned, modify their understanding based on new information and experiences, and transfer their learning to new situations. In other words, reflection could help them gain access to their experiences and tacit linguistic knowledge so they could reshape

their existing knowledge in the light of the new content.

Setting of the Experimental Treatment

At the very beginning of the first term of the academic year 2008/2009, 88 students (EG=48 & CG=40) were pre-tested on October 14th. The subjects were post-tested on December 28th. Those who attended the post-test were 66 students (EG=36 & CG=30). From the EG students the researcher excluded those who were not punctual in submitting their assignments. The punctual ones were 31. That is, the subjects were 61 students in total.

The Programme

The programme proceeded into two steps:

1. Designing the instruments and preparing teaching materials
2. Administering of the programme

These two steps were as follows:

1. Designing the Instruments

A file of instruments – Needs Analysis, Instructor's Guide, Oracy Test, Learning Contract, Spoken Journal, and Student Questionnaire – (Appendix B) was introduced to the supervisors who refused the following:

a. **Needs Analysis**: since oracy development is important for all Tourism and Hospitality students of different specializations not for a specific department. Therefore, the researcher had to choose spoken texts for general tourism. The course book, English for International Tourism, offered some spoken texts suitable for Tourism students (e.g., Types of Holidays, Tour Operators, Booking on the Phone, etc.)

b. **Learning Contract:** because it is preferred with individualized instruction and it would not suit the number of the EG.

c. **Instructor's Guide:** as it repeats parts from the theoretical background (Chapter II). Consequently, these parts were excluded and it was

concentrated on the sessions plans only (Appendix G).

The Instruments

The remaining instruments were as follows:

A. *Oracy Test (OT)* – designed by the researcher – to be used as a pre-/post-test. According to the two aspects of oracy, this test consists of two parts:

- **Part I** aimed at assessing students' language awareness of some features of spoken language.

- **Part II** aimed at assessing students' oral performance of a role-play situation.

B. *Scoring Rubric (SR)* – designed by the researcher – for rating students' oral performance on Part II of the test.

C. *Two Reflective Tools* – designed by the researcher – to let students provide some kind of evidence that they have been engaging in reflection. They include:

1. **Spoken Journal (SJ):** ten questions students recorded their answers to them either on an audio cassette or on a CD to be submitted to the instructor/researcher to analyze and comment on**.**

2. **Student Questionnaire (SQ):** ten statements for gathering some information about students' preferences and commitment to the whole process of reflection after the training session.

These instruments can be classified in Table (6):

Table (6)

The Study Instruments

	Oracy Test (OT) & Scoring Rubric (SR) for Part II of the OT	**Reflective Tools: Spoken Journal (SJ) & Student Questionnaire (SQ)**
Type of assessment	summative	formative
Purpose	to measure the development in students' oracy (if any)	to monitor and guide the experiment while it is still in progress
Time	pre-/post-test	throughout the experiment

They can be dealt with in detail in the following section.

A. Oracy Test (OT)

For the present study, oracy has two aspects: language awareness and oral performance.

Objectives

The OT has two objectives:

First: assessing students' *language awareness* of some features of spoken language

Second: eliciting a representative sample of a student's *oral performance* in a short time

For achieving these two objectives, the OT consists of two parts: **Part I** and **Part II**. Thus, Part I consists of four discrete items; one item for assessing a core of features (i.e., *phonology*, *vocabulary*, *grammar*, and *pragmatics*). Part II is an integrative item aiming at measuring students' oral performance. The present study used a role-play task in which a student could ask and answer to fulfill that task.

Performance measurement

The OT is of performance-assessment type which is "an assessment activity that requires students to construct a response, create a product, or demonstrate a skill they have acquired" (Alberta Assessment Consortium, AAC, 2008).

Throughout the programme, students and the researcher used tape-recorders in reflection on how they and others use the language. Consequently, the researcher excluded the non-verbal component of oracy when analyzing students' responses to the OT. The following was considered:

Part I: The items are supply-items; they require students to *analyze* a tapescript of a conversation to *supply* (i.e., construct) responses. The items are objectives in that there is only one right answer. Therefore, when being corrected, the answers were checked whether they were right or not.

Part II: As an integrative item, a rubric is typically the specific form of scoring instruments when evaluating students' oral performance (Mertler, 2001). The scorer is not looking for only one right answer, but rather for a series of criteria. For identifying these criteria, the researcher came up with five criteria (i.e., *active listening*, *turn-taking*, *questioning*, *responding*, and *overall performance quality*) when scoring students' oral performance on the role-play task. These criteria were grouped in a scoring rubric.

B. A Scoring Rubric (SR) for Part II of the OT

This rubric was used to assess students' performance on Part II, and their SJ assignments.

Validity

When first introduced to the jurors, the OT included an adapted version of Lambert' rubric (2003), Appendix A, for scoring Part II. A member of the jury suggested designing an analytic rubric instead of this one. Since this suggestion serves the aim of the test, which is analysis of students' performance, the researcher designed a SR which consisted of four criteria (i.e., *active listening*, *turn-taking*, *questioning*, and *responding*).

For validating it, the SR was shown to jurors again. A juror commented that a student's performance might meet all the criteria but her/his voice is not audible, for example. Therefore, a criterion for this was added, which is *overall performance quality*.

Description

For designing the SR, the researcher reviewed pertinent literature (e.g., Washburn & Christianson, 1996; McCullen, 1997; Simkins, 1997; Airasian, 2000; Renay, 2001; AAC, 2008; Area Edtech.kennesaw.edu, 2008; Education Agency 267, AEA 267, 2008; Chicago Public Schools Bureau of Student Assessment, 2009; rubistar.4teachers.org, 2009). In its applicable form, the SR

consists of the following components:

1. **Domains or dimensions of performance** *(where to look)*: verbal responses;

2. **Performance criteria** *(what to look for)*: active listening, turn-taking, questioning, responding, and overall performance quality;

3. **Performance standards**: arbitrary levels of a criterion *qualitatively* include the labels: *very limited*, *limited*, *adequate*, *strong*, and *outstanding* and *quantitatively* ranges from *1* to *5* points; and

4. **Descriptors**: statements that describe the levels of performance. For determining these statements, the researcher reviewed the following resources:

   a. **Active listening:** (Cleveland Schools Center for Conflict Resolution, 1996; Dudley-Evans & St John, 2000; About.com: Secondary Education, 2008; Conflict Research Consortium, 2008; Fisher, 2008; MindTools.com, 2008; Study Guides & Strategies, 2008; About.com: Continuing Education, 2009; Alephsynergy.com, 2009),

   b. **Turn-taking:** (Washburn & Christianson, 1996; McCarthy, 2000; Pepper & Weitzman, 2004; Hellermann, 2005; Sayer, 2005)

   c. **Questioning:** Shermis, 1999; Dudley-Evans & St John, 2000; Mertler, 2001; Karron, 2002),

   d. **Responding:** (Maguire & Pitceathly, 2002; Lambert, 2003; Messina, 2009), and

   e. **Overall performance quality:** (Jones & Evans, 1995; Grainger, 1999; Airasian, 2000; Lambert, 2003).

Administration

For increasing the assessment transparency of the programme, the SR was used as follows:

1. After pre-testing, students were given a scored SR with clear explanation of their scores. They were made aware of their weaknesses and strengths. The

key advantage was that the SR forced clarification of success for students establishing clear benchmarks for achievement.

2. During the training session, it was used to clarify expectations and rating methods to students. Students were told that they could use the final two criteria: *responding* and *overall performance quality*. As a result, students could self-assess their assignments.

3. During the programme, the SR helped the researcher/instructor to remain objectively focused on the preset standards of excellence.

4. After post-testing, rating became more objective, consistent, efficient, and defensible.

OT specifications

For determining the number of the sub-items to be included in the OT, a table of specifications – Table (7) – was developed. For the purpose of the study, the OT was specified for measuring the two aspects of oracy: *language awareness* and *oral performance* (refer to the operational definition, p. 15, and pp. 59-67); each part of the OT weighs 50%.

For **Part I,** the score for each core of the spoken language features represents the weight of emphasis in actual instruction. That is, (1%) of emphasis is represented by (1) score. Having the average of each session is 2 hours and the target features were taught in 7 sessions, the amount of emphasis for each core of features was measured through the following formula:

$$= \frac{\frac{m}{7} \text{X} \ 5}{1 \text{ X } 100}$$

Where:

      m = time spent in actual instruction for each core of features

      50= total of Part I

For **Part II,** as an integrative item, the score on its SR – including 5 quantitative levels of standards for 5 criteria of oral performance – was 25 multiplied by 2 to be 50 scores in total.

Table (7)

OT Specifications

Features of Spoken Language	Actual Instruction			Part I		Part II
	No. of sessions	Time spent	Weight %	Items	50 scores	50 scores
A. Phonology: 1. sentence intonation pattern 2. question intonation patterns	**1**	**2 hours**	**16%**	4 items 4 items	**8 scores:** 4 scores (one score each) 4 scores (one score each)	
B. Vocabulary: 1. backchannel devices 2. hedges 3. deictic expressions	**2**	**4 hours**	**28%**	2 items 2 items 2 items	**14 – 2 = 12 scores:** 4 scores (two scores each) 4 scores (two scores each) 4 scores (two scores each)	A Role-Play Task
C. Grammar: 1. performance effects 2. ellipsis	**2**	**4 hours**	**28%**	3 items 2 items	**14 scores:** 6 scores (two scores each) 8 scores (two scores each)	
D. Pragmatics: 1. speech acts 2. register 3. discourse markers	**2**	**4 hours**	**28%**	4 items 2 items 2 items	**14 + 2 = 16 scores:** 8 scores (two scores each) 4 scores (two scores each) 4 scores (two scores each)	

In Figure (14), a 3D pie chart represents the components of the OT. The lined slices represent the four cores of spoken language features included in **Part I**. Besides, each white slice shows the required, equal criteria of **Part II**.
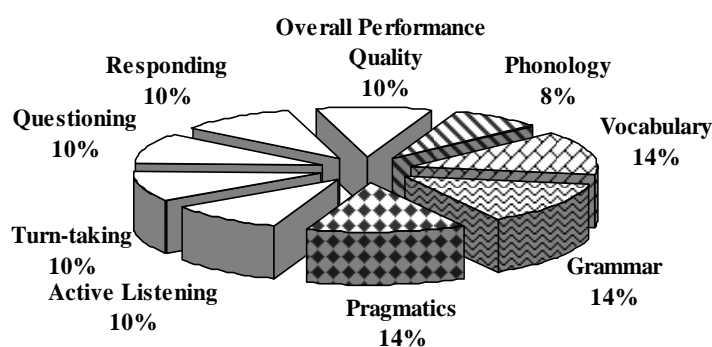
Figure (14): Components of the OT

Validity

The first version of the test; Appendix B, was validated by some jurors from faculty members, Appendix H. After receiving the juror's comments, modifications were made as follows:

Part I

A. Phonology: It was recommended that it was better to give students some questions and sentences and ask them to put the suitable sign (↓ or ↑) next to them according to their intonation patterns instead of letting them put a suitable sign (↓ or ↑) next to the first four turns since each turn may consist of more than one sentence.

B. Vocabulary: One juror suggested changing the form of this item to be represented in the form of a table: the first column of which includes some expressions and the second column includes the labels of vocabulary features. Students should put a tick under a suitable label whether it is a *backchannelling device*, *a discourse marker*, *a hedge*, or *a deictic expression*. However, the researcher did not agree upon this suggestion since the aim of this item is letting students supply the required label of the feature to show their awareness when analyzing a spoken text not to choose among provided choices.

C. Grammar: Since there are repeated performance effects in the conversation, students were asked to give only 3 different ones instead of 7 and mention the name of the speaker. Therefore, the distribution of scores is 6 scores for performance effects and 8 scores for providing 2 elliptic forms.

D. Pragmatics: Item (B. 4) was moved to be (D. 3) to let students provide two discourse markers with their functional meanings in one step. Therefore, the score for vocabulary is 12 and for pragmatics is 16 when doing the OT. Then, students' scores on these 2 items were reconsidered when calculating the score for each item. That is, the final score is 14 for each after correcting the OT.

Part II

Some jurors suggested some modifications in the wording of the role-play task. Accordingly, the researcher made the required changes.

Reliability

Piloting of the OT was performed on 30, third-year, Tourism students, Faculty of Tourism and Hospitality, Suez Canal University, at the very beginning of the academic year 2008/2009 to for:

1. Making sure that the test items were clear to the sample,

2. Discovering any unexpected problems, and

3. Measuring the reliability of the test.

Results of the pilot testing showed that:

1. Students were clear on the items.

2. Because it was difficult to administer the test twice or use another rater, the *intrareliability* of the OT was measured using the *coefficient of Cronbach Alpha* for *internal consistency*. The OT reliability was .8141.

This shows that the test is highly reliable, which gave a lot of confidence in its consistency. Therefore, the OT was applicable in its final form.

For more clarity, Figure (15) shows the OT (Appendix C) with its two parts as an arrow penetrating through reflection process with its two modes: active and proactive to split oracy into its two components: *language awareness* and *oral performance*.
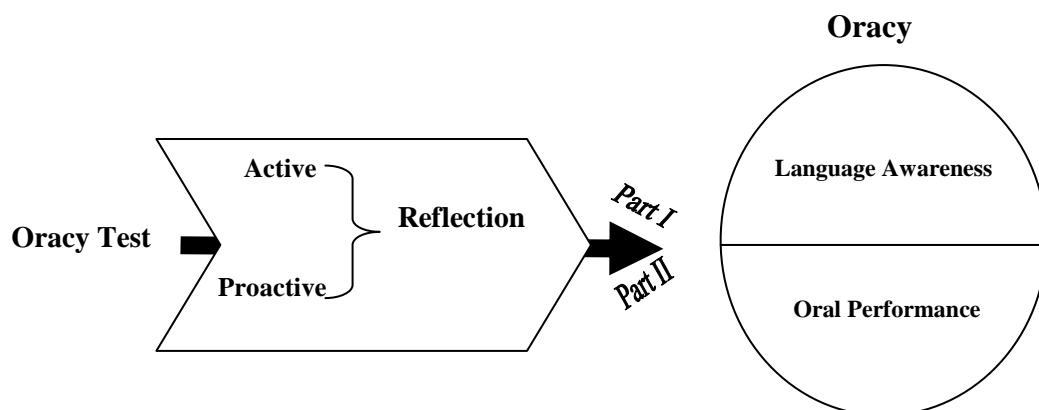
Figure (15): Dynamics of the OT

C. Reflective tools

Since reflection is a very individual activity, based on the personal experience of each student, some reflective tools were used to provide some kind of evidence that students had been engaging in reflection. These tools were:

1. Spoken Journal (SJ)

A SJ captures the process of learning and the stages in a student's development over the time of the programme. At the same time, it acts as a spur to regular reflection.

Objectives

Students were required to keep a weekly journal in which they recorded and commented on their experiences as learners in the programme for the following objectives:

1. Providing a regular means of reflection;
2. Offering an opportunity for reviewing their work, processing their experience, generating alternative ways of viewing a situation, and achieving new appreciations or understandings;
3. Encouraging students to return to their own experiences of developing oracy outside class and focus on what these events mean to them; and
4. Helping "timid" students practice, enjoy, and listen to themselves speaking English fluently to some extent for more than 5 minutes without fear to be interrupted or make a mistake in front of their colleagues; because they could record a journal entry more than once.

Validity

The first version of the SJ (Appendix B) was introduced to a jury of faculty members (Appendix H) to validate it according to the set objectives. They approved its face validity suggesting some additions and modifications to the questions.

Description

Being validated, the SJ – Appendix E – consists of ten questions. Questions used to promote reflection are specific, conversational (i.e., open-ended not yes/no questions) and work from the particular to the general. Students recorded their answers to those questions on a tape/CD or sent a voice message to the instructor's e-mail. They submitted their SJs after two weeks and received feedback from the instructor.

Administration

In the training session, students were introduced to the use of the SJ through the following instructions:

1. Make your journal entry weekly, shortly after the session, so that the events can be fresh in your mind.

2. Record your answers to the questions included either on tape/CD or send a voice message to the instructor's e-mail.

3. Review your journal entries regularly; what might have not been obvious when recorded may later become apparent.

4. After doing each entry, evaluate it according to the pre-determined SR (i.e., the final two criteria: *responding* and *overall performance quality*).

5. Submit two journal entries (i.e., two weeks) to the instructor who will return them with comments and a score before the beginning of the new session.

Grading

The instructor listened to the journals. She could comment on each tape or CD for future development or write some notes to be included in the case of each tape or CD. The SJ assignments were 5 in total. Using the final two criteria of the SR: *responding* and *overall performance quality*, the score for each assignment was 10.

2. Student Questionnaire (SQ)

Students were asked to respond to the SQ after the training session and doing the first SJ entry.

Objectives

SQ was administered so that:

1. It could give the instructor an idea about students' understanding of the objectives of the programme and its variables.

2. Students could begin to appreciate reflection as a method of learning.

3. It could be a useful way of gathering information about students' preferences and personal reactions to the whole process of reflection after the first session and doing the first SJ entry.

Validity

For validating the SQ, it was introduced to a jury of faculty members (Appendix H) to examine its face validity to the set objectives. It was introduced in the form of a table (Appendix B). That table included 15 statements in response to which students should choose either *no*, *a little*, *almost*, or *a lot*. Regarding the wording appropriateness of those statements, jurors were asked to put a tick either in the second column if they agreed, or in the third column if they disagreed and write what they suggested to modify or omit. They approved the face validity of the SQ to the set objectives suggesting some additions and modifications. The statements were reduced to be 10 ones.

Grading

Doing this questionnaire is a very individual activity based on the personal preferences of each student. Therefore, it was inappropriate to grade students' responses in a way which suggested that one student's responses were of more value than another's. There was also a danger that grading might lead students trying to impress the instructor by gaining higher scores to choose the highest response (*a lot*).

Description

Being validated, the SQ (Appendix F) was shortened to include only ten statements in response to which, students should choose either *no*, *a little*, *almost*, or *a lot*. These statements are as follows:

- S1: *I know that I am going to develop my oracy by the end of the programme.*
  Oracy is ....
- S2: *Reflection can help me develop my oracy.*
  Reflection is ....

S1 and S2 aimed at identifying students' understanding of the basic variables they were going to manipulate throughout the programme. If a student could not provide the definition of each variable, the researcher considered the response to be *no* even if her/his choice is *a lot*.

- S3: *Oracy can help me improve my professional future.*
- S4: *I am ready to get involved in reflection process.*

These statements reflected their readiness to be involved in reflection for developing.

- S5: *My instructor tries to encourage me to engage in reflection.*

The instructor made sure that students' responses were either *almost* or *a lot*. Two students chose *no*. The instructor asked them about their choice. Their answer showed their misunderstanding of the statement. As a consequence, they altered the response to be *a lot*.

- S6: *In class, I like to reflect on my learning alone.*
- S7: *In class, I like to reflect on my learning talking to a learning partner.*

S6 and S7 identified students' preferences for doing the activities inside the lab (*active reflection*).

- S8: *At home, I like to do my Spoken Journal alone.*
- S9: *At home, I like to do my Spoken Journal with my learning partner.*

S8 and S9 identified students' preferences for doing the SJ entries at home (proactive reflection).

- S10: *I like to record my speech on an audio cassette/CD or send a voice message to my instructor's e-mail.*

This statement gave students different choices for presenting their SJ assignments.

Administration

The SQ was administered at the beginning of the third session. The instructor read it quickly checking for misunderstandings. After collecting students' responses, she formed an idea about students' general understanding of the whole process, commitment to it, and preferences of doing the SJ. Table (8) shows the results of the SQ administration.

Table (8)

SQ Administration Results

Sentences	Students' Responses							
	no		A little		Almost		A lot	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
S1	7	22.6	5	16.1	10	32.3	9	29.0
S2	9	29.0	8	25.8	7	22.6	7	22.6
S3	-	-	8	25.8	15	48.4	8	25.8
S4	-	-	3	9.7	17	54.8	11	35.5
S5	-	-	-	-	12	38.7	19	61.3
S6	12	38.7	6	19.4	6	19.4	7	22.6
S7	14	45.2	8	25.8	1	3.2	8	25.8
S8	8	25.8	4	12.9	11	35.5	8	25.8
S9	19	61.3	4	12.9	3	9.7	5	16.1
S10	2	6.5	1	3.2	11	35.5	17	54.8

Some students initially chose to do the SJ entries together with some learning partners. Consequently, the speech sample produced by each student decreased; each one answered two or three questions only. The instructor preferred that each student should talk about her/his own experience and future plans alone. Therefore, from the second entry on, the **individual method** of reflection was chosen since it was easy and practical to follow when doing a journal entry.

Pre-Testing

At the very beginning of the academic year 2008/2009, the OT was administered to the subjects of the study. It was administered for making sure of the equivalence between the EG and the CG in their oracy before the experiment. Results of administering the pre-test are included in Table (9).

Table (9)

t Values of the EG and the CG on the *Pre-OT*

Components of the OT	EG (n=31)		CG (n=30)		Degree of Freedom	*t* Values	Signifiance [b]
	Means	**Standard Deviations**	**Means**	**Standard Deviations**			
Part I (Language Awareness):							
A. Phonology	.32	.91	.40	.81	59	.35	.72
B. Vocabulary	.00	.00	.00	.00	59	.00a	-
C. Grammar	.00	.00	.00	.00	59	.00a	-
D. Pragmatics	1.42	2.54	1.20	2.95	59	.31	.75
Total of Part I	1.74	2.62	1.60	3.08	59	.19	.84
Part II (Oral Performance):							
1. Active Listening	1.90	.65	1.97	.61	59	.39	.69
2. Questioning	2.16	.64	2.23	.68	59	.42	.67
3. Turn-taking	2.29	.59	2.27	.74	59	.13	.89
4. Responding	2.16	.78	2.27	.74	59	.54	.59
5. Overall Performance Quality	2.32	.83	2.27	.87	59	.25	.79
Total of Part II	21.68	5.89	22.00	5.99	59	.21	.83
Oracy Total	23.42	7.01	23.60	7.82	59	.09	.92

  [a] *t* cannot be computed because the standard deviations of both groups are 0. Students have no previous knowledge of the features mentioned in items # 2 & 3.
  [b] *p*>.05

Using a *t* test for independent samples, Table (9) shows that the *t* values were not significant (*p*>.05) on:

 a) each of the components and the total of Part I,

 b) each of the components and the total of Part II, and

 c) the total of the OT.

That is, administering the pre-OT to the subjects of the study, the equivalence in oracy between the EG and the CG has been determined.

2. Administering of the Programme

For administering the programme, a schedule – Table (10) – was applied. It consisted of 11 sessions (Appendix G): 2 sessions for pre-testing and post-testing, a session for training, 7 sessions for teaching the spoken language features, and a session for revision.

Table (10)

A Schedule of the Experiment

Sessions introduced to both the CG and the EG			Procedures introduced to the EG only			
No.	Date	Topic	Features of Spoken Language	Assignments	Submitting Assignments	
					No.	Due Time
1.	14/10/2008	**Pre-test**	………………	………	…	………
2.	21/10/2008	**Training** [a]	………………	SJ (entry 1)	…	………
3.	28/10/2008	**Student Questionnaire** [a] & *Transport*	Intonation patterns	SJ (entry 2)	1: (entries 1 & 2)	2/11/2008
4.	4/11/2008	*Types of Holiday*	• Backchannelling devices • Hedges	SJ (entry 3)	…	…………
5.	11/11/2008	*Tour Operators*	• Discourse markers • Deixis	SJ (entry 4)	2: (entries 3 & 4)	16/11/2008
6.	18/11/2008	**Speechwork: Intonation in tag questions** & *Travel Agents:* **Listening 1**	Performance effects	SJ (entry 5)	…	…………
7.	25/11/2008	*Travel Agents:* **Listening 1** (con.)	• Spoken clause structure • Ellipsis	SJ (entry 6)	3: (entries 5 & 6)	30/11/2008
8.	2/12/2008	*Travel Agents:* **Listening 2**	Register	SJ (entry 7)	…	…………
9.	16/12/2008	*Travel Agents:* **Listening 2** (con.)	Speech acts	SJ (entry 8)	4: (entries 7 & 8)	21/12/2008
10.	23/12/2008	*Where people go*	Revision	SJ (entry 9)	…	…………
11.	30/12/2008	**Post-test**	………………	……………	5: (entry 9)	28/12/2008

[a] The CG did not follow these procedures.

Throughout the second session, the researcher introduced the programme to the EG and the CG. From the third session on, both groups were taught the spoken texts using procedures recommended to teachers by Thornbury (2005b) in his book, How to Teach Speaking. These procedures can be summarized in the following steps:

1. *Introducing the spoken situation:*

Depending on the difficulty of the content, it may help to establish the topic and the context of the situation. Students can improvise a conversation on the same topic themselves before playing an extract of the recorded conversation.

2. *Checking general meaning:*

Play the extract, or an initial segment of it, and ask some general questions. For example, "*Who* is talking to *whom* about *what*, and *why*?"

3. *Checking details:*

Replay the extract twice to do some tasks, such as a table to complete, a grid to fill in, or multiple questions to answer.

4. Listening and reading:

Hand out the tapescript. Replay the extract while students read silently.

5. Resolving doubts:

This may involve translating items that remain obscure or allowing students to consult their dictionaries.

For raising the EG's awareness of the spoken language features, students followed the three steps suggested by Thornbury (2005b) (see Chapter II, p. 48).

The Experiment

The experiment proceeded as follows:

1. A random assignment of two sections of third-year, Tourism students – Ismailia Faculty of Tourism and Hospitality to be an EG and a CG;

2. Administration of the pre-OT to both groups on the October 14th, 2008 to identify the students' level of oracy before the experiment;

3. Administration of the programme: The treatment was held at the language lab of the faculty, two hours for each section on the same day;

4. Administration of the post-OT to both groups on the December 30th, 2008 to identify their level of oracy after the experiment was over; and

5. Rating students' performance on the OT for identifying the effectiveness of reflection in developing third-year, Tourism students' oracy in English.

Table (11) sums up the technical specifications of the experiment.

Table (11)

Technical Specifications of the Experiment

Universe	Third-year, Tourism students
Scope	Ismailia Faculty of Tourism and Hospitality, Suez Canal University
Sample	61 students: EG=31, CG=30
Sampling Method	Random
Course Book	English for International Tourism, Longman
Data Collection	OT + SR, SJ, and SQ
Statistical Analysis	SPSS
Confidence Level	95%
Fieldwork	Oct.14th: Dec. 30th, 2008 – 2 hours/weak, 11 sessions
Instructor	The researcher

Throughout the experiment, continuous and reflective tools provided an ongoing evidence of students' involvement in the process. Figure (16) shows the steps of the experiment in the form of a cycle beginning with the pre-OT and ending with the post-OT. The cycle is not closed since its end of post-testing cannot lead to pre-testing again.
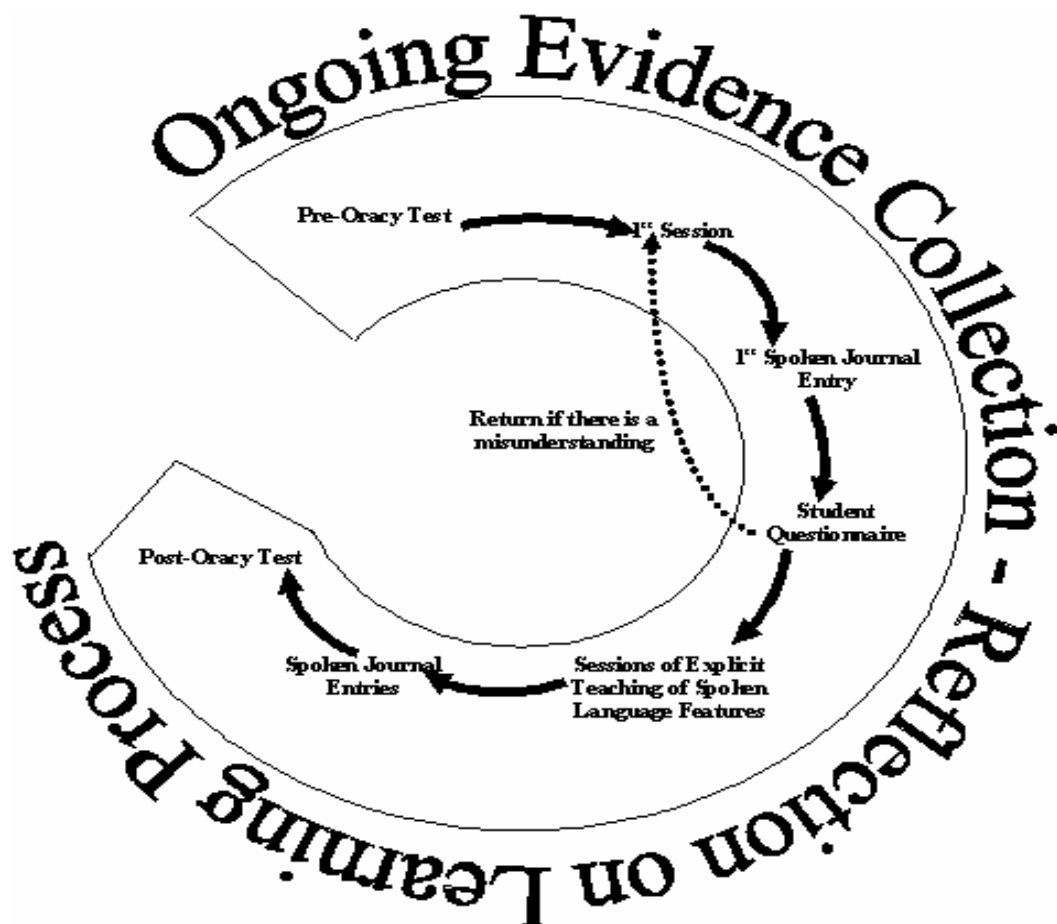
Figure (16): Reflective Practice Cycle, *Inspired by:* Shelor (2000)

Chapter IV introduces the results of the experiment and a statistical analysis of these results.

CHAPTER IV

Results and Discussions

CHAPTER IV

Results and Discussion

This chapter aims at presenting the results of the experiment in light of the research questions and hypotheses and discussing these results in light of the theoretical background and related studies. The SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) was used to conduct the statistical analysis of the results. The following statistical techniques were performed:

- *t* test for independent samples,
- simple linear regression, and
- analysis of variance (ANOVA).

Post-Testing

At the end of the first term of the academic year 2008/2009, the OT was administered to the EG and the CG as a post-test to answer the third question: **What is the effectiveness of third-year, Tourism and Hospitality students' reflection on some spoken language features in developing their oracy?**

Table (12)

t Value of the EG and CG on the Post-OT

Group	No. of Subjects	Means	Standard Deviations	Degree of Freedom	*t* Value	*p*
Experimental	31	75.42	11.39	59	12.11	.01
Control	30	43.53	8.98			

Results depicted in Table (12) show that the *t* value (12.11) is statistically significant at the level (.01) favoring the EG. This means that the EG has significantly achieved a higher level *oracy*. Thus, the main research hypothesis for this study was retained and re-stated as follows:

- There is a statistically significant difference between the mean score of the EG and that of the CG on *the post-OT* at the level (.01) favoring the EG.

Previous studies (e.g., **Washburn & Christianson, 1996**; **Goh, 1997**; **Clennell, 1999**; **Kauffman, 1999**; **Radinsky, 2000**; **Dantas-Whitney, 2002**; **Vitanova & Miller, 2002**; **Ying, 2003**; **Sayer, 2005**; **and Valkanova & Watts, 2007)** affirmed that reflection can help develop various aspects of oracy. A challenge of the experiment was to arouse the students' sense that spoken language is something that deserves reflection on its features. The implementation of awareness-raising activities aimed at helping students gain an awareness of the rules of using these features.

Students' SJs showed that they learned many of the target features and incorporated them into their performance on subsequent tasks. The experiment has demonstrated how these activities were effective in helping students analyze oral texts and consequently improve their oracy. This was true since reflection helped students turn experience of analyzing features of spoken language into learning of rules of managing a conversation.

Both modes of reflection served a two-fold purpose. First, **active reflection** was implemented as a process for encouraging students to enhance their awareness of some spoken language features. Second, **proactive reflection** enabled the instructor/researcher to hear students' authentic voices and perceptions of their learning.

Incorporating tasks drawn from students' field of specialty resulted in enhanced motivation. Students' future needs were addressed by, for example, choosing some telephone calls to convey the idea that a good impression of a tour operator and her/his firm can be carried over the telephone. Other conversations were chosen to meet some speaking goals which students wish to develop such as responding to questions posed in a range of formal settings. Rather than having to create links between pedagogic tasks and their own needs, students practiced tasks associated with their target situations, and received feedback on their performance.

Clearly, no 22-hour programme could satisfactorily address all students' needs. However, these hours spent at the language lab were, of course, less than those students spent doing their journals. A student mentioned:

> Preparing a five-minute entry can take about two hours. Besides, I commit myself to continuous thinking and revising of the entry along the week. Actually, I mastered all the features I studied in the English sections this term.

That is to say, by making the language learning process salient, the programme helped students understand and manage their learning in a way which contributed to their performance in subsequent language tasks.

Increasingly, relying on the scoring rubric (Appendix D) to evaluate students' performance, it was tended to share it with them from the very beginning of the programme, during the sessions, and after returning the SJs with comments and a score. Sharing this rubric, students became aware of the expected standards and thus knew what was counted as a quality work.

Components of the Post-OT

Part I

A. Phonology

Table (13) shows the data obtained using a *t* test for independent samples in phonology.

Table (13)

t Value of the EG and the CG in *Phonology*

Group	No. of Subjects	Means	Standard Deviations	Degree of Freedom	*t* Value	*p*
Experimental	31	6.90	1.37	59	1.19	.23
Control	30	6.33	2.25			

The *t* value (1.19) is statistically insignificant ($p > .05$). That is, a *t* test failed to reveal a statistically reliable difference between the mean score of the EG and the CG in *phonology*. Thus, a sub, null-hypothesis is stated as follows:

• There is no statistically significant difference between the mean score of the EG and that of the CG in *phonology*.

This result may be due to the nature of this multiple-choice item: two choices only either a falling tone (↓) or a rising tone (↑). Some students might choose the correct sign by mere luck. Add to this, the CG was acquainted with *question intonation patterns* when being taught intonation in tag questions (Session 6). However, the mean score of the EG (6.90) is slightly more than that of the CG (6.33) due to the former's training doing a SJ and having a revision session. Previous studies such as **Jones (1997), Roberts and Corbett (1997), Vitanova and Miller (2002),** and **Bajaj et al. (2004)** affirmed that increased attention in pronunciation materials has to be paid to the teaching of formal rules, feedback, and reflective activities.

Pronunciation teaching is experiencing a new resurgence, fuelled largely by an increasing awareness of the communicative function of suprasegmental features in connected speech rather than practice of isolated sounds. Drills can also be made more lively and memorable by including visual representations and training in the kinesthetic sensation using either ↓ or ↑ at the end of each utterance, which can increase awareness of the communicative aspects of pronunciation, and it can provide an opportunity for communicative practice as students interact with their peers (Jones, 1997). This was exactly what the present study tried to prove through helping students:

1. reflect on how others raise or lower their voice at the end of each utterance,

2. generate easy-to-remember rules for using intonation patterns, and

3. notice mistakes in their use of the intonation patterns after they have received their SJs with a comment for future improvements.

Nevertheless, being strongly influenced by previous generations of English language teaching material writers, the grammatical was used approach of teaching intonation in the experiment. This approach makes correlation

between the grammatical type of question or sentence and the intonation pattern chosen: questions with *yes/no* answer go up at the end while questions starting with a *wh*-word (e.g., what, where, which, how, who, etc.) go down. The major problem with this simple approach is that it does not work in a number of cases. For example, a rising intonation pattern with *wh*-questions can be chosen to perform certain functions like showing surprise or requesting a repetition. Thompson (1995) adds:

> … a wise teacher will strive to raise learners' awareness of the context-dependency of intonation … Clearly, there would be some problems in assigning a straightforward communicative function to a particular tone choice on yes/no questions … this would be no more of a problem … than to continue broadly ignoring the falling tone on yes/no questions. (pp. 241-242)

As such, intonation tends to receive little explicit focus in the classroom. Being concentrated upon, intonation was difficult to isolate, describe, and formulate rules for – rules which will allow students to generate appropriate examples for themselves. Given the widespread perception that intonation is an immensely difficult and complicated subject, which is "not teachable and possibly not learnable either", Thompson (1995) is not surprised to find that many recent EFL materials completely omit the teaching of intonation.

However, the researcher sees that even if a teacher raises her/his students' awareness of the general intonation rules (mentioning that exceptions exist), it is a great achievement. Jones (1997) concludes:

> The explicit teaching of rules will remain, but will be tempered with more and more opportunities for free practice and training ... . Finally, pronunciation will, whenever possible, be taught in concert with other skills, not as a separate entity, but as another string in the communicative bow. (p. 111)

B. Vocabulary

Table (14) shows the data obtained using a *t* test for independent samples in vocabulary.

Table (14)

t Value of the EG and the CG in *Vocabulary*

Group	No. of Subjects	Means	Standard Deviations	Degree of Freedom	*t* Value	*p*
Experimental	31	10.03	2.66	59	20.61	.01
Control	30	.00	.00			

Based upon the OT, the CG has not covered the features in this item such as backchannelling devices, deictic expressions, hedges, or discourse markers. Consequently, the *t* value (20.61) is statistically significant at the level (.01) favoring the EG. This means that the EG has significantly achieved a higher level awareness of *vocabulary*. Thus, a sub hypothesis can be verified as follows:

• There is a statistically significant difference between the mean score of the EG and that of the CG in *vocabulary* at the level (.01) favoring the EG.

Perhaps the greatest tools teachers can give their students for succeeding, not only in their education but also more generally in life, are a large, rich vocabulary and the skills for using it. Broadly defined, vocabulary is knowledge of words and word meanings. However, vocabulary is more complex than this definition suggests since words come in two forms: oral and in print. Oral vocabulary includes those words that are recognized and used in listening and speaking. Printed vocabulary includes these words that are recognized and used in reading and writing. At the same time, words can be either function or content. Clearly, the EG had to know both kinds of words to understand and produce spoken language. Therefore, for developing the latter, the researcher helped the EG use their dictionaries as well as look for context clues so that they could acquire new content words.

Besides, deriving meaning from spoken language involves much more than knowing the meaning of words to understand what is intended when these words are put together in a certain context. Function words make spoken language meaningful. They serve some functions in different contexts; namely,

backchannelling, hedging, deixis, and connecting discourse. Fortunately, the number of these words in English is limited – 107 words have been found to account for approximately 50 percent of the total words in texts (Lehr et al., 2009) – and most of the EG students have learned these words as part of their oral language development. They already knew their meaning, so they needed to reflect more on their use to develop in-depth awareness of their functions.

What previous studies (e.g., **Bromberg, 1990**; **Mizuno, 1993**; **Hellermann & Vergun, 2007**; **Zemel et al., 2008**) affirmed is that explicit, intentional instruction of vocabulary can help develop students' language awareness. According to them, students need to reflect to develop what Lehr et al. (2009*)* call *word consciousness* which they define as "an awareness of and interest in words, their meanings, and their power" (sec. 5). This awareness involves knowing that some words and phrases can simultaneously feel good on the tongue and sound good to the ear. To some extent, the EG Students became word-conscious, enjoyed words and were eager to learn new ones.

C. Grammar

Table (15) shows the data obtained using a *t* test for independent samples in grammar.

Table (15)

t Value of the EG and the CG in *Grammar*

Group	No. of Subjects	Means	Standard Deviations	Degree of Freedom	*t* Value	*p*
Experimental	31	9.61	3.77	59	13.97	.01
Control	30	.00	.00			

Similar to the previous item, the CG has not covered the features of this item such as performance effects nor ellipsis. Therefore, the *t* value (13.97) is statistically significant at the level (.01) favoring the EG. This means that the EG has achieved a higher level *grammar* as a consequence of their training in the programme. Thus, a sub hypothesis can be verified as follows:

•There is a statistically significant difference between the mean score of the EG and that of the CG in *grammar* at the level (.01) favoring the EG.

The advent of the communicative language teaching (CLT) in the 1970s and 1980s saw the decline of formal grammar pedagogy as inefficient for developing oracy. In CLT, the learner is placed centre-stage: s/he should have the opportunity to take part in meaningful interaction in order to respond to genuine communicative needs. However, Mayo (2002) mentions that research carried out on L2 learning in Canadian Immersion Programmes has shown that mere exposure to the L2 is not enough for the development of productive skills. It simply led to low levels of linguistic accuracy by focusing exclusively on the negotiation of meaning and successful communication; the issue of form was overlooked. It was concluded that learners' attention should be drawn to language as an object in context, form-focused instruction.

Therefore, after the "anti-grammar movement" of the 1980s, the role of grammar in language teaching was reformulated from habit formation into grammar awareness activities and there was a major theoretical shift from "how teachers teach grammar" to "how learners learn grammar". Nitta and Gardner (2005) argue against the conventional wisdom that grammar "practice makes perfect" in favour of a series of consciousness-raising tasks. They quote a definition by Ellis (1997) of a grammar, consciousness-raising task as:

> a pedagogic activity where the learners are provided with L2 data in some form and required to perform some operation on or with it, the purpose of which is to arrive at an explicit understanding of some linguistic properties of the target language (p. 5).

Some language scholars and teachers alike have long been aware of differences between spoken and written grammar. Unfortunately, awareness of this dichotomy has often resulted in spoken forms being looked upon as "poor cousins" of the written, "correct" forms. However, previous research (e.g., **Zhongganggao, 2001**; **Mayo, 2002**; **Bajaj et al., 2004**; **Takimoto, 2006**;

Mohammed & Jaber, 2008; **Xiao-fei1 & Tian, 2008**) into spoken grammar forms concludes that spoken language is not merely a variant of the "correct" written forms. Rather, the spoken language, particularly the interactive discourse of native speakers, incorporates forms that are widespread and consistent in usage, and most importantly, meaningful. For these reasons, this body of research advocates an increase in the explicit teaching of spoken grammar forms in the language-learning classroom.

If the present dissertation is purporting to teach oracy, it was therefore necessary that *written forms not be used as models for the spoken* ones. To do so, the researcher chose some spoken features such as ellipsis, performance effects, coordination, and question tags. This included the teaching of spoken grammar (e.g. through inducing grammatical rules) and reaction to the EG's errors (i.e., corrective feedback) through commenting on their SJs.

In order to build an explicit understanding of the target rules, the activities had relatively a "direct" link to the grammar feature. They provided metalanguage (e.g., tense, subject, verb), and it was highly likely that students used metalanguage for describing the rule. In other words, students realized that they were truly absorbed in grammar tasks as learning a language does not mean the learning by heart of a set of grammar rules, but rather the investigation of them.

D. Pragmatics

Table (16) shows the data obtained using a *t* test for independent samples in pragmatics.

Table (16)

t Value of the EG and the CG in *Pragmatics*

Group	No. of Subjects	Means	Standard Deviations	Degree of Freedom	*t* Value	*p*
Experimental	31	12.23	1.94	59	4.93	.01
Control	30	8.40	3.84			

It is clear that the *t* value (4.93) is statistically significant at the level (.01)

favoring the EG. This means that the EG has significantly achieved a higher level *pragmatics* than the CG. Thus, a sub hypothesis can be verified as follows:

• There is a statistically significant difference between the mean score of the EG and that of the CG in *pragmatics* at the level (.01) favoring the EG.

It is generally accepted that the ability to communicate with native speakers appropriately as well as correctly is crucial. Whereas phonological, lexical, and syntactic errors are often forgiven as clear signs that a speaker does not have a native control of the language, pragmatic errors are typically interpreted as breaches of etiquette. Only through materials that reflect how they really speak, rather than how they think they speak, will language learners receive an accurate account of the rules of speaking in a foreign language (Boxer & Pickering, 1995).

Development of pragmatic rules of language use is important for language learners. It is necessary to understand and create language that is appropriate to the situations in which one is functioning, because failure to do so may cause users to miss key points that are being communicated or to have their messages misunderstood. Worse yet is the possibility of a total communication breakdown and the "stereotypical labeling" of EFL users as people who are insensitive, rude, or inept (Eslami-Rasekh, 2005).

Teaching pragmatics empowers students to experience the language at a deeper level. It provides them with an opportunity to expand their communication across cultural boundaries; to say the right word at the proper time. However, a potential problem in teaching pragmatics is the large number of speech acts. Bardovi-Harlig et al. (1991) argue that this large number makes the teaching of them an unattainable goal; it is impossible to prepare students for every context, or even all of the most common situations they will face in natural language settings. Their position, therefore, is that the real responsibility of the classroom teacher is not to instruct students specifically in the intricacies

of complimenting, direction-giving, or closing a conversation. Rather, it is to make students more aware that these functions exist in language, even though it would be impossible to impart this knowledge concerning every speech act explicitly.

Many researchers succeeded in developing their students' pragmatic awareness (e.g., **Bardovi-Harlig et al., 1991**; **Boxer & Pickering, 1995**; **Clennell, 1999**; **Sanger et al., 1999**; **Koester, 2002**; **Silva, 2003**; **Eslami-Rasekh, 2005**; **Takimoto, 2009**). They believe that if students are encouraged to think for themselves about culturally appropriate ways to compliment a friend or say goodbye to a teacher, they may awaken their own abilities for pragmatic analysis. Students may be able to share other personal cases of problematic interactions from their own experiences or from watching movies or programmes in the target language.

For the present dissertation, it was to begin the awareness-raising activity firstly in students' L1. Once the EG had developed a good sense of what to look for in conducting a pragmatic analysis, English became the focus inductively (from data to rules). To show the importance of contextual variables in the use of different language forms, detailed information was provided on the participants, their status, the situations, and the speech event that was occurring.

In the noticing phase, students observed naturally occurring speech acts. The aim was to help them have a good sense of what to look for in conducting a pragmatic analysis, make them adept at formulating and testing hypotheses about language use, and help them become keen and reflective observers of language use in both L1 and L2.

Total of Part I (Language Awareness)

Table (17) shows the data obtained using a *t* test for independent samples in the total of Part I.

Table (17)

t Value of the EG and the CG in *Language Awareness*

Group	No. of Subjects	Means	Standard Deviations	Degree of Freedom	*t* Value	*p*
Experimental	31	38.77	5.67	59	16.52	.01
Control	30	14.73	5.69			

From Table (17), it is observable that the *t* value (16.52) is statistically significant at the level (.01) favoring the EG. This means that the EG has significantly achieved a higher level *language awareness* than the CG. Thus, a sub hypothesis can be verified as follows:

• There are statistically significant differences between the mean scores of the EG and those of the CG in *language awareness* at the level (.01) favoring the EG.

Since it is always a first-and-final draft, oracy is something that students do very unconsciously; talk is the first form of language they learn but they rarely reflect on what it is that they have learnt or whether they know enough about this basic system of communication. Therefore, it is easy to overlook how successfully competent performers do it and to neglect the precise nature of spoken language.

This can be supported by the theoretical background and some related studies (e.g., **Washburn & Christianson, 1996**; **Ying, 2003**; **Gasparini, 2004**; **Abu Radwan, 2005**; **Sayer, 2005**） which reported that students who received explicit instruction outperformed those exposed to implicit instruction and that explicit teaching of spoken features of language can help develop students' language awareness.

The EG has benefited from developing their language awareness through conscious reflection on some features of spoken language in collaborative activities. It is evident that students who engaged in meta talk raised their awareness of language and empowered themselves as language learners. Explicit teaching of spoken language features was useful for building students'

awareness of language as it is actually used in real world. Since students took the role of non-participant observers, they were free to concentrate on the features without fear of performance errors, a problem for EFL students, whose productive skills usually lag behind their receptive capabilities.

Through reflection on features of spoken language, the EG developed a pattern of language interaction within the lab which is as close as possible to that used by competent performers in everyday life. According to Riggenbach and Lazaraton (1994), communication in the classroom should mirror authentic communication that occurs in real world. Language should be explicitly taught and this is possible through a communicative means.

Students' generalization of rules for using language was characteristic of using reflection for developing oracy since students took significant responsibility for their own language learning over and above responding to instruction. Promoting their autonomy, students became more efficient in their language learning as they did not have to spend time waiting for the instructor to provide them with resources or solve their problems. The main aim was to encourage students to take the initiative in their language learning. This was achieved principally by making overt the relationship between classroom language learning activities and students' developing competence. Students were encouraged to use dialogue with their instructor to explore the purpose and relevance of tasks to their needs.

Reflection on how language is used outside the classroom could prepare students for more confident interaction with native speakers and prevent feelings of helplessness and frustration. The responsibility was placed on students to learn rather than on the instructor to teach. For Hales (1997) the objective is to facilitate student learning rather than to act as "gatekeeper" of knowledge, doling it out in small doses. The "bad" news is that many teachers will need to change how they think about the teaching/learning equation with

resulting changes in what they do in the classroom. The "good" news is that teaching will become much more interesting and effective as teachers give up the burden of being the "world's greatest authority" and embark on a collaborative exploration of knowledge, sharing in the joy of discovery and the satisfaction using new skills and ideas.

This does not mean that the changes were easy. Accepting responsibility for their own learning was difficult for students who have been educated as passive listeners. Nevertheless, the world is changing (and has already changed drastically). The explosion in information technology, access to information, and the sheer amount of information necessitate changes in how they think about learning and applying new knowledge. They need to recognize when information is required, how to locate and retrieve information, and how to analyze and criticize that information so that it becomes useful.

Part II

1. Active listening

Table (18) shows the data obtained using a *t* test for independent samples in active listening.

Table (18)

t Value of the EG and the CG in *Active Listening*

Group	No. of Subjects	Means	Standard Deviations	Degree of Freedom	*t* Value	*p*
Experimental	31	3.45	.81	59	3.80	.01
Control	30	2.67	.80			

From this table, the *t* value (3.80) is statistically significant at the level (.01) favoring the EG. This means that the EG has significantly achieved a higher level *active listening* than the CG. Thus, a sub hypothesis can be verified as follows:

• There is a statistically significant difference between the mean score of the EG and that of the CG in *active listening* at the level (.01) favoring the EG.

Previous researchers, who used reflection for improving active listening (e.g., **Lundeberg et al, 1997**; **Cook, 1999**; **Thompson et al., 2004**), confirmed that listening to competent speakers illuminates students' realization of the relation between *listening to* and *production of* speech (Vitanova & Miller, 2002). Recognition of the importance of active listening has resulted in systematic investigation of its use in helping some professions develop effective cooperative relationships during conversation. These studies targeted *education professionals and/or families and students* (e.g., **Block, 1997**; **Lam, 2000**; **English, 2007**; **McNaughton et al., 2007**; **Ward et al.**, **2007**), *Doctors, nurses and patients* (e.g., **Fassaert et al., 2007**; **Gonzalez, 2008**), *lawyers and law students* (e.g., **Middleton, 1982**), and *employees and clients* (e.g., **Rautalinko & Lisper, 2004**).

In the present study, active listening was developed helping students reflect on how others use features of spoken language such *backchannelling devices*, *summarizing*, *asking questions for clarification*, etc. and using them in subsequent tasks. Regardless of form, students' supportive feedback responses analyzed in rating students' responses when analyzing the OT had the same basic interactive function in that they appeared to contribute to a current speaker's talk without threatening her/his floorholding.

Thus, neither minimal responses (e.g., *ehm*, *eh*, *uhm*, etc.) nor more extended types of verbal feedback such as cooperative overlaps were considered as interruptions or as separate turns. Instead, they functioned principally to cooperatively maintain or extend the current speaker's floorholding, and to confirm that, in broad terms, a speaker and a listener shared a common frame of reference.

2. Turn-taking

Table (19) shows the data obtained using *t* test for independent samples in turn-taking.

Table (19)

t Value of the EG and the CG in *Turn-Taking*

Group	No. of Subjects	Means	Standard Deviations	Degree of Freedom	*t* Value	*p*
Experimental	31	3.42	.85	59	2.78	.01
Control	30	2.93	.45			

The *t* value (2.78) is statistically significant at the level (.01) favoring the EG. This means that the EG has significantly achieved a higher level *turn-taking* than the CG. Thus, a sub hypothesis can be verified as follows:

• There is a statistically significant difference between the mean score of the EG and that of the CG in *turn-taking* at the level (.01) favoring the EG.

English speakers generally have a "no gap, no overlap" convention, which makes both silence and two people speaking at the same time inappropriate (Sayer, 2005; Maroni et al., 2008). Throughout the experiment, teaching students criteria of oral performance such as *turn-taking* was not a question of telling them that speakers take turns; they know this from their L1. The problem was to make sure that the activities generate the natural sort of turn-taking that occurs in L2 discourse type.

As an essential aspect of effective communication, previous researchers (e.g., **Washburn & Christianson, 1996**; **Jones, 2003**; **Berry & Englert, 2005**; **Sayer, 2005**; **Maroni et al., 2008**) tried developing students' turn-taking skills such as *overlaps*, *interruptions*, and *pauses* in naturally occurring conversations rather than staged interviews or simulation workshops. This was achieved through exploring:

1. Turn taking within the conversation – *who* takes a turn and *when*.
2. Specific sequences during a conversation (e.g. question/answer, and IRF sequences).

Since the emphasis, in the present study, was on face-to-face conversation between two students, the current speaker finished the turn and the other partner

was obliged to take the next turn. It was quite usual for turns to overlap to some extent, and this could happen without conveying the impression that the speaker was impolite, interrupting the other and openly competing for keeping or getting the floor. For Bosch (2005), most persons will fall silent in the absence of supportive backchannel noises which may overlap completely with their speech, or just fill their silent pauses. In rating students' responses on the OT, therefore, filled pauses were considered as words on a par with lexical words, for this simple reason that if a speaker produced a filled pause, this was most likely a sign that the current turn was not yet over. Both *ums* and *uhs* indicated the expectation of upcoming delays.

3. Questioning

Table (20) shows the data obtained using *t* test for independent samples in questioning.

Table (20)

t Value of the EG and the CG in *Questioning*

Group	No. of Subjects	Means	Standard Deviations	Degree of Freedom	*t* Value	*p*
Experimental	31	3.58	.96	59	3.13	.01
Control	30	2.83	.87			

The *t* value (3.13) is statistically significant at the level (.01) favoring the EG. This means that the EG has significantly achieved a higher level *questioning* than the CG. Thus, a sub hypothesis can be verified as follows:

• There is a statistically significant difference between the mean score of the EG and that of the CG in *questioning* at the level (.01) favoring the EG.

For its vital importance to oral performance, a lot of studies tried developing questioning for *teachers* (e.g., **Collins, 1986**), *students* (e.g., **Blank-Libra, 1997**), *nurses* (e.g., **Profetto-McGrath, 2004**; **Nicholl & Tracey, 2007**), and *accountants* (e.g., **Burns & Moore, 2008**). These studies proved a positive effect on some aspects of behaviour of the target samples as they explicitly focused on both improving the elicitation and response to questions.

Questioning is a major criterion that the present study addressed. Separate sessions were not used for teaching *questioning*, but it was emphasized when teaching the spoken features of *question intonation patterns* and *tag questions*. According to Berninger and Garvey (1981), a question linguistically specifies a topic for the next response as it provides a special kind of assistance in the construction of a next turn.

Throughout the experiment, the EG's attention was directed to the importance of effective questioning as a real compliment to their oral performance as they should develop it to help themselves completely understand a speaker's real needs. Otherwise, they could be responding to what they guess s/he means which may or may not be correct. For achieving that, they should go beyond listening and look for meaning that's deeper than the spoken message.

4. Responding

Table (21) shows the data obtained using a *t* test for independent samples in responding.

Table (21)

t Value of the EG and the CG in *Responding*

Group	No. of Subjects	Means	Standard Deviations	Degree of Freedom	*t* Value	*p*
Experimental	31	3.77	.96	59	2.81	.01
Control	30	3.03	1.10			

Results yielded by Table (21) show that the *t* value (2.81) is statistically significant at the level (.01) favoring the EG. This means that the EG has significantly achieved a higher level *responding* than the CG. Thus, a sub hypothesis can be verified as follows:

• There is a statistically significant difference between the mean score of the EG and that of the CG in *responding* at the level (.01) favoring the EG.

Being able to respond effectively was an important requirement in, for example, any type of therapeutic counselling work. Some previous studies (e.g., **Crutchfield et al., 2000; Butow et al., 2008**) proved that responding appropriately is a key skill a counsellor or therapist must apply during one-to-one counselling sessions with a client. As a result of training, the amount and type of information that patients gave during consultations to trained therapists increased highly.

Throughout the experiment, the EG's attention was drawn to the fact that responding requires focus, concentration and interest in the other interlocutor, and what is being expressed. At the same time, *macrostructures* (see Chapter II, pp. 58-59) were concentrated upon. As a consequence, students' were aware that even casual conversations have a form and a sequence to follow. They had to know that for each turn there must be a response and even minimal responses have a function in giving feedback to the speaker.

5. Overall performance quality

Table (22) shows the data obtained using *t* test for independent samples in overall performance quality.

Table (22)

t Value of the EG and the CG in *Overall Performance Quality*

Group	No. of Subjects	Means	Standard Deviations	Degree of Freedom	*t* Value	*p*
Experimental	31	4.10	.83	59	5.01	.01
Control	30	2.93	.98			

Results yielded by Table (22) show that the *t* value (5.01) is statistically significant at the level (.01) favoring the EG. This means that the EG has significantly achieved a higher level *overall performance quality* than the CG. Thus, a sub hypothesis can be verified as follows:

• There is a statistically significant difference between the mean score of the EG and that of the CG in *overall performance quality* at the level (.01) favoring the EG.

Oracy is not the private expression of personal feelings and perception which are impossible to communicate to others but it enables individuals to participate in a broader community of those who use language in similar ways. For this participation to occur, speech must be expressive, clear, and audible.

A number of instances in students' reflections speak of the value of empowering students with rules of spoken language. A student commented:

> Now, I know what makes my speech more understandable, like raising my voice enough to be audible and enunciating my words. I feel I am constantly improving my speech. I feel it is time to surf real speech and mature myself from true conversation.

Total of Part II (Oral Performance)

Table (23) shows the data obtained using a *t* test for independent samples in the total of Part II.

Table (23)

Value of the EG and the CG in *Oral Performance*

Group	No. of Subjects	Means	Standard Deviations	Degree of Freedom	*t* Value	*p*
Experimental	31	36.65	6.78	59	4.54	.01
Control	30	28.80	6.70			

The *t* value (4.54) is statistically significant at the level (.01) favoring the EG. This means that the EG has significantly achieved a higher level *oral performance* than the CG. Thus, a sub hypothesis can be verified as follows:

• There are statistically significant differences between the mean scores of the EG and those of the CG in *oral performance* at the level (.01) favoring the EG.

The most common kind of spoken language is conversation, in which one person communicates speaking to another one or to other people. For Berry and Englert (2005), conversation is defined as "talk-in-interaction that must be negotiated with others to be effective" (p. 35). Just as there are rules in pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, and pragmatics (distinct features of

spoken language), so there are rules of integrating these features in conversation. Even in the most unpredictable conversations, there are certain devices that are used repeatedly. Wei-dong (2007) mention that conversations proceed in an organized way, but all participants have to work making sense of things, supporting each other, checking for meaning, and so on. A conversation, unlike a piece of written work, is the work of at least two people. It has been investigated in two ways: first, by analyzing transcriptions of naturally occurring conversations; and second, by analyzing video-recordings, with an emphasis on the role played by nonverbal signals.

The present study followed the second way of analyzing audio-recording a two-way conversation. Helping students reflect on how others use the English language aimed at increasing their sensitivity to some underlying rules of the conversation process. Knowing distinct features of spoken language entailed an acquaintance of the rules of putting them into actual, real-life use; it entailed knowing how to use language to interact. Students developed attending and listening skills by practicing with each other. There was a move more and more toward giving them the opportunity to practice their oral performance skills rather than just being taught them.

Managing to participate in a two-way conversation involved far more than knowledge of the language system and the factors creating coherence in one-way discourse. The EG's success in two-way conversation did not just depend on *what* they produced (Part I), but also on *how* effectively they were able to participate in conversational exchanges (Part II). The present study started from two premises – mentioned by Sayer (2005):

1. Students are capable speakers in their own L1; they can benefit from work on transferring unconscious interaction from their L1.

2. Conventions in conversation are culturally-specific, so they need to be aware of what English conventions are.

For developing oral performance, the present study undertook promoting students' *active listening*, *turn-taking*, *questioning*, *responding*, and *overall performance quality*. Previous studies (e.g., **Washburn & Christianson, 1996**; **Goh, 1997**; **Clennell, 1999**; **Kauffman, 1999**; **Radinsky, 2000**; **Sayer, 2005**; **Valkanova & Watts, 2007**) helped students reflect for developing one or two of these criteria.

Language Awareness and Oral Performance

For answering the fourth question: **To what extent can Tourism and Hospitality students' awareness of the target spoken language features predict their oral performance?**, *simple regression* was used to identify whether the EG students' scores on Part I (total of their awareness of the target spoken language features) – independent variable – can predict their scores on Part II (total of their oral performance criteria) – dependent variable. It is recommended by Information Technology Services, California State University (2004) to run a *scatter plot* before performing a regression analysis to determine if there is a *linear relationship* between the variables or not. If there is no linear relationship (i.e., points on a graph not clustered in a straight line) there is no need to run a simple regression. The scatter plot (see Figure 17) indicates that there is a linear relationship between the variables: Part I and Part II of the post-OT.
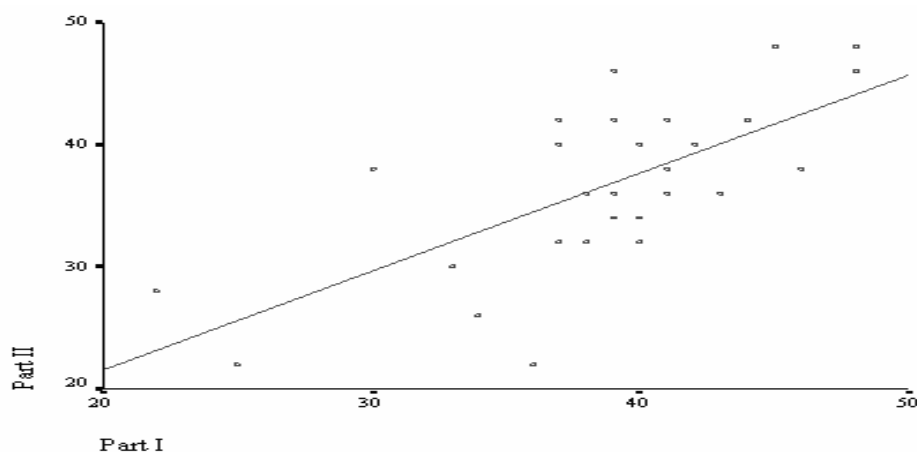
Figure (17): Relationship Between the EG's Scores on Part I and Part II of the Post-OT

Running a linear regression analysis, Table (24) shows the results.

Table (24)

Correlation Coefficient R, Predictor R^2, Adjusted R^2, and Standardized Coefficient β of the
Relationship Between the EG's Scores on Part I and Part II of the Post-OT

Independent Variable X	Dependent Variable Y	R	R^2	Adjusted R^2	β	Slope Constant α	Y-Intercept b
Part I	Part II	.67	.45	.43	.67	.80	5.53

From this table, it can be concluded:

1. R=.67, so students' scores on Part I are strongly related to their scores on Part II.

2. R^2=.45 indicates that students' awareness of the target spoken language features predicts their oral performance almost 45% correctly.

3. Students' scores on Part I explain the variance in their scores on Part II of the post-OT with about 45%.

4. Adjusted (R^2=.43) provides an estimate of how well the relationship between Part I and Part II predicts future data set from Tourism and Hospitality students.

For estimating the significance of this regression between Part I and Part II of the post-OT, the analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used. Table (25) shows its results.

Table (25)

ANOVA for the Regression Between Part I and Part II of the Post-OT

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Mean Square	F	p
Regression	621.36	1	621.36		
Residuals	757.73	29	26.12	23.78	.01
Total	1379.09	30			

Referring to table (25), the statistical significance of F (23.78) is (.01), so the independent variable (total on Part I) does a good job explaining the variation in the dependent variable (total on Part II) in a way that from the values of the former, the values of the latter can be concluded. The slope constant α and the Y-intercept b should be substituted in the following *linear equation*:

$Y = b + \alpha X$

$Y = 5.53 + .80 X$

Where:

Y = values of the total on Part II

X = values of the total on Part I

Thus, the following hypothesis was verified:

- Tourism and Hospitality students' awareness of some spoken language features (i.e., *phonology*, *vocabulary*, *grammar*, and *pragmatics*) can predict their oral performance – including criteria such as *active listening*, *turn-taking*, *questioning*, *responding*, and *overall performance quality* – on the oracy post-test.

Some studies affirmed that awareness of some language features develops students' oral performance (e.g., **Sengupta et al., 1999**; **Yiakoumetti, 2005**). Consequently, dividing the OT into two parts: Part I for assessing students' awareness of some spoken language features, and Part II for assessing students oral performance aimed to determine whether promoting students' awareness of how competent performers use those features could have any impact on their oral performance.

Incorporating awareness-raising activities in the programme in a way of stimulating students' reflection was both in order to increase their knowledge of the language system and to use this knowledge in communication. Facilitating a learning process in which they were given both an opportunity and encouragement to speak and explore their own learning process (i.e., *learn through talk and learn about talk*) ended in an increased awareness for the EG students; not only of *what* they learn, but also *how* they learn it and *what* they can do with that knowledge.

The rationale of the LA is that differences between students' L1 and L2 are often ignored and go unnoticed unless they are directly addressed. Some

awareness-raising activities were designed to make students consciously aware of some differences between some L1 and L2 speech acts; how the relationship between the participants affects the register, the functionality of some discourse markers, etc. That is, the aim was to expose them to some pragmatic aspects of both languages and to provide them with the analytic tools they need to arrive at their own generalizations concerning contextually appropriate language use.

When the EG students had LA, they were able to think about language and talk about it. This required them to have metalanguage to refer to the way language is used. LA also helped students be aware of how language is used by others and describe this. It enabled them to adjust their own language to respond to a particular situation with the correct language. Since the first procedures were usually experiential rather than analytical, students listened to a text and responded with their own views and opinions before studying the language in the text and answering comprehension-type questions. Keeping a SJ, they developed higher responsibility for undertaking their own learning. The main objective is to help students achieve learning readiness as well as independence from the instructor.

Spoken Journal for Developing Oracy

For answering the fifth question: **To what extent can Tourism and Hospitality students' scores on their oral assignments (Spoken Journal entries) predict their level on the post-OT?**, *simple regression* was used to identify whether the EG students' total scores on their SJ assignments (independent variable) can predict their total scores on the post-OT (dependent variable). A *scatter plot* was run before performing the regression analysis to determine if there is a linear relationship between the variables or not. The scatter plot (see Figure 18) indicates that there is a *linear relationship* between the variables: SJ assignments and the post-OT.
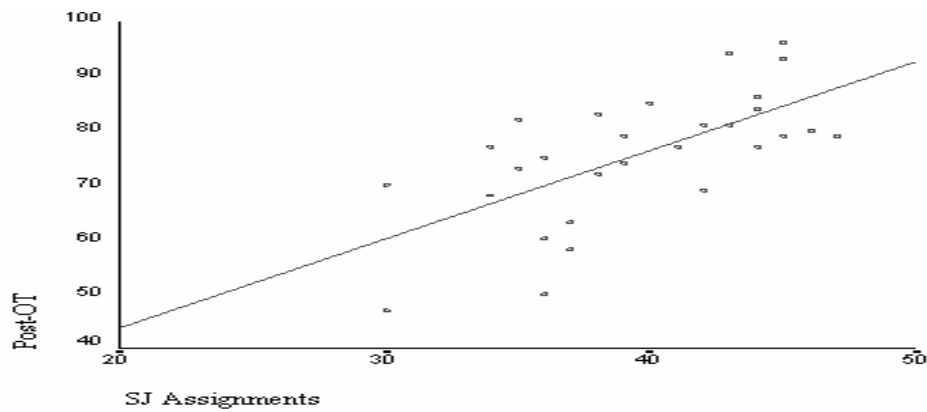
Figure (18): Relationship Between the EG's Total Scores on SJ Assignments Their Total
Scores on the Post-OT

Running a linear regression analysis, Table (26) shows the results.

Table (26)

Correlation Coefficient R, Predictor R^2, Adjusted R^2, Standardized Coefficient β of the Relationship
Between the EG's Total Scores on SJ Assignments and Their Total Scores on the Post-OT

Independent Variable X	Dependent Variable Y	R	R^2	Adjusted R^2	β	Slope Constant α	Y-Intercept b
SJ Assignments	Post-OT	.65	.42	.40	.65	1.62	11.25

From this table, it can be concluded that:

1. $R=.65$, so students' total scores on their SJ assignments (independent variable) are strongly related to their total scores on the post-OT (dependent variable).

2. $R^2=.42$ indicates that students' total scores on their SJ assignments explain the variance in their total scores on the post-OT with about 42%.

3. Students' total scores on their SJ assignments predict their total scores on the post-OT almost 42% correctly.

4. Adjusted ($R^2=.40$) provides an estimate of how well the relationship between students' total scores on their SJ assignments and their total scores on the total post-OT predicts future data set from Tourism and Hospitality students.

For estimating the significance of this regression between the total scores on SJ assignments and the total scores on the post-OT, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used. Table (27) shows its results.

Table (27)

ANOVA for the Regression Between SJ Assignments and the Post-OT

Source of Variance	Sum of squares	Degree of Freedom	Mean square	F	p
Regression	1662.91	1	1662.91		
Residuals	2230.63	29	76.91	21.61	.01
Total	3893.54	30			

Referring to table (27), the statistical significance of *F* (21.61) is (.01), so the independent variable (SJ assignments) does a good job explaining the variation in the dependent variable (the post-OT) in a way that from the values of the former, the values of the latter can be concluded. The slope constant *α* and the *Y*-intercept *b* should be substituted in the following *linear equation*:

$Y = b + α X$

$Y = 11.251 + 1.628 X$

Where:

Y = values of the total scores on SJ assignments

X = values of the total scores on the post-OT

Thus, the following hypothesis was verified:

- Tourism and Hospitality students' *oral assignments* (Spoken Journal entries) can predict their *level on the post-OT*.

The programme embraces not only the findings of the pre-/post-OT administration, but also equally the findings of the students' SJ assignments through the exploration of their own language learning process in classroom settings and beyond it. As a general principle, SJs offered an appropriate evidence for points students made in their work. Previous studies affirmed that using journals whether written or spoken enhances learning in different ways (e.g., **Gray, 1998**; **Woodfield & Lazarus, 1999**; **Fairholme et al., 2000**; **Dantas-Whitney, 2002**; **Simard, 2004**). The essence of the programme is that the ability to discuss language issues in an objective and critical way is at the very core of good performance in oracy.

Assignments were in the form of submitting two SJ entries each two weeks to help students revise their entries more than once. Journal-keeping is some kind of "talking aloud to oneself" for analyzing one's language learning process. This kind of talking was guided by ten questions to extract meaning from experience – for facilitating **proactive reflection**. Doing a SJ entry caused a student to pause, cycle back, and rethink her/his language learning experience.

The quality of students' SJ assignments improved throughout the experiment, with some deep discussion of issues; although many students struggled doing their SJs. Students submitted their journals after two sessions and had them returned with the instructor/researcher's comments at the beginning of the consecutive session.

In Figure (19), five walls graduated in height represent the gradual advance of students' five assignments scores. Each assignment was rated out of 10 scores according to the last two criteria of the rubric, Appendix D. Sessions frequently began with activities inspired by issues raised in students' SJs, such as brainstorming solutions to problems encountered in authentic communicative situations or a common misunderstanding of a certain feature of spoken language.
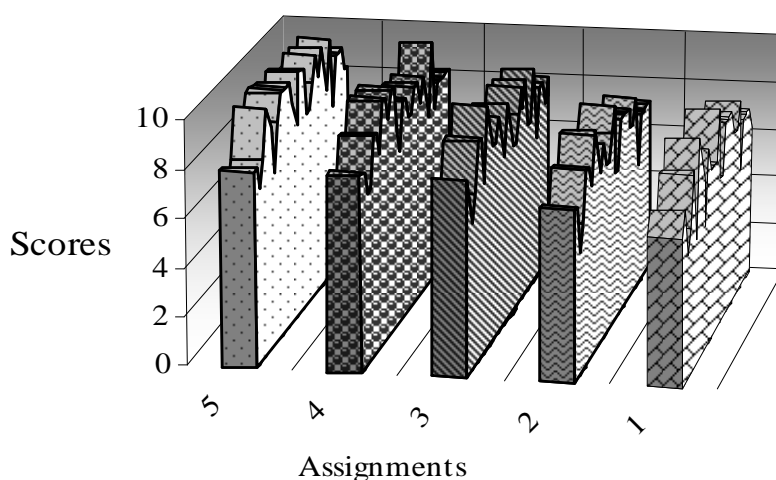
Figure (19): EG's Total Scores on Their SJ Assignments

Underpinning the rationale for using SJ as a reflective tool for developing oracy is the need to encourage students to become increasingly independent and self-directed in their learning. Its use raised students' awareness of the links among learning objectives, processes, and outcomes by requiring them to reflect directly on their own performances rather than relying on pre-structured modes of formal evaluation. This active engagement between students and their learning allowed them to mentally integrate the various stages of the learning process in a holistic way. As a result, students developed a metacognitive awareness of the recursive nature of the learning process, which in turn, was likely to help them evolve into effective life-long learners.

The concern was not to concentrate on *what* and *how* to teach while students remain an abstract, silent body in the classroom. By examining students' reflections, the instructor was given voice to their beliefs and concerns about learning. In other word, students became active partners in their own learning, who developed the skills to monitor and modify their speech patterns if necessary. By giving students the questions of a SJ entry to analyze their language learning processes, the experiment helped them keep improving after they had left the classroom.

Throughout, students were involved in thinking about and analyzing their own language use and since their speech was the material with which they were working, the programme was relevant and meaningful. The SJ was used to create a "safe" dialogue between *individual* students and the instructor, as in the following sample entry from a student:

> I think my oral performance is better than last time. I can speak more fluently and confidently. There are some rules I need to revise such as "question formats." This will help me greatly in my future when interacting with native speakers.

It is clear from this quotation that this student undertakes more responsibility for organizing and carrying out her own learning. In other words, the SJ helped students become more efficient, independent, self-directed and

competent in organizing their own learning long after they had left the classroom. For example, when students engaged in recording a SJ entry, they were expected to take each aspect of learning in turn and make a judgment with respect to it rather than making a global judgment about their overall work.

Boud and Knights (1994) identify some features of any learning activity which are likely to promote students' reflection. These features exactly describe the EG's understanding of doing the SJ assignments as follows:

- Students were actively engaged with a task they accepted for learning – as shown by the SQ.

- The SJ was designed to allow some elements of choice so that students could begin to own it and make it meaningful and worthwhile for them – it thus became a task which was undertaken simply to satisfy the needs of the student.

- The event was not totally predictable to the students who were prompted to notice what they did not expect.

- Students' experience was challenged or confronted in some way which allowed them to reassess it and the assumptions on which they were operating.

- Students were obliged to intervene in some way in their own learning process; they had to make choices and follow the consequences of their choices.

- Students were required to link what was new to their existing frameworks of understanding or confront the need to modify these frameworks.

Listening to the students' voices, the instructor/researcher began to see their valuable contributions to develop their oracy. The more students were listened to, the more the instructor was likely to monitor their progress. This enabled her to plan more effective sessions based on students' feedback and needs. In an answer to the final assignment question: **Did you find the experience of keeping a SJ useful?** If so**, *in what way*?**, there was a consensus among the EG on that the programme was useful and that doing a SJ was an

interesting experience to listen to themselves speaking and to be corrected when making mistakes. A student mentioned:

> I did not use to like English. After the programme, I like it. I am able to analyze my strengths and weaknesses to be a confident speaker of English with tourists.

To sum up, SJ helped students:

1. give a brief description of each session, what was learned and how it might alter future learning;
2. share concerns with the instructor;
3. analyze where the learning process was not working;
4. suggest and monitor the effect of improvements;
5. articulate goals for future learning; and
6. envision their oracy and its importance to their jobs in the future.

That is, doing a SJ encouraged students to develop their ability to judge their language performance and helped them monitor their developing language competences. It also provided a starting point for discussion of students' experiences in the programme, and prompted out-of-class practice. Proactive reflection of constantly evaluating their language development had fostered autonomy among students.

In conclusion, carrying out reflective activities in classrooms meant among other things that students generalized some rules upon which they would proceed as life-long learners when they graduate and meet native and competent speakers. They could work on their own as they were armed with the rules which could be re-modified according to continuous progress. For them, it now seemed like an important thing to keep doing. Practice, self-evaluation, and awareness of spoken language features can initiate a virtuous circle: As students shed their inhibitions, they became more willing to take risks and experiment with language. When they experienced success at meaningful oral communication, their confidence increased, and so did their motivation to go on learning. Chapter V summaries what was carried out to reach these results.

CHAPTER V

Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations

CHAPTER V

Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations

This chapter presents a summary of the study, draws conclusions, offers recommendations, and proposes suggestions for further research.

Summary

This study was carried out to investigate the effectiveness of reflection in developing Tourism and Hospitality students' oracy in English. Helping students reflect on spoken language as competent performers use it, it was aimed to develop their feel for and sensitivity to the English language. As it adopts an awareness-raising stance, reflection developed the EG students' capacity for noticing some features of spoken language as they moved through its two modes: *active reflection* and *proactive reflection*. Therefore, the problem of this study was stated in the following main question:

- **What is the effectiveness of reflection in developing Tourism and Hospitality students' oracy in English?**

Attempting to answer this question, the following sub-questions were answered:

1. What are the aspects of oracy which Tourism and Hospitality students should develop?

2. What are the features associated with the characteristics of spoken language which Tourism and Hospitality students can reflect on?

3. What is the effectiveness of Tourism and Hospitality students' reflection on these features in developing their oracy?

4. To what extent can Tourism and Hospitality students' awareness of the target spoken language features predict their oral performance?

5. To what extent can Tourism and Hospitality students' scores on their oral assignments (Spoken Journal entries) predict their level on the oracy post-test?

The results of investigating the problem of the research can be shown in the following way:

For answering *the first question*, the following was done:

Based upon Hymes' distinction (1972) between *communicative competence* and *performance*, it was supposed that being skillful orally assumes having a relevant knowledge base. The researcher reviewed related literature and previous studies on reflection and oracy, and the learning objectives of teaching English for the students at the Faculty of Tourism and Hospitality, Suez Canal University. The following was identified:

1. two aspects of oracy: *language awareness* and *oral performance*;

2. reflection might help students discover and even fill up their knowledge themselves – as an awareness-raising process; and

3. reflection might develop students' *language awareness* and consequently *develop their oral performance*.

For answering *the second question*, the following was done:

1. Identifying the characteristics of spoken language which are: *spontaneity*, *interactivity*, *interpersonality*, and *relevance*; and

2. Establishing that the relevant knowledge base which Tourism and Hospitality students could reflect on were the features associated with these characteristics of spoken language. These features were:
    A. Phonology:
    1. Sentence intonation pattern
    2. Question intonation patterns

B. Vocabulary:

1. Backchannelling devices

2. Hedges

3. Deictic expressions

4. Discourse markers

C. Grammar:

1. Clauses are usually added (coordinated)

2. Head + body + tail construction

3. Ellipsis

4. Question tags

5. Performance effects, including:
   a. Hesitations
   b. Repeats
   c. False starts
   d. Incompletion

D. Pragmatics:

1. Speech acts

2. Register

For answering *the third question*, the following was done:

1. Choosing some spoken texts that have sufficient occurrences of the target spoken language features and suitable for the students' levels from the course book, <u>English for International Tourism</u>;

2. Preparing the sessions to help the instructor/researcher tutor her students in how to reflect on spoken texts;

3. Showing the sessions (Appendix G) to some jurors (Appendix H) for checking their validity;

4. Determining the two aspects of oracy that Tourism and Hospitality students should develop, the Oracy Test (OT) was designed, validated and made reliable – it consisted of **Part I** (*language awareness*) and **Part II** (*oral performance*);

5. Designing, validating, and making reliable a rubric (SR) for scoring **Part II,** which included five criteria: *active listening*, *turn-taking*, *questioning*, *responding*, and *the overall performance quality*. The SR was validated and made reliable;

6. Assigning two sections from the Faculty of Tourism and Hospitality, Suez Canal University to be either the EG or the CG randomly;

7. Administering the OT to both groups as a pre-test to at the very beginning of the academic year 2008/2009 to identify the students' actual level oracy before the experiment;

8. Depending on pre-testing, the equivalence between the two groups has been determined in the following:

   1. each of the components and the total of Part I,
   2. each of the components and the total of Part II, and
   3. the total of the OT.

9. Stating the research hypothesis:

   • There is a statistically significant difference between the mean score of the EG and that of the CG on the post- OT at the level (.05) favoring the EG.

10. Teaching the EG and the CG using the prepared sessions of English for International Tourism – the EG only had the chance to practice reflection, did a SQ, and kept a SJ during the programme;

11. Administering the OT after the study was over to measure the students' level oracy;

12. Scoring, statistically analyzing and treating the post administrations of the test; and

13. Verifying the hypothesis of the research, the results showed that:

- There is a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the EG and that of the CG on *the post-OT* at the level (.01) favoring the EG.

According to the components of oracy, this hypothesis was divided in the following sub hypotheses:

a. There is no statistically significant difference between the mean score of the EG and that of the CG in *phonology*.

b. There is a statistically significant difference between the mean score of the EG and that of the CG in *vocabulary* at the level (.01) favoring the EG.

c. There is a statistically significant difference between the mean score of the EG and that of the CG in *grammar* at the level (.01) favoring the EG.

d. There is a statistically significant difference between the mean score of the EG and that of the CG in *pragmatics* at the level (.01) favoring the EG.

e. There are statistically significant differences between the mean scores of the EG and those of the CG in *language awareness* at the level (.01) favoring the EG.

f. There is a statistically significant difference between the mean score of the EG and that of the CG in *active listening* at the level (.01) favoring the EG.

g. There is a statistically significant difference between the mean score of the EG and that of the CG in *turn-taking* at the level (.01) favoring the EG.

h. There is a statistically significant difference between the mean score of the EG and that of the CG in *questioning* at the level (.01) favoring the EG.

i. There is a statistically significant difference between the mean score of the EG and that of the CG in *responding* at the level (.01) favoring the EG.

j. There is a statistically significant difference between the mean score of the EG and that of the CG in *overall performance quality* at the level (.01) favoring the EG.

k. There are statistically significant differences between the mean scores of the EG and those of the CG in *oral performance* at the level (.01) favoring the EG.

For answering *the fourth question*, the following was done:

1. Stating the following hypothesis:

   • Tourism and Hospitality students' awareness of some features of spoken language can predict their oral performance.

2. Administering the post-OT, *simple regression* was used to identify whether the EG students' scores on Part I (total of their awareness of the target spoken language features) – independent variable – can predict their scores on Part II (total of their oral performance) – dependent variable;

3. Running a *linear regression analysis*, it was concluded that:

   a. Students' awareness of the target spoken language features is strongly related to their oral performance.

   b. Students' awareness of the target spoken language features predicts their oral performance almost 45% correctly.

4. Accepting the previously-mentioned hypothesis:

   • Tourism and Hospitality students' awareness of some spoken language features (i.e., *phonology*, *vocabulary*, *grammar*, and *pragmatics*) can predict their oral performance – including criteria such as *active listening*, *turn-taking*, *questioning*, *responding*, and *overall performance quality* – on the oracy post-test.

For answering *the fifth question*, the following was done:

1. Designing and validating the Spoken Journal (SJ) questions to help the EG do a SJ entry each week;

2. Stating the following hypothesis:

   - *Tourism and Hospitality students' oral assignments (Spoken Journal entries) can predict their level on the post-OT.*

3. Administering the post-OT and scoring the students' SJ assignments, *simple regression* was used to identify whether the EG students' total scores on their SJ assignments (independent variable) can predict their total scores on the post-OT (dependent variable).;

4. Running a *linear regression analysis*, it was concluded that:

   a. Students' total scores on their SJ assignments are strongly related to their total scores on the post-OT.

   b. Students' total scores on their SJ assignments predict their total scores on the post-OT almost 42% correctly.

5. Accepting the previously-mentioned hypothesis:

   - Tourism and Hospitality students' *oral assignments* (Spoken Journal entries) can predict their level on the *oracy post-test*.

Findings

Several findings emerged as a consequence of administering this study. They can be summed up as follows:

1. Incorporating tasks drawn from students' field of specialty resulted in enhanced motivation.

2. Facilitating a learning process in which students were given both an opportunity and encouragement to speak and explore their own learning process (i.e., *learn through talk and learn about talk*) ended in an

increased awareness; not only of *what* they learn, but also *how* they learn it and *what* they can do with that knowledge.

3. The ability to discuss language issues in an objective and critical way is at the very core of good performance in oracy.

4. Making the language learning process salient, the programme helped students understand and manage their learning in a way which contributed to their performance in subsequent language tasks.

5. Giving students the questions of a SJ entry to analyze their language learning processes, the experiment helped them keep improving after they had left the classroom.

6. Requiring students to reflect directly on their own performances rather than relying on pre-structured modes of formal evaluation, the SJ raised their awareness of the links between learning objectives, processes, and outcomes.

7. Having a shared rubric, students became aware of the expected standards and thus knew what counted as a quality work.

8. Students' SJs enabled the instructor/researcher to hear their authentic voices and perceptions of their learning.

9. As a significant attainment, the study helped Tourism and Hospitality students:

   a. arouse their sense that spoken language is something that deserves reflection on its features;

   b. increase their awareness of why some language characteristics work in speech but not in writing;

   c. use metalanguage for talking technically about the features associated with these characteristics;

   d. show, themselves, the value of this awareness in their SJs; and

    e. turn experience of analyzing features of spoken language into learning of rules of managing a conversation.

Conclusions

Based upon these findings and in light of the pre-/post-testing, it was concluded that:

1. Reflection is effective in developing Tourism and Hospitality students' oracy in English. The improved aspects of oracy are **language awareness** including *vocabulary*, *grammar*, and *pragmatics* and **oral performance** including *active listening*, *turn-taking*, *questioning*, *responding*, and *overall performance quality*.

2. Language awareness of the spoken language features helps Tourism and Hospitality students develop their oral performance.

3. Keeping a SJ helps Tourism and Hospitality students develop their oracy.

Recommendations

Based upon the findings of this study, it is recommended that:

First: Instructors of Tourism and Hospitality students should:

1. develop their language awareness since it is difficult to guide others in the raising of their awareness when their own has not been raised first!

2. know that the more they know about the material they are teaching, the better, since it is both the object of instruction and the medium;

3. know about various contextual variables of speech acts (e.g. the participants, their status, the situation, the speech event, etc.) to determine what is naturalistic input for their students; since many commercially available English-language materials do not provide natural or even pragmatically appropriate, conversational models for students; and

4. provide detailed information of various contextual variables in teaching spoken texts.

Second: Tourism and Hospitality students are invited to become researchers – observe and record native speakers using the language orally – to help themselves notice and use the language in ways that are contextually appropriate.

Third: Curriculum designers should:

1. supplement or extend the methodology of "three Ps" to include procedures which involve students in greater language awareness of the nature of spoken and written texts,

2. design more teaching materials of English suitable for Tourism and Hospitality students and their needs, and

3. integrate pragmatics into the language curriculum by drawing on natural conversations, students' observations, and incomplete dialogues in textbooks. Doing this, they should:

   • apply sociolinguistic research findings to English language teaching through authentic materials that reflect spontaneous speech behaviour;

   • know that there are also no rules for determining the order of turns among conversational participants. Likewise, there are no rules concerning the number of turns a participant can take or the possible content of a turn; and

   • capture students' communication needs on an ongoing basis rather than being filtered through other means.

Suggestions for Further Research

It is suggested to conduct further research on the following points:

1. Replicating this study on both third and fourth years at Ismailia Faculty of Tourism and Hospitality as a longitudinal study;

2. Conducting a qualitative study for analyzing Tourism and Hospitality students' SJs;

3. Finding alternative ways for raising students' phonological awareness;

4. Enhancing word consciousness – teaching students the ways in which words are used figuratively such as *idioms* (e.g., on the same boat, get ahead of one's self) and *word play* (e.g., jokes, puns, riddles, tongue twisters, etc.) – for EFL students' vocabulary development;

5. Estimating the extent to which spoken texts in EFL teaching material reflect the existence of spoken grammar and other features of spoken language;

6. Videotaping conversations for developing non-verbal components of oracy;

7. The effectiveness of oracy in developing some reflective thinking skills;

8. The effectiveness of reflection in developing literacy; and

9. The effectiveness of reflection in developing various instructional objectives in different subject matters (e.g., math, science, social studies, etc.).

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APPENDIX A

Pilot Study

PILOT STUDY

Role-Play Situation

Student A: You are going to be interviewed for a *receptionist* job candidate.

Student B: You are going to play the role of a *hotel manager*. Ask the *receptionist* job candidate three questions.

Changing roles: Student A is the *hotel manager* while student B is the *receptionist* job candidate.

A Scoring Rubric for Oracy[*]

Excellent **Graded 4**	Presents ideas clearly. Is able to fluently express ideas and ask and answer questions with ease.
Good **Graded 3**	Presents ideas well enough to be understood. Is able to give brief answers to questions.
Satisfactory **Graded 2**	Speaks with some hesitation, but can communicate basic ideas. Shows hesitation in understanding and responding to questions and comments.
Needs improvement **Graded 1**	Attempts to speak, but has difficulty communicating basic ideas to classmates. Has difficulty understanding questions and comments.

[*]Adapted: Lambert (2003)

APPENDIX B

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THE EFFECTIVENESS OF REFLECTION IN DEVELOPING STUDENTS' ORACY IN ENGLISH AT THE FACULTIES OF TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY

Instructor's Guide

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Introduction

In an era of vast amounts of information and enormous resources of learning a foreign language (e.g., newspapers, books, TV channels, songs, movies, internet, etc.), content learning is no longer a major priority. Knowing how to find information and understanding both the content and process of discovering that information are what students need in order to become lifelong learners in a global context. In such a context, it is seen as desirable that students are not only able to engage with questions about the 'what' but also the 'how' and the 'why' (Martin, 2000; Pickering, 2008).

Although experience is the basis for learning a foreign language, it is claimed that one of the most effective ways of promoting such learning is to engage in reflection on a learning experience; a process which would involve mentally revisiting the experience, interpreting it, and evaluating what was gained from it. That is, reflection is the essential part of a learning process because it results in making sense of, extracting meaning from, or generalizing a rule from an experience to transfer to another similar experience. In simpler terms, more learning can be derived from reflection on the process of learning from an experience than from the experience itself (AlSheikh, 2000; Pickering, 2008)

Effective learners are reflective ones, who not only consider critically what they have learnt, but also aware of the process of their learning. In a language-learning context, this means knowing about oneself as a learner; namely, the knowledge and self-awareness a student has of his own language learning process. Engaging in reflective practice requires students to assume the perspective of an external observer in order to identify the assumptions and knowledge underlying their practice (AlSheikh, 2000; Ellis, 2004; Grainger, 1999).

Students at the Faculties of Tourism and Hospitality, as an age group, are at a marked development of mental functioning; an increased self-awareness and a change from Piaget's concrete operations to formal reasoning. Translated into classroom terms, this means that they are at a stage where they can reflect critically on *what, why,* and *how* they are doing in order to plan and direct their own learning. Asked the right question, these students are capable of expressing an awareness about their own language learning that they are rarely given credit for. In fact, this awareness can be developed (Ellis, 2004).

Most classroom situations and materials rarely inform students explicitly why they are using certain strategies or get them to reflect on how they are learning. In other words, students are not helped to understand the significance of what they are doing (Ellis, 2004). This **Instructor's Guide** introduces some

activities which incorporate reflection into language learning for developing Tourism and Hospitality students' oracy (i.e., their ability to convey thoughts and ideas orally in a way that others understand and to understand what others say). For doing so, they are encouraged to adopt a reflective, analytical stance towards their own and others' oral language use – native or non native speakers of English.

Aim

Teaching reflection on features of spoken language aims at stimulating students' curiosity about and interest in oral language use. For converting this aim into reality, two modes of reflection will be used. Seibert (1999) classified reflection into:

Active reflection: It is of the moment; involving students in thinking about what they are experiencing in class. Students will be helped use oral language for:

- stating the objectives of a session,
- explaining the use of different classroom activities,
- signposting the stages of a session,
- describing language,
- analyzing,
- making comparisons to find similarities, and differences between L1 and L2, and
- discovering rules.

Helping students make explicit their understanding about language can develop their power of observation and analysis of spoken language, which may help them further in their independent learning.

Proactive reflection: It involves thinking about an experience that is deliberate and temporally and spatially removed from the experience. This is done later at home; Students make their journal entries. This enables them to spend time exploring why they acted as they did, what was happening in a group and so on. In so doing, they develop sets of questions and ideas about their activities and practice. In the present study, spoken journals and rubrics are used for helping students keep recording of their development in oracy. They enable them to reflect on what they did, why, how they used language, and what they need to do in the future.

Assumptions

Teaching reflection on features of spoken language is based on some assumptions such as:

1. Reflection is a deliberate process, affected by students' motivations and preferences, and it is used to develop, refine ideas and beliefs and to explore different and new perceptions (Seibert, 1999).

2. The more informed (and aware) students are about language and language learning, the more effective they will be at managing their own language learning (Ellis, 2004).

3. Reflection is an important means by which students integrate prior knowledge and experiences with newer ones (AlSheikh, 2000).

4. Experience becomes educative when reflection creates new meanings and leads to growth in the ability to take informed action (Richards and Lockhart, 2001).

5. Reflection is a more encompassing process whereby a student is aware of his knowledge and the gaps in his knowledge, resources (i.e. dictionaries, grammar books, references, etc.), assumptions, and past experiences (Goh, 1997).

6. Reflection on language teaches students to use and develop their reasoning and abstraction faculties and their observation and analysis skills; skills desired for in a global setting (Ellis, 2004).

7. Extra reflection time allows important questions to be modelled, so students will be able to ask themselves these independently on other occasions (Sprenger, 2005).

You, as an instructor, need to identify clear objectives for teaching spoken language in order to make implicit knowledge about it explicit, as well as develop students' awareness of the learning process. Work focused on areas of features of spoken language could be planned into various oral situations such as *telephone calls, taking hotel bookings, checking in/out, staff meetings, job interviews, taking a menu, casual conversations*, etc. This will be outlined in plans of the sessions. Furthermore, you need to have some idea about a range of issues including:

Questioning

Students should not be left to uncover the implicit information without some kind of help. It is your responsibility to take on a guiding questioning role. You can do this by prompting, modelling questions and discussing learning for helping students reflect on *what* they have done, *how* they did it and *how well* they did. The questions you ask about learning have to be extremely clear and directly related to a learning experience. You invite students to think about an aspect of their learning that is abstract and, for most, will be new. Unless the questions are well-formulated and concrete, in accessible language, the students will be confused and unable to reply in a way that helps them, or you (their

instructor), become aware of their learning processes (Ellis, 2004). A good question, then, must:

- invite students to think, so that students can justify their responses;
- focus students' attention and encourage observation;
- be productive; seek a response and generate more questions;
- work from the particular to the general; and
- be conversational, expressing something of the personality of the individual, with no academic jargon).

For asking questions in a reflective session, Seibert (1999) mentions six categories of reflective questions:

1. Questions of clarification (What do you mean by __?);
2. Questions that probe assumptions (Why are you asking __?);
3. Questions about viewpoints (Why do you think that is true?);
4. Questions about perspectives (Why have you chosen this rather than that perspective?);
5. Questions that probe implications and consequences (What effect would that have?); and
6. Questions about the question (How can we find out __?).

Questions can be described as oral prompts which could be integrated into a learning conversation to encourage students to reflect and articulate. Wright and Bolitho (1993) suggest that instructors may need to pose questions for their students, in their classroom work where appropriate, to reflect on some or all of the following:

1. Attitude of speaker;
2. Feelings of listener;
3. Preconceived ideas about language;
4. Choice by speaker in discourse (e.g. choice of structure, choice of vocabulary);
5. Contrastive work (between L1/L2); and
6. Myths and 'sacred cows' (many of which lie in grammatical rules or guides to style and usage)

Being asked answering questions, students can develop a greater understanding of themselves as language learners, become more actively and personally involved in the learning process, more confident and curious, ask more questions, and develop strong motivation and positive attitudes towards language learning.

Using recordings and transcripts

One way to raise students' awareness of the features of spoken language is to expose them to instances of speaking (spoken genres or situations) and to have them study transcripts of such instances. When transcribing speech, especially

conversation, analysts usually decide to use a set of notational conventions to represent intonation and other features (such as pauses or overlapping speech), though the level of detail will depend on the purpose of the transcription and the number of features being studied. It involves not only the words that are spoken but also noting **backchannelling devices** such as *oh*, *urn* and *er*, timing the length of pauses, identifying sections of overlap and resisting the temptation to modify spoken language into grammatical, punctuated written English. Normal use of capitals, commas and full stops is not generally found in transcriptions of speech, though proper nouns retain their initial capitals and apostrophes are kept for contracted forms and possessive constructions (McCarthy, 2000; Davies, 2005; Clark, 2007).

No single or universal set of conventions exists for the transcription of speech. Unless there is a special interest in the accents of the speakers, a non-phonetic or orthographic transcription is used. It is usual to set out the transcript like a play script; that is, with the speaker's name or initial on the left-hand side and the utterance after it. In the training session, you with the students have to establish some transcription notations such as:

- (.): just noticeable pause

- hh hh: speakers' in:breath and out:breath respectively

- (h): this is inserted in the middle of a word to denote 'laughter within that word

- Word↓: a falling arrow after a word denotes the falling and end of a sentence   intonation.

- word↑: a rising arrow after a word depicts a rising, questioning intonation.

- £words£: pound signs enclose words spoken in a "smiling voice"

- wo:rd: a colon indicates stretching of the preceding sound.

- (word): Transcriber's guess at an unclear word or words.

- ( ): unclear talk.

- WORD: capitals indicate even louder speech.

- >word word<, <word word>: inward arrows indicate faster speech, out-ward arrows slower speech.

- [overlap]: overlapping speech.

It is acceptable to be selective in your choice of conventions as long as you provide a key and apply the symbols consistently and clearly. To prepare you for all that is involved in transcription; it is worthwhile undertaking a small practice exercise with a student. Once you have recorded between 10 and 15 minutes of a conversation, you and your students should listen to all the tape

recording and then agree on the sections to be transcribed. When you have finished, compare your transcription with that by your students. Points of comparison are whether or not they have included anything other than words; whether the transcripts are identical, and if not, in which respects they are different. It is also worth taking some time to think about features of talk that were hard to capture and why.

Reflective Tools

These tools will be used both to help students undertake a reflective stance towards their own language learning process and content and to help you – the instructor – gain an insight into their progress and any difficulty they may have. Since reflection is a very individual activity, based on the personal experience of the student, it is inappropriate to grade reflection in a way which suggests that one student's reflection is of more value than another's. This does not imply that there are no qualitative differences in different examples of reflection. There is also a danger that grading might lead to students trying to impress an assessor and gain higher marks for a 'correct' response which means that they are unlikely to focus on a central aspect of reflection: exploring their uncertainties and considering alternative or creative ways of viewing the material with which they are working. However, these tools can provide some kind of evidence that students have been engaged in reflection. These tools are:

Student Questionnaire (SQ)

Reflection is a conscious act of the student. The intent of the student is crucial as s/he must be willing to sustain and protract that state of thinking on his learning. According to many students, this kind of intellectual search is disagreeable; they want to get it ended as soon as possible. Students will be asked to respond to a questionnaire after the second session. A Student Questionnaire will be administered so that students can begin to appreciate the reflection process as a way of learning.

Student Questionnaires can be a useful way of gathering information about students' preferences and personal reactions to the whole process. After the second session, you begin skimming for misunderstandings. Thus, you can clarify for an individual student what s/he did not understand or prefer. At the same time, these questionnaires will give you an idea about each student's commitment to reflection.

Spoken Journal (SJ)

Students are required to keep a weekly journal in which they record and comment on their experience as learners in the programme. It provides a regular means of reflection; it offers the opportunity for reviewing their work, for processing their experience, generating alternative ways of viewing a situation and achieving new appreciations or understandings. Students are encouraged to

return to their own experiences outside class and focus on what these events mean to them.

Journal-keeping is a systematic, reflective tool of self-expression and documentation of learning. Its use originates in a rationale indicating that when students externalize and articulate their developing knowledge, they learn more effectively. It captures the process of learning and the stages in a student's development over the time of the course. At the same time, it acts as a spur to regular reflection. If you have reached your students – that is, if they have been attending to you and the class – they will have something to record in their journals. You can tell students to follow these procedures:

1. Make your journal entry weekly, shortly after the session, so that the events can be fresh in your mind.

2. Record your answers to the questions included.

3. Review your journal entries regularly, what might have not been obvious when recorded may later become apparent.

4. After two entries (i.e., two weeks), evaluate your journal according to the pre-determined rubric.

5. Submit your journal entries to the instructor who will return before the beginning of the next week.

You begin to listen to the journals, looking for misunderstandings. You can comment on each tape or CD for future development. You have to give your feedback before the beginning of the next session.

Table
A Schedule of the Experiment

Sessions introduced to both the CG and the EG			Procedures introduced to the EG only			
No.	Date	Topic	Features of Spoken Language	Assignments	Submitting Assignments	
					No.	Due Time
1.	14/10/2008	**Pre-test**	………………	………	…	………
2.	21/10/2008	**Training** [a]	………………	SJ (entry 1)	…	………
3.	28/10/2008	**Student Questionnaire** [a] & *Transport*	Intonation patterns	SJ (entry 2)	1: (entries 1 & 2)	2/11/2008
4.	4/11/2008	*Types of Holiday*	• Backchannelling devices • Hedges	SJ (entry 3)	…	…………
5.	11/11/2008	*Tour Operators*	• Discourse markers • Deixis	SJ (entry 4)	2: (entries 3 & 4)	16/11/2008
6.	18/11/2008	**Speechwork: Intonation in tag questions** & *Travel Agents:* **Listening 1**	Performance effects	SJ (entry 5)	…	…………
7.	25/11/2008	*Travel Agents:* **Listening 1** (con.)	Ellipsis	SJ (entry 6)	3: (entries 5 & 6)	30/11/2008
8.	2/12/2008	*Travel Agents:* **Listening 2**	Register	SJ (entry 7)	…	…………
9.	16/12/2008	*Travel Agents:* **Listening 2** (con.)	Speech acts	SJ (entry 8)	4: (entries 7 & 8)	21/12/2008
10.	23/12/2008	*Where people go*	Revision	SJ (entry 9)	…	…………
11.	30/12/2008	**Post-test**	………………	……………	5: (entry 9)	28/12/2008

[a] The CG did not follow these procedures.

Session 2 (Training)

Objectives
This session aims at:
- motivating students by giving them fairly new thought-provoking perspectives on reflection on spoken language,
- training students how to use their reflective tools, and
- training students how to transcribe speech.

Procedures
The following steps are important in introducing and establishing a paving climate for reflection:

1. *articulating an educational rationale for reflection*
   Why is reflection important? How is it different from other aspects of learning, particularly memorizing?

2. *introducing a simple exercise to illustrate reflection*
   - asking each student to choose another one to act as his or her learning partner. The aim of this relationship is that each student have someone else with whom they discuss ideas that are raised;
   - asking students in pairs to interview each other about an activity earlier in the class using reflective questions: *what* happened? *what* was new in this situation? *how* did you feel? *what* did it mean?;
   - providing an opportunity for students to clarify their understanding of the idea;
   - Making the distinction between: reflection and evaluation, or reflective and nonreflective; and
   - encouraging students to bring forward examples of reflection to be discussed.

3. *identifying areas of the process that students can make their own.*
   Tell them about the reflective tools and how they can manage doing them.

4. *providing time*
   Reflection takes time and it will normally occupy students in much time outside the class particularly at the early stages. You should take the matter seriously and allocate precious meeting time to important matters.

5. *treating reflection as a normal activity*
   While it might be necessary to build particular reflection activities into courses in a way which at first might seem exhausting, it becomes commonplace over time and can be regarded as part of the norm of teaching and learning. This is a positive development if it means that the ideas of reflection are being internalized by all parties involved, but it is not if reflection becomes a ritual which is conducted in a non-reflective manner!

A Model Session

Objectives

By the end of the session, students will have an awareness of a certain feature of spoken language.

Procedures

Having obtained some recorded spoken situations/genres and their accompanying transcript s – Jacob and Strutt (1997)*; it is useful to proceed as follows:*

1. *Activate prior knowledge:* depending on the difficulty of the content, it may help to establish the topic and the context of the situation. This both situates students, mentally, in terms of the topic and is a way of dealing with unfamiliar vocabulary items that are likely to occur. You can ask them to improvise a conversation on the same topic themselves, before playing them an extract of a recorded conversation.
2. *Check gist:* play the extract, or an initial segment of it, and ask some general gist questions. For example, 'Who is talking to whom about what, and why?' Repeated listening may be necessary before a general consensus on the gist can be established.
3. *Check details:* The extract should be replayed as many times as necessary for students to do some tasks, such as a table to complete, a grid to fill, or multiple questions to answer.
4. *Listen and read:* Hand out the transcript. Replay the extract while students read silently.
5. *Resolve doubts:* This may involve translating items that remain obscure or allowing students to consult their dictionaries.
6. **Reflect on language features:** by now, students should be sufficiently familiar with the text to have as a basis for 'guided noticing' of the selected spoken feature. This can involve filling missing words or gaps in the transcript.

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Mansoura University
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THE EFFECTIVENESS OF REFLECTION IN DEVELOPING STUDENTS' ORACY IN ENGLISH AT THE FACULTIES OF TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY

NEEDS ANALYSIS QUESTIONNAIRE

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Supervisors

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Dr. Adel A. Al-Sheikh

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Dear Prof. /Dr.,

I do a Ph. D. thesis entitled ***the Effectiveness of Reflection in Developing Students' Oracy in English at the Faculties of Tourism and Hospitality***. For developing their oracy, I aim at helping my students gain an awareness of the communicative purposes and linguistic features of spoken texts that they will participate in their future language use.

Reflection on language in use is the foundation of achieving language awareness. Reflecting on spoken texts, students will focus their attention on the features of spoken language as used by others – native or non-native speakers. Spoken activities will require practicing listening and speaking within the real time of a communicative event. In these situations, participants have dual, equal roles – as listeners and speakers. This is due to the fact that for an effective spoken interaction, it is not enough to be a good listener; it is necessary to steer the interaction as well.

Thus, a major part of my work is to prepare some spoken texts for the students at the Faculties of Tourism and Hospitality to reflect on. In a sense of specialization, these students are divided into three branches: Hospitality, Tourism, and Guidance. Tourism students, for example, have opportunities to work in so many diverse jobs such as: ticketing and reservations agents, sales and promotions executives, airport customer service agents, sales promotion officer, etc. Therefore, I have to choose first which branch my study will be directed to; and second which spoken text types or genres I will explicitly teach my sample to "deconstruct and construct".

Consequently, my study necessitates that I have to do a needs analysis to help specifying the previously-mentioned, two tasks. This needs analysis will be carried out in the form of ***a structured interview*** – in Arabic or in English – with some Tourism stakeholders. The practical value of this needs analysis is to identify the spoken situations which graduate students will have to master. These situations can include: telephone calls, taking hotel bookings, checking in/out, staff meetings, job interviews, taking a menu, casual conversations, etc. The responses for this needs analysis will be recorded and then analyzed for identifying the branch and the suitable spoken texts.

Then, for the purpose of the needs analysis validity, you are kindly invited to respond first to each part by choosing: (1) yes or (2) no, in relation to its *appropriateness* for the title of each part; then to each item in one of two ways: (1) agree or (2) disagree, regarding its *wording appropriateness*. If you disagree on a certain item, please write what you suggest. Any remarks you feel necessary are highly appreciated.

Thanks in advance for your cooperation,

     Jihan El-Sayed Zayed,

   English Language Instructor,

  Faculty of Tourism and Hospitality,

     Suez Canal University

Name: …………………………………………

Job: …………………………………………..

Structured Interview	Agree	Disagree	Suggested to be…………
Introduction: I prepare a course aiming at developing Tourism and Hospitality students' oracy. For doing so, I concentrate on situations where participants have equal roles as listeners and speakers. I need your help in answering the following two questions. Please, first introduce yourself: your name, job, and experience in Tourism field. ► *Is it a suitable introduction?* Yes ( ) No ( ) **Translation:** أقوم بالتحضير لمقرر يهدف إلى تنمية الشفاهية لدى طلاب السياحة و الفنادق، و لتحقيق ذلك أركز على اختيار مواقف يكون فيها للمستمع و المتحدث أدوار متماثلة. و أنا أحتاج مساعدتك من خلال الإجابة على تساؤلين، و لكن فى البداية عليك أن تقدم نفسك: الاسم، و الوظيفة، و الخبرة فى مجال السياحة.	…… ……	……… ………	……… ……… ……… ……… ……… ……… ……… ……… ……… ……… ………
Question 1: Which branch of Tourism and Hospitality Faculties whose graduate students need this course the most? ► *Will Question No. 1 lead to an identification of the suitable branch?* Yes ( ) No ( ) **Translation:** أى قسم فى كليات السياحة و الفنادق يحتاج خريجوه إلى هذا المقرر أكثر من الأقسام الأخرى؟	…… ……	……… ………	……… ……… ….....… ……… ……… ……… ……… ………
Question 2: What are the situations these students have to master for their future language use? ► Will *Question No.2 lead to an identification of the target situations?* Yes ( ) No ( ) **Translation:** ما المواقف التى ينبغى أن يتقنها هؤلاء الطلاب من أجل استخدامهم الشفهى للغة فى المستقبل؟	…… ……	……… ………	……........ .... ……… ……… ……… ………
Conclusion: Thank you, for your participation in this interview. This will help me a lot in designing and applying the course. ► *Is it a suitable conclusion?* Yes ( ) No ( ) **Translation:** أشكرك لاشتراكك فى هذه المقابلة، حيث أن هذا سيساعدنى كثيراً فى تصميم و تطبيق المقرر الذى أقوم بالتحضير له.	…… ……	……… ………	……… ….....… ……… ……… ……… ……… ……… ……… ……… ………

Remarks

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THE EFFECTIVENESS OF REFLECTION IN DEVELOPING STUDENTS' ORACY IN ENGLISH AT THE FACULTIES OF TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY

ORACY TEST

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Supervisors

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Mansoura University   Mansoura University

Dear Prof./ Dr.,

I am working for a Ph. D. thesis. My thesis aims at measuring the effectiveness of reflection in helping Tourism and Hospitality Students' develop their oracy in English. This requires preparing an Oracy Test. The test will be administered using two tape recorders: During testing, the examinee listens to directions from a *master tape* and as the examinee responds to each item, his or her performance will be recorded on a separate *response tape*.

Being skilful in oracy assumes having a knowledge base. To participate in an interaction, students will be taught some features of spoken language (*e.g., speech acts*, *discourse markers*, *register*, *spoken grammar*, and *sentence and question intonation patterns*). They may know some of these features from their previous study of English or from their mother tongue. Therefore, the activities used in this programme are awareness-raising ones. In these activities, reflection helps students look at language analytically as an object of study to extract some general rules of using these features.

Metalinguistic awareness can be the result of an increasing 'objectification' of language. Consequently, this Oracy Test aims at discovering whether intensive, explicit instruction based on awareness-raising reflection would have an impact on students' performance of tasks requiring them to use features of spoken language to interact. In other words, whether having some general rules can lead to automatization of oracy skills. Thus, this test consists of the following parts:

Part I aims at assessing students' metalinguistic awareness of the different features of spoken language.

Part II aims at assessing students' oral performance when participating in different contexts.

Thus, for the purpose of the test validity, you are kindly invited to respond each item in one of two ways: (1) agree or (2) disagree, regarding its *wording appropriateness*. If you disagree on a certain item, please write what you suggest. Any remarks you feel necessary are highly appreciated.

Thanks in advance for your cooperation,

The researcher,

Jihan El-Sayed Zayed,
English Language Instructor,
Faculty of Tourism and Hospitality,
Suez Canal University

Name: …………………………………

Job: …………………………………..

Questions	Agree	Disagree	Suggested to be…………
Part I *Please read the following questions before listening to a conversation twice. You are going to answer these questions after listening:* **A. Phonology:** **In the transcript you have, put (↓ or ↑) in front of the first 4 turns of the conversation according to their intonation patterns.**	……	………	……… ……… ……… ……… ……… ……… ………
B. Vocabulary: **Find two for each of the following:** 1. backchannel devices 2. hedges 3. deictic expressions 4. discourse markers	……	………	……… ……… ……… ……… ……… ……… ………
C. Grammar: 1.You listened to some performance effects; underline 7 ones in the transcript. 2.Find an elliptic form and change it into a complete sentence.	……	………	……… ……… ……… ……… ……… ………
D. Pragmatics: **1. You listened to the following utterances, try to find out their language functions:** a. Good morning! b. Can I help you? c. Can I speak to Natasha, please? d. I'd like to make a booking if that's OK. **2. Change this question to be informal:** "Would you mind giving me your name, please?" **3.For the two discourse markers you found, give their functional meaning.**	……	………	……… ……… ……… ……… ……… ……… ……… ……… ……… ……… ……… ………
Part II *Work out with a partner. Take turns to be:* **Student A:** You are going to be a *travel agent* taking bookings. **Student B:** You are going to play the role of a *customer*. You want to go on holiday (choose a destination). • **Student A** should note down information about: the holiday, the dates, and the customer's name. Student A should ask **Student B** <u>five</u> questions. • Change roles: **Student A** is the *customer* while **student B** is the *travel agent*.	……	………	……… ……… ……… ……… ……… ……… ……… ……… ……… ……… ………

Remarks

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Tapescript of the Conversation

Travel agent: Good morning, Intourist, can I help you?

Mr Maughan: Hello, er yes, can I speak to Natasha, please?

Travel agent: Er, yes, who's calling?

Mr Maughan: I spoke to her last week about a holiday in the Ukraine and I'd like to make a booking.

Travel agent: OK, could you hold on please? I'll put you through to her desk.

Mr Maughan: Thank you ...

Natasha: Hello.

Mr Maughan: Is that Natasha?

Natasha: Speaking.

Mr Maughan: Um, I visited your agency last week and we talked about the tours you organise in the - Ukraine. You said I should get in touch with you if I'd made up my mind.

Natasha: Oh yes, I remember. Have you decided where you'd like to go?

Mr Maughan: Yes, I'd like to make a booking if that's OK.

Natasha: Fine. I'll just get a booking form. Hold the line ... Right. Could you tell me which tour you've decided on?

Mr Maughan: The one - sorry, I haven't got the reference with me - the ten-day one to Moscow via Odessa. We fly from Gatwick.

Natasha: OK, I'll look up the reference number later. Can you tell me what date you want to leave on?

Mr Maughan: The thirteenth of July. Natasha: Fine. So would you mind giving me your name, please?

Mr Maughan: It's for me and my wife - Mr and Mrs Maughan.

Natasha: How is that spelt?

Mr Maughan: M - A -U -G -H -A -N.

Natasha: And please could I have your first names? **Mr Maughan:** Linda and Kevin. Natasha: Is that Linda with an i or a y?

Mr Maughan: An i. It's L - I - N - D - A.

Natasha: Thank you, and I'll need your home address.

Mr Maughan: Certainly. That's 41, Swynford Hill, Temple Fortune, London NW11 7PN.

Natasha: 41, I'm sorry, could you please spell Swynford for me?

Mr Maughan: Of course, S-W-Y-N-F-O-R-D. Then Hill, Temple Fortune. London NW11 7PN. Natasha: And the telephone number? **Mr Maughan:** 0181 3924535.

Natasha: And do you have a number at work?

Mr Maughan: Yes, 0171 274 0083, extension 32.

Natasha: Thanks. And are you both British?

Mr Maughan: I am, my wife has an Irish passport.

Natasha: Right, now do you mind if I just check the details? It's Mr Kevin Maughan spelt M-A-U-G-H-A-N and Mrs Linda Maughan of 41 Swynford Hill, Temple Fortune, London NW11 7BN.

Mr Maughan: Sorry, could you repeat that?

Natasha: Mr Kevin Maughan...

Mr Maughan: No, the last bit of the postcode. Did you say P or B?

Natasha: B. B for Bravo

Mr Maughan: No, it's P for... for er... Peter.

Natasha: Sorry, thanks. So it's London NW11 7PN. Telephone number 0181 392 4535 and at work 0171 274 0083, extension 32. Departure date 13th July. Now, there's the insurance which is ... er ... is compulsory on this kind of tour. Would you like to make your own arrangements or would you rather take out the standard insurance policy?

Mr Maughan: Oh ... I guess the standard one. It saves a lot of trouble.

Natasha: Yes. OK well the insurance premium is -wait a minute I'll look in the brochure ... um (reads to herself). It's for ten days, isn't it? "Up to eight days, £19. Nine to twelve days £22 per person". Right, so that's £22 per person. And ... um ... you'll need a visa as well.

Mr Maughan: OK, um ... do you know how much that costs?

Natasha: Yes, that will be an additional £17 per person. Shall I look after that or would you prefer to get it yourself?

Mr Maughan: No, no, you do it! I haven't got time!

Natasha: Right, so I'll need you to fill in an application form and I'll also need three passport size photos and a copy of the inside cover of your passport, so if you bring those in the next time you drop in I'll send everything off with the confirmation.

Mr Maughan: OK.

Natasha: And I'll also need your deposit which is £100 ahead.

Mr Maughan: Right, well I'll drop by at the beginning of next week and make you out a cheque then.

Natasha: Good, thank you for calling. Goodbye

A scoring rubric for oracy (Part II)

Each examinee will be graded according to the following rating scale if s/he:	
Excellent Graded 4	Presents ideas clearly. Is able to fluently express ideas and ask and answer questions with ease.
Good Graded 3	Presents ideas well enough to be understood. Is able to give brief answers to questions.
Satisfactory Graded 2	Speaks with some hesitation, but can communicate basic ideas. Shows hesitation in understanding and responding to questions and comments.
Needs Improvement Graded 1	Attempts to speak, but has difficulty communicating basic ideas to classmates. Has difficulty understanding questions and comments.

Adapted: Lambert (2003)*

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* Lambert, I. (2003). Recording speaking tests for oral assessment. The Internet TESL Journal, IX (4). Retrieved from http://iteslj.org/Articles/Lambert-SpeakingTests.html.

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THE EFFECTIVENESS OF REFLECTION IN DEVELOPING STUDENTS' ORACY IN ENGLISH AT THE FACULTIES OF TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY

LEARNING CONTRACT

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Dr. Adel A. Al-Sheikh

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Dear Prof./ Dr.,

I am a Ph. D. student. A major part of my work is to develop some reflective tools. These tools will be used both to help students undertake a reflective stance towards their own language learning process and content and to help me – the teacher/researcher – gain an insight into their progress and any difficulty they may have. At the same time, these tools can provide some kind of evidence that students have been engaging in reflection.

Learning Contracts (or learning agreements) – as a reflective tool – specify the resources that students have in order to learn as well as what they will do to learn. Students will be asked to construct their contracts after the introductory training session. The current contract takes a number of sections answering some questions. Students will have to record their answers either on an audio cassette or a CD which will be submitted to the teacher/researcher to analyze and comment on.

Thus, for the purpose of the Learning Contract validity, you are kindly invited to respond to each question in one of two ways: (1) agree or (2) disagree, regarding its *wording appropriateness*. If you disagree on a certain question, please write what you suggest. Any remarks you feel necessary are highly appreciated.

Thanks in advance for your cooperation,

The researcher,

Jihan El-Sayed Zayed,
English Language Instructor,
Faculty of Tourism and Hospitality,
Suez Canal University

Name: …………………………………

Job: …………………………………..

A Learning Contract	Agree	Disagree	Suggested to be……………
<u>Questions:</u> 1. What is my actual level of oracy?	….	……	………….. ....
2. How can I progress in oracy?	….	……	………….. ....
3. What do I want to achieve for developing my oracy?	….	……	………….. ....
4. How will I reach this?	….	……	………….. ....
5. How will I know when I have got there?	….	……	………….. ....
6. What evidence will I provide?	….	……	………….. ....
7. How will the evidence be judged?	….	……	………….. ....
Could you add some other questions? ……… ……… ………			

Remarks:

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THE EFFECTIVENESS OF REFLECTION IN DEVELOPING STUDENTS' ORACY IN ENGLISH AT THE FACULTIES OF TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY

SPOKEN JOURNAL

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Mansoura University

Dr. Adel A. Al-Sheikh

Associate Professor of Curriculum & Instruction (English)
Faculty of Education,
Mansoura University

Dear Prof. / Dr.,

As a Ph. D. student, a major part of my work is to develop some reflective tools. These tools will be used both to help students undertake a reflective stance towards their own language learning process and content and to help me gain an insight into their progress and any difficulty they may have. At the same time, these tools can provide some kind of evidence that students have been engaged in reflection.

Students are required to keep a weekly spoken journal in which they record and comment on their experience as learners in the course. Journal-keeping offers them a regular opportunity for reviewing their work, for processing their experience, for generating alternative ways of viewing a situation and for achieving new appreciations or understandings. Students will have to record their answers either on an audio cassette or a CD which will be submitted to the instructor/researcher to analyze and comment on.

Thus, for the purpose of *the Spoken Journal validity*, you are kindly invited to respond to each question in one of two ways: (1) agree or (2) disagree, regarding its *wording appropriateness*. If you disagree on a certain question, please write what you suggest. Any remarks you feel necessary are highly appreciated.

Thanks in advance for your cooperation,

The researcher,

Jihan El-Sayed Zayed,
English Language Instructor,
Faculty of Tourism and Hospitality,
Suez Canal University

Name: …………………………………
Job: …………………………………………..

Questions for a Journal Entry	Agree	Disagree	Suggested to be……………
Introduction: After each session, you will record a five to ten minute journal entry to reflect on what you have learned in English classes. Answering the following questions, you will record your voice on an audio cassette or a CD. You will submit your journal entries after two weeks. You can also send a voice message to your teacher's e-mail. DO NOT SOUND AS IF YOU ARE READING FROM A PAPER.	……..	……..	…..............… ....…… ……………
1. What was today's English lesson about?	…….	……..	…………...... ....
2. What happened in the English class today?	…….	……..	…………...... ....
3. How did I do?	…….	……..	…………...... ....
4. How well did I do?	…….	……..	…………...... ....
5. What do I need to revise? Why?	…….	……..	…………...... ....
6. What am I going to do next? Why?	…….	……..	…………...... ....
7. What did I do if I did not understand?	…….	……..	…………...... ....
8. How can this experience help me in my future?	…….	……..	…………...... ....
Could you add some other questions? ……………………………………………………………………………………………… ……………………………………………………………………………………………… ………………………………………………………………………………			

Remarks:
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THE EFFECTIVENESS OF REFLECTION IN DEVELOPING STUDENTS' ORACY IN ENGLISH AT THE FACULTIES OF TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

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Dr. Adel A. Al-Sheikh

Associate Professor of Curriculum & Instruction (English)
Faculty of Education,
Mansoura University

Dear Prof. / Dr.,

As a Ph. D. graduate student, a major part of my work is to develop some reflective tools. These tools will be used both to help students undertake a reflective stance towards their own language learning process and content and to help me gain an insight into their progress and any difficulty they may have. At the same time, these tools can provide some kind of evidence that students have been engaged in reflection.

Having students reflected on their own (and maybe their learning partners') oral language use, a Student Questionnaire will be administered so that students can begin to appreciate the reflection process as a way of learning. This questionnaire can be a useful way of gathering information about students' preferences and personal reactions to the whole process.

Thus, for the purpose of the Student Questionnaire validity, you are kindly invited to respond to each sentence in one of two ways: (1) agree or (2) disagree, regarding its *wording appropriateness*. If you disagree on a certain sentence, please write what you suggest. Any remarks you feel necessary are highly appreciated.

Thanks in advance for your cooperation,

The researcher,

Jihan El-Sayed Zayed,
English Language Instructor,
Faculty of Tourism and Hospitality,
Suez Canal University

Name: …………………………………

Job: …………………………………………..

Statements	Agree	Disagree	Suggested to be……………
In response to each statement, students should choose one of the following answers: *no, a little, almost, or a lot.* 1. I know what I want to achieve by the end of the programme.	……	…… …..	…………… ....
2. Reflection can help me achieve the programme objectives.	……	……	……………
3. Efforts and interest are important for achieving objectives.	……	……	……………
4. I am ready to get involved in the reflection process.	……	……	……………
5. Reflection is a process that helps me improve my professional future.	……	…… …..	…………… ....
6. My teacher tries to encourage me to engage in reflection.	……	……	……………
7. In class , I like to listen to cassettes	……	……	……………
8. In class, I like to learn through conversations.	……	……	……………
9. In class, I like to have a transcript of what I listen to.	……	……	……………
10. I like to reflect on my learning by myself (alone).	……	……	……………
11. I like to reflect on my learning by talking to a learning partner.	……	……	……………
12. At home, I like to learn by using cassettes.	……	……	……………
13. I like to record my speech on an audio cassette/CD.	……	……	……………
14. I like to send a voice message to my teacher's e-mail.	……	……	……………
15. I like to transcribe my speech.	……	……	……………
Could you add some other sentences for identifying students' preferences towards reflection process? ……………………………………………………………………………………………………… ……………………………………………………………………………………………………… ………………………………………………………………………………………………………			

Remarks

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APPENDIX C

Oracy Test (OT)

Name: …………………………………

Date: ………………………………….

Total score: 100

Oracy Test

Part I: Language Awareness

(50 scores)

Instructions to students:

1. *Listen to a conversation twice while following your tapescript.*
2. *Answer the following questions:*

A. Phonology

Put either (↓ or ↑) next to the following utterances according to their intonation patterns: **(8 scores)**

1. Can I speak to Natasha, please? (…)

2. I'd made up my mind. (…)

3. How is that spelt? (…)

4. Shall I look after that or would you prefer to get it yourself? (…)

5. Is that Natasha? (…)

6. Who is calling? (…)

7. We fly from Gatwick. (…)

8. Do you know how much that costs? (…)

B. Vocabulary

Find <u>two</u> items under each of the following labels:

1. Backchannel devices: **(4 scores)**

   a. ………………….   b. ………………

2. Hedges **(4 scores)**

   a. ………………….   b. ……………….

3. Deictic expressions **(4 scores)**

   a. ………………….   b. ……………….

C. Grammar

1. **Find three different performance effects. You have to mention the speaker's name:** **(6 scores)**

   a. ………………………………………..
   b. ………………………………………
   c. ………………………………………..

2. **Find two elliptic forms and then change them into complete sentences:**

(8 scores)

a. **Elliptic form:** ………………………………

   Complete sentence: ……………………………………………………..

b. **Elliptic form:** …………………………………

   Complete sentence: ……………………………………………………..

D. Pragmatics

1. Find out the language functions of the following speech acts:

(8 scores)

a. Good morning!   ……………………………

b. Can I help you?   …………………………….

c.   I'm sorry.   …………………………….

d.   I'd like to make a booking if that's OK.   …………………………….

2. Change the following two utterances to be informal: (4 scores)

a. Could you hold on please?

      ……………………………………………..

b. Would you mind giving me your name, please?

      ……………………………………………..

3. Find two discourse markers and then give their functional meaning:

(4 scores)

a. **Discourse marker:** …………………………

   Functional meaning: ……………………….

b. **Discourse marker:** ………………………….

   Functional meaning: …………………………

Part II: Oral Performance

Work with a partner: **(50 scores)**

Student A: You are going to be a *travel agent* taking bookings.

Student B: You are going to play the role of a *customer*. You want to go on holiday (choose a destination).

1. **Student A** should note down information about: the holiday, the dates, and the customer's name.

2. **Student A** should ask **Student B** <u>five</u> questions.

3. Change roles: **Student A** is the *customer* while **student B** is the *travel agent*.

A Transcript of the Conversation

Travel agent: Good morning, Intourist, can I help you?

Mr Maughan: Hello, er yes, can I speak to Natasha, please?

Travel agent: Er, yes, who's calling?

Mr Maughan: I spoke to her last week about a holiday in the Ukraine and I'd like to make a booking.

Travel agent: OK, could you hold on please? I'll put you through to her desk.

Mr Maughan: Thank you ...

Natasha: Hello.

Mr Maughan: Is that Natasha?

Natasha: Speaking.

Mr Maughan: Um, I visited your agency last week and we talked about the tours you organise in the - Ukraine. You said I should get in touch with you if I'd made up my mind.

Natasha: Oh yes, I remember. Have you decided where you'd like to go?

Mr Maughan: Yes, I'd like to make a booking if that's OK.

Natasha: Fine. I'll just get a booking form. Hold the line ... Right. Could you tell me which tour you've decided on?

Mr Maughan: The one - sorry, I haven't got the reference with me - the ten-day one to Moscow via Odessa. We fly from Gatwick.

Natasha: OK, I'll look up the reference number later. Can you tell me what date you want to leave on?

Mr Maughan: The thirteenth of July. **Natasha:** Fine. So would you mind giving me your name, please?

Mr Maughan: It's for me and my wife - Mr and Mrs Maughan.

Natasha: How is that spelt?

Mr Maughan: M - A -U -G -H -A -N.

Natasha: And please could I have your first names?

Mr Maughan: Linda and Kevin.

Natasha: Is that Linda with an i or a y?

Mr Maughan: An i. It's L - I - N - D - A.

Natasha: Thank you, and I'll need your home address.

Mr Maughan: Certainly. That's 41, Swynford Hill, Temple Fortune, London NW11 7PN.

Natasha: 41, I'm sorry, could you please spell Swynford for me?

Mr Maughan: Of course, S-W-Y-N-F-O-R-D. Then Hill, Temple Fortune. London NW11 7PN.

Natasha: And the telephone number?

Mr Maughan: 0181 3924535.

Natasha: And do you have a number at work?

Mr Maughan: Yes, 0171 274 0083, extension 32.

Natasha: Thanks. And are you both British?

Mr Maughan: I am, my wife has an Irish passport.

Natasha: Right, now do you mind if I just check the details? It's Mr Kevin Maughan spelt M-A-U-G-H-A-N and Mrs Linda Maughan of 41 Swynford Hill, Temple Fortune, London NW11 7BN.

Mr Maughan: Sorry, could you repeat that?

Natasha: Mr Kevin Maughan...

Mr Maughan: No, the last bit of the postcode. Did you say P or B?

Natasha: B. B for Bravo Mr Maughan: No, it's P for... for er... Peter.

Natasha: Sorry, thanks. So it's London NW11 7PN. Telephone number 0181 392 4535 and at work 0171 274 0083, extension 32. Departure date 13th July. Now, there's the insurance which is ... er ... is compulsory on this kind of tour. Would you like to make your own arrangements or would you rather take out the standard insurance policy?

Mr Maughan: Oh ... I guess the standard one. It saves a lot of trouble.

Natasha: Yes. OK well the insurance premium is -wait a minute I'll look in the brochure ... um (reads to herself). It's for ten days, isn't it? "Up to eight days, £19. Nine to twelve days £22 per person". Right, so that's £22 per person. And ... um ... you'll need a visa as well.

Mr Maughan: OK, um ... do you know how much that costs?

Natasha: Yes, that will be an additional £17 per person. Shall I look after that or would you prefer to get it yourself?

Mr Maughan: No, no, you do it! I haven't got time!

Natasha: Right, so I'll need you to fill in an application form and I'll also need three passport size photos and a copy of the inside cover of your passport, so if you bring those in the next time you drop in I'll send everything off with the confirmation.

Mr Maughan: OK.

Natasha: And I'll also need your deposit which is £100 ahead.

Mr Maughan: Right, well I'll drop by at the beginning of next week and make you out a cheque then.

Natasha: Good, thank you for calling. Goodbye.

APPENDIX D

A Scoring Rubric (SR) for Part II of the OT

A Scoring Rubric (SR) for the OT (Part II)

Criteria		Standards				
		Very Limited *1*	**Limited** *2*	**Adequate** *3*	**Strong** *4*	**Outstanding** *5*
Active listening is hearing the speaker, understanding his message, letting him know that he is being listened to.	I n d i c a t o r s	• does not pay attention. • hears the words, but not the meaning behind them. • asks for repetition.	• pays attention to some utterances; tunes out some. • understands the speaker's ideas. • keeps quiet waiting to break in.	• gives the speaker's full attention. • recognizes the speaker's intent. • keeps quiet to take over the turn.	• keeps quiet but involved. • shows he is listening using backchanneling devices like *yes, uh, huh*.	• provides feedback: – restates what has been said, – summarizes key points, or – asks clarifying questions
Turn-taking is the attentiveness to the speaker's contribution and to the pitch level indicating that the turn is coming to a close.		• does not recognize his turn until the speaker waits for him to take it (*silence*).	• interrupts a lot before the speaker's completion of important statements (*negative overlap*).	• knows that after each question there must be an answer. • allows the speaker to finish his turn (*the speaker is the dominant*).	• waits for his turn. • If the speaker dominates, he shows that he is present butting in with some backchannelling devices or discourse markers (*Minimal responses*).	• waits for his turn. • predicts the speaker's utterances and often completes them if the speaker is in trouble of not finding suitable expressions (*utterance completion to keep the task flowing*).
Questioning is asking questions to control the direction of the interaction in a way to get information or clarification.		• does not know when to ask until the speaker stops. • asks irrelevant questions.	• asks relevant questions; mainly, *yes/no* questions. • asks *wh*-questions with limited vocabulary in wrong structures.	• asks mostly relevant questions; adequate vocabulary, correct *wh*-questions with no control on irregular forms in sustained intonation.	• asks all relevant questions; varied vocabulary, varied grammatical structures with occasional mistakes either in irregular forms or in intonation.	• asks all relevant questions; extensive vocabulary, masters a variety of grammatical structures with control on intonation.
Responding can be for greeting, understanding, clarification, questioning, or information giving.		• needs to be reminded by the speaker to speak.	• attempts to speak, but uses wrong vocabulary and structures. • has difficulty in understanding the speaker's questions and comments.	• seems to be tongue-tied. • can communicate basic ideas.	• is able to give brief answers to questions.	• answers questions with ease, and correct intonation. • is willing to take risks and test out new language presented in a session.
Overall performance quality is judged in terms of expressiveness, clarity, and audibility.		• speaks hesitantly because of rephrasing and searching for words. • almost everything is wrong.	• speaks in single-word utterances and short patterns mostly with wrong pronunciation.	• cannot be heard. • cannot continue after 3 or 4 turns.	• speaks with occasional hesitation. • presents ideas well enough to be understood. • is generally audible.	• speaks with native-like fluency, any hesitation does not interfere with communication. • presents ideas clearly. • is audible throughout.

APPENDIX E

Spoken Journal (SJ)

Spoken Journal

Student Name:

Introduction:

After each session, you will record a five to ten minute journal entry to reflect on what you have learned in English classes. Answering the following questions, you will record your voice on an audio cassette or a CD. You will submit your journal entries after two weeks. You can also send a voice message to your instructor's e-mail. BE NATURAL, DO NOT SOUND AS IF YOU WERE READING FROM A PAPER.

Questions for a Journal Entry

Respond to the following questions in full details:

1. What was today's English session about?

2. What happened in the English class today?

3. What were the points that you completely understood during the session?

4. What did you do to understand the other points? Did you ask your (instructor/learning partner)?

5. What did your instructor do to explain those points to you?

6. What do you need to revise? Why?

7. How can you benefit from what you learned today in the next sessions?

8. What obstacles have you faced for developing your oracy?

9. How can you overcome these obstacles?

10. How can this experience help you in your professional future?

APPENDIX F

Student Questionnaire (SQ)

Student Questionnaire

Student Name: ……………………………

Date: ..…………………

In response to each statement, choose one of the following answers: *no, a little, almost, or a lot.* (**N.B.**, you will have to provide the definitions of oracy and Reflection in their due places).

Statements	*no*	*a little*	*almost*	*a lot*
1. I know that I am going to develop my oracy by the end of the programme. Oracy is………………………………………				
2. Reflection can help me develop my oracy. Reflection is…………………………………				
3. Oracy can help me improve my professional future.				
4. I am ready to get involved in reflection process.				
5. My instructor tries to encourage me to engage in reflection.				
6. In class, I like to reflect on my learning alone.				
7. In class, I like to reflect on my learning talking to a learning partner.				
8. At home, I like to do my spoken journal alone.				
9. At home, I like to do my spoken journal with my learning partner.				
10. I like to record my speech on an audio cassette/CD or send a voice message to my instructor's e-mail.				

APPENDIX G

Sessions Plans

SESSION 1 (PRE-TESTING)

Objectives

This session aims at:
- administering the pre-test.

Procedures

The following steps will be followed in administering the pre-test:

1. *Articulating that students are going to start a new term; and now, they are going to do a test for measuring their levels in certain skills;*

2. *Handing out the test papers;*

3. *Introducing the test saying that this test consists of two parts. To do Part I:*
   - Listen to a conversation twice while following in your tapescript.
   - Answer the following questions in your test papers.

4. *Reading the test items while students follow in their test papers;*

5. *Letting students answer Part I;*

6. *Introducing Part II and collecting the test papers;*

7. *Telling students that while doing Part II, their speech will be recorded to be analyzed afterwards according to certain criteria; and*

8. *Telling students that next time they will begin a Programme for developing their oral skills and that they should try not to miss a session*

SESSION 2 (Training)

Objectives
This session aims at:
- motivating students by giving them fairly new thought-provoking perspectives on reflection on spoken language,
- training students how to do their Spoken Journals (Appendix E), and
- introducing the Scoring Rubric (Appendix D).

Procedures
The following steps are important in introducing and establishing a paving climate for reflection:

1. *Articulating a rationale for using reflection for developing oracy:*
   - What is reflection? Why is reflection important? How is it different from other methods of learning, particularly memorizing?
   - What is oracy? What are the characteristics of spoken language? What are the features associated with these characteristics? What are the aspects for developing oracy? (introducing the Scoring Rubric)

2. *Introducing a simple exercise to illustrate reflection:*
   - Asking each student to choose another one to act as his or her learning partner. The aim of this relationship is that each student has someone else with whom s/he discusses ideas that are raised;
   - Asking students in pairs to interview each other about an earlier activity in the class using reflective questions: *what* happened? *what* was new in this situation? *how* did you feel? *what* did it mean?;
   - Providing an opportunity for students to clarify their understanding of the idea; and
   - Encouraging students to bring forward examples of reflection on language experiences to be discussed.

3. *Identifying areas of the process that students can make their own:*
   Introducing the Spoken Journal (SJ) (Appendix E) and how they can manage doing it.

4. *Providing time:*
   Reflection takes time and it will normally occupy students in much time outside the class particularly at the early stages. Give students the schedule of the programme (see Chapter III, p. 104).

5. *Treating reflection as a normal activity:*
   While it might be necessary to build particular reflection activities into courses in a way which at first might seem exhausting, it becomes commonplace over time. This is a positive development if the meaning of reflection is being internalized by students, but it is not if reflection becomes

a ritual that is conducted in a non-reflective manner!

6. ***Stating that they have to do their first SJ today that the experience is fresh in their minds.***

SESSION 3

Administering the SQ & *Transport*

Objectives

This session aims at:
- administering the SQ, and
- raising students' awareness of:
  - sentence intonation patterns,
  - question intonation pattern, and
  - some question formats.

Procedures

9. *Handing out the SQ papers;*

10. *Telling students that this questionnaire will reflect their understandings of the goals of the Programme and their preferences after doing the first SJ;*

11. *Letting them write their name and the date;*

12. *Telling them they can do this SQ in the following way, "in response to each sentence, you have to put (√) according to your choice of the following percentages: no= 25%, a little=50%, almost=75%, a lot=100%";*

13. *Reading the sentences and checking for any misunderstandings;*

14. *Letting them do the questionnaire for about 10 minutes; and*

15. *Collecting the questionnaire papers.*

Transport

1. **Introducing the spoken situation:**
   Susan recently went to the USA for three weeks. Listen to her making the final arrangements for her trip.

2. **Checking general meaning:**
   Play the extract, or an initial segment of it, and ask some general gist questions. For example, "*Who* is talking to *whom* about *what*, and *why*?"

3. **Checking details:**
   The extract should be replayed twice to answer the following questions:
   a. What is an open-jaw ticket?
   b. Why doesn't Susan want to use the Greyhound bus?

    c. Why doesn't she want accommodation booked in Las Vegas or LA?

4. *Listening and reading:*
Hand out the tapescript. Replay the extract while students read silently.

5. *Resolving doubts:*
This may involve translating items that remain obscure or allowing students to consult their dictionaries. Tell students to listen again and follow Susan's route. Write the dates, times and means of transport.

6. *Reflecting on language features:*

a) **Paying attention (activating prior knowledge):**
- Get some students to utter some different sentences and questions.
- Get them to pay attention to the rise or fall of their voice.
- Write their utterances on the board.
- Tell students that we use either (↓or↑) to indicate the rise or fall at the end of our utterances.
- Say, "Let's put (↓or↑) at the examples we have given."

b) **Noticing the gap:**
- Play the first four turns of the extract asking them to notice how speakers raise or lower down their voice at the end of their utterances.
- Say, "Let's compare our use of the (↓or↑) and theirs."

c) **Understanding (rule generalization):**
- Let them extract a rule of using (↓or↑) at the end of sentences and different kinds of questions
- Using either (↓or ↑) at the end of our utterances is what we call intonation patterns.

7. *Write more examples and let students choose either (↓ or ↑).*

8. *Tell students they have to do their SJ#2 today and revise it continually.*

Tapescript 1[*]

> **Transport**
> **Travel consultant:** Good morning. Can I help you? (**Susan:** Yes, I ...) Oh sorry, I didn't recognize you. You came in the other day about a trip to the States, didn't you?
> **Susan:** That's right and ... er... if it's OK by you I'd like to sort out the final itinerary. I've rung up some of my friends and relatives over there and so I've pretty well worked out what I'll be able to do while I'm there.
> **Travel consultant:** Good. Do you still plan to start off in New York and come back via San Francisco?
> **Susan:** Er... yes. Last time you mentioned something about an open-jaw ticket. Could you tell me what...?
> **Travel consultant:** Oh, an open-jaw ... yeah, you'll fly out from Heathrow to Newark International and come back to London from San Francisco. That means you pay half the return fares on both routes added together.

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[*] Continued

Susan: And do I get my student discounts on those flights?

Travel consultant: Yes, no problem.

Susan: OK. So I'll set off on 1st September and fly to Newark, and return on the 21st from San Francisco.

Travel consultant: Fine. Do you need accommodation in New York?

Susan: No, thanks. My uncle will be picking me up from the airport and putting me up for a few days in Manhattan. I was thinking of visiting Ellis Island and of course the Empire State Building and ... I guess it's pretty easy to travel around New York.

Travel consultant: Well, there are guided tours of the city but you can get around quite easily on the subway, and if you want to look around Ellis Island and Liberty Island there are regular ferries. You don't need to take the guided tours if you want to go around on your own.

Susan: Right. And ... um ... about my trip to Niagara. I've looked at what's available and I've decided to take the Grayline one-day tour.

Travel consultant: Um ... yes, it's a bit pricey you know. Are you sure your budget will run to that?

Susan: Um ... well I know it's expensive but, well, I've been saving up for this and I really don't want to miss out on seeing the Niagara Falls.

Travel consultant: OK, fine. Well that's $290 and for that you have to pay in advance. Er... they pick you up at the Sheraton and you go by coach to Newark International Airport, fly to Buffalo and then on to the Niagara Falls by coach. There's a guided boat tour and then you drive over to the Canadian side, then back to Buffalo and the plane to New York, to arrive back at about 6.30 p.m.

Susan: Right, and the next day I was planning to go to Washington.

Travel consultant: By Greyhound bus or by rail?

Susan: Well, I was told that the bus can be dangerous for young women travelling alone so I thought... well ... could you get me an Amtrak fifteen-day travel pass?

Travel consultant: Sure. But I need to know your times and routes before I can book everything.

Susan: Right, so on the 5th I'll take the day trip to Niagara and on the 6th I'll take the train to Washington ... spend some time there before going on to Las Vegas. And then on the...

Travel consultant: Hang on a minute. Here we are, New York to Washington on the Capitol Ltd.

Susan: Sorry?

Travel consultant: The Capitol Ltd. All Amtrak trains have names. So that leaves at 07.23 and arrives at 11.05 on 6th September.

Susan: Fine.

Travel consultant: And then your best route would be to take the Capitol Ltd. on to Chicago and then get on the Desert Wind for Las Vegas. The only problem is that you'll have to hang around in Chicago for a few hours.

Susan: Well, that doesn't matter.

Travel consultant: So if you took the 16.40 from Washington on the 7th you'd arrive in Chicago at 09.10 on the morning of the 8th and have until 15.05 to have a look around Chicago.

Susan: OK.

Travel consultant: So I'll book you on the Desert Wind to Las Vegas via Denver and Salt Lake City, arriving in Las Vegas at 07.45 on the morning of the 10th.

Susan: Then I want to leave Las Vegas on the 12th for Los Angeles. I'll want to spend a few days there.

Travel consultant: OK, so that's the Desert Wind again for Los Angeles.

Susan: And then I'll need to reserve a seat from LA to San Francisco on the 17th.

Travel consultant: Will you be wanting accommodation in Las Vegas or Los Angeles?

Susan: No, I really need to cut down on costs so I'm hoping to be able to look up some old friends and ask them if they can put me up.

Travel consultant: OK. So we'll book those trains for you, the excursion to Niagara and of course the international flights. I'll draw up the itinerary for you, make a note of the check-in times for the flights and so on and make out the tickets for you.

Susan: Great. And just one more thing. While I'm in Los Angeles I want to be able to see Disneyland, Hollywood, and so on and so I'd like to hire a car while I'm there. Can I do this through you?

Travel consultant: Yes, I've got a brochure here in fact. You have a choice of... (*fade*)

SESSION 4

Types of Holiday

Objectives

By the end of the session, students will have an awareness of:

- how to give a speaker feedback while following his/her speech using **backchanneling devices** (e.g., *words*, *vocal expressions*, or *a nod of the head*); and
- how to **hedge** (e.g., *vague language*, *modal expression*, and *adverbs*).

Procedures

1. *Introducing the spoken situation:*
Introduce the topic and the context of each conversation talking about the meaning of "holiday" and asking students to mention different types of holidays such as *safari*, *cruise*, *homestay*, *expedition* and so forth.

2. *Checking general meaning:*
Play the extract pausing after each conversation to ask some questions. For example, "*Who* is talking to *whom* about *what*, and *why*?"

3. *Checking details:*
Each conversation should be replayed twice to answer the following questions:

Conversation 1:
 a. Where did they go last year?
 b. Where did they go the year before?
 c. Where do they want to go this year?
 d. What does the travel consultant offer?

Conversation 2:
 a. What does the travel consultant offer?
 b. Why is it a good reason to go to Lombok?

Conversation 3:
 a. How will the man reach Florence?
 b. How will he pay?

Conversation 4:
 a. What does the price include?
 b. Does the woman accept the travel consultant's offer?

4. *Listening and reading:*
Hand out the tapescript. Replay the extract while students read silently.

5. *Resolving doubts:*

This may involve translating items that remain obscure or allowing students to consult their dictionaries. Tell students to listen again pausing after each conversation to ask: *What is the type of holiday here?*

6. *Reflecting on language features (backchannelling):*

a) Paying attention (activating prior knowledge):
- In Arabic, ask students when they want to show that they are following what others say, what can they say?
- Numerate some devices of doing this in Arabic.

b) Noticing the gap:
- Play the first four turns of the extract asking them to notice how the speakers use similar devices in English.
- Say that in English some similar devices including *backchannelling devices*, *summarizing* and *paraphrasing*.
- Write on board these devices.

c) Understanding (rule generalization):
- Extract the rule: Spoken language is a process of face-to-face communication. Speakers are alert to feedback from other partners. This feedback can be either: backchannelling devices, summarizing, or paraphrasing.

7. *Reflecting on language features (hedges):*

a) Paying attention (activating prior knowledge):
- In Arabic, tell students that when a listener disagrees, s/he does it in such a way as not to threaten the face of the speaker.
- Numerate some devices of doing this in Arabic.

b) Noticing the gap:
- Play the extract asking them to notice how the speakers use similar devices in English.
- Say that in English some similar devices which are called *hedges* including vague language, modal expression, and adverbs
- Write these devices on board.

c) Understanding (rule generalization):
- Extract the rule: In informal contexts, we hedge to mark friendliness or to avoid sounding over-assertive or too elaborate. It is constantly referring to shared knowledge and appealing for agreement through the use of markers (e.g., you know), question tags (e.g., isn't it? don't you?) and rising intonation.

8. *Tell students that they have to do their SJ#3 today and revise it continually.*

Tapescript 2

Types of Holiday

Conversation 1

Travel consultant: Hello, can I help you?
Woman: Um ... well, yes perhaps. Last year we went to Italy in December and stayed at a small, relatively cheap hotel in Rome and it was very nice, and the year before that we spent the New Year in the Canary Islands, but this year - well, we're sort of looking for something a bit more exciting and adventurous - something that'll give the kids a treat for Christmas.
Travel consultant: Well, how about this, there's a very reasonable and successful package put together by ... (*fade*)

Conversation 2
Young man: Hello, we saw your notice in the window and we'd like to find out a bit more about what it includes.
Travel consultant: OK. What exactly is it you want to know?
Young woman: Er... well, we're getting married in three months' time and we've decided we want to go somewhere exotic - you know, the holiday of a lifetime sort of thing, not just Benidorm or the Algarve.
Travel consultant: Oh well, I think it's definitely Bali for you. There's a special offer at the moment with three extra nights free on the island of Lombok ... um ... which is about twenty minutes' flight off the coast of Bali itself.
Young man: Lombok. I've never heard of that.
Travel consultant: Well, that's one good reason for going there. It's completely unspoilt.
Young man: And how much does it cost?
Travel consultant: Well, it's very competitive. Would you like a brochure?

Conversation 3
Travel consultant: OK sir, I've booked you into a three-star hotel and I'll make out the flight ticket now. So that's Alitalia flight number AZ1621 and then there's a train connection to Florence. Right. And how are you paying?
Man: American Express.
Travel consultant: Fine. Can I have your card? Thank you.
Man: Oh by the way, I'd like to hire a car and make my own way on to Perugia. Is that possible for you to do from here?
Travel consultant: No problem, sir. What kind of car do you require?
Man: Oh, the most economical.

Conversation 4
Woman: And so could you tell me what the price includes?
Travel consultant: Well, the price is inclusive of air travel, ten nights on the MV Kirov, full board and all the excursions except the one on Day 2 which is optional.
Woman: What's that exactly?
Travel consultant: Um ... I think that's a guided tour round St Petersburg, just let me check in the brochure. Yes, that's right.
Woman: Actually, on second thoughts, I think it's a bit expensive.
Travel consultant: Well possibly, but on the other hand it is excellent value for money, (pause) No? Well, what about going ... (*fade*)

SESSION 5

Tour Operators

Objectives

By the end of the session, students will have an awareness of using:

- **Discourse markers:** how to mark boundaries in conversation between one topic and the next (e.g., *anyway*, *right*, *okay*, *I see*, *I mean*, *well*, *right*, *what's more*, *so* and *now*).
- **Deixis:** how to orientate the listener in time and space.

Procedures

1. Introducing the spoken situation:
   Tell students to listen to a part of a meeting between some tour operators.

2. Checking general meaning:
   Play the extract then ask some questions. For example, 'Who is talking to whom about what, and why?'

3. Checking details:

   The extract should be replayed twice to answer the following questions:
   a. Why are these tour operators interested in starting a package to Cuba?
   b. Why do they think they will be competitive?
   c. What load factor will they be working on?
   d. What kinds of overheads are mentioned?
   e. What are they going to charge for a two-week package?
   f. How they will compensate for their low profit margin?
   g. What is the difference between their rates and those of their competitors?
   h. Why does Richard want the final package price?

4. Listening and reading:
   Hand out the tapescript. Replay the extract while students read silently.

5. Resolving doubts:
   This may involve translating items that remain obscure or allowing students to consult their dictionaries. Write the following sentences on board:

   "Well, (a) ...... us their seat rates and (b) ...... a discount by taking a time slot (c) ...... been able to fill. So (d) ...... 270 seats at approximately £250 each for twenty-five weeks in rotation. And (e) ...... by the marketing people (f) ...... probably be working on load factors of about 80 per cent - so we should be doing OK."
   Listen to David talking at the meeting. What words are missing? (There is more than one word in each gap.)

6. *Reflecting on language features (discourse markers):*

a) Paying attention (activating prior knowledge):
- Say, "Right, we spoke last session about backchannelling devices and hedges. Now, we are going to talk about *discourse markers*."
- Write the previously-said sentence on board underlining the two words: *Right* and *Now*.
- Say that these two words are discourse markers. We use these markers to show how what we are going to say, or have just said, is connected to what went before or what is coming up. In other words, they are used to mark boundaries in conversation between one topic and the next (e.g., *anyway*, *right*, *okay*, *I see*, *I mean*, *well*, *right*, *what's more*, *so* and *now*). They often have "pragmatic" meanings different from their dictionary meanings. Thus, in actual dialogue *right*, for example, do not mean "correct", rather it indicates that speakers need to make a decision or that a decision has been accepted or has at least been acknowledged.

b) Noticing the gap:
- Play the extract asking them to notice how the speakers use different discourse markers.
- Ask students to mention the pragmatic meaning of each discourse marker.
- Write these markers on board.

c) Understanding (rule generalization):
- Extract the rule: discourse markers are used to mark boundaries in conversation between one topic and the next. They often have pragmatic meanings different from their dictionary meanings.

7. *Reflecting on language features (deixis):*

a) Paying attention (activating prior knowledge):
- Point to a window asking a student, "close this window, please."
- Say, "Your colleague closed the window because I pointed directly to a particular feature of the immediate situation. In writing, if I wrote the same sentence it may often lead to ambiguity because we cannot see or identify easily what is being referred to."
- This is what we call deixis. It means the "orientational" features of language, including words and phrases which point directly to particular features of the immediate situation. These features orientate the listener in time and space.

b) Noticing the gap:
- Play the first turn of Maria. Write the last sentence on board: "Now David, what about you, what is the position exactly with Sky Air now?"
- Ask, "What is the difference between the first *Now* and the last *now*?"

- Elicit that the first *Now* marks boundaries in the conversation between one topic and the next while the last *now* orientates listener in time (a deictic word).

c) Understanding (rule generalization):
- Extract the rule: In informal contexts, we use deixis to point directly to particular temporal or spatial features of the immediate situation.

8. Remind students that they have to do SJ#4 today and revise it continually.

Tapescript 3

Tour Operators

Maria: OK, let's get down to business, shall we? You know the situation, don't you? We've been approached by Sky Air who have some spare capacity on their transatlantic 767s and they've asked us if we're interested in chartering aircraft to Cuba. So I've been out to look at some sites and I've negotiated rates, and come to an agreement with some hoteliers and I think we have a good price because obviously everyone in Cuba desperately needs foreign currency at the moment. Now, David, what about you, what's the position exactly with Sky Air now?

David: Well, they've given us their seat rates and we've negotiated a discount by taking a time slot they wouldn't've been able to fill. So, we've got 370 seats at approximately £250 each for twenty-five weeks in rotation. And I'm told by the marketing people that we'll probably be working on load factors of about 80 per cent – so we should be doing OK.

Maria: Right, that's good news. Shirley, how much do you think we'll be able to charge for the whole thing.

Shirley: Well, taking into account overheads like travel agents' commission ... um ... transport charges for local tours and other things like ... um ... the salaries of local reps and so on, I think £550 for two weeks is about right.

Maria: OK, and after taking, into account commission, transport and salaries, what profit margin does that leave us?

Shirley: Eight per cent. It's low I know but even just £5 or £10 will persuade people to go elsewhere. But I do think we'll be able to sell more local tours. I'm told that there's likely to be a 15 per cent take-up on the tour to Havana, which is very encouraging. Also I've made a comparison with our competitors in the Dominican Republic and we're about 10 per cent cheaper than they are.

Maria: Good. And what about the brochure? Richard?

Richard: Well, we've started to write the copy and I've had a lot of photos taken of the resort and I must say it looks pretty good. If you can give me your final prices I can update the figures.

Maria: What kind of time scale are we working in?

Richard: Well, we're having this brochure printed by a different firm and we have to meet a deadline for 1st September so, if all goes according to plan, the brochure should be published in October.

SESSION 6

Travel Agents

Objectives

By the end of the session, students will have an awareness of some features of spoken grammar:

- **intonation in tag questions either rises or falls.**
- **performance effects:** unfilled or filled pauses, repetitions (often combined with hesitation), mispronunciations and slips, spoken clause structure, and heads and tails

Intonation in tag questions:

Procedures

1. *Ask students to listen to the questions noticing the rise or fall at the end of each one.*
2. *Say that intonation in tag questions either rises or falls as follows:*

   a. *She isn't going, is she?*   b. *She isn't going, is she?*
      You haven't paid yet, have you?   *You haven't paid yet, have you?*

   If we use falling intonation (as in *a*) we are looking for confirmation or agreement. If our voice rises (as in *b*) then we don't know the answer and we want to know.

3. *Play the tape recorder pausing after each question to let students recognize if the intonation falls or rises.*
4. *Ask them to listen again:* Which are real questions, which are requests for confirmation?

Practice 2

Procedures

1. Introducing the spoken situation:
Tell students to listen to the following conversation.

2. Checking general meaning:
Play the extract, and then ask some questions. For example, "*Who* is talking to *whom* about *what*, and *why*?"

3. Checking details:
The extract should be replayed twice to answer the following questions:
   A. Where would the customer like to take a skiing trip? When?
   B. What did the travel agent offer him? Did the customer agree?

4. Listening and reading:
Hand out the tapescript. Replay the extract while students read silently.

5. *Resolving doubts:*

This may involve translating items that remain obscure or allowing students to consult their dictionaries. Ask students to listen and put either (↓or↑) next to each utterance as the conversation is going on.

6. *Reflecting on language features (performance effects):*

a) **Paying attention (activating prior knowledge):**

- Say while writing on board, "We took … last session *er* backchannelling devices backchannelling devices and hedges */hetches/.*
- Say, "I have not planned to say this sentence before saying it. So, I paused a little, said '*er*', *repeated* some words, and *mispronounced* another word. All these things are what called *performance effects.*"

b) **Noticing the gap:**

- Play the extract asking students to underline the performance effects in the conversation.
- Ask students to mention the reason for these performance effects.

c) **Understanding (rule generalization):**

- Extract the rule: When speaking, interlocutors have not already worked out what forms of the language they are going to use to express what they want to say. In their heads, they may well have quite clear intentions, but they will actually express these intentions spontaneously. Most speech is produced "on-line"; that is to say, in real time and it is therefore essentially linear. Its contingent nature, whereby it is produced utterance-by-utterance (i.e. the spoken equivalent of sentence), accounts for its spontaneity and immediacy. Features of spoken grammar that are associated with speaking in real time are called performance effects. They include: unfilled or filled pauses, repetition, and mispronunciation.

7. *Tell students that they have to do their SJ#5 today and revise it continually.*

Tapescript 4[*]

Speechwork: Intonation in tag questions
  a. You went for two weeks last year, didn't you?
  b. The 10.35 flight is fully booked, isn't it?
  c. You're returning alone, aren't you?
  d. Your husband isn't going with you, is he?
  e. There is a guided tour, isn't there?

Travel Agents (Listening 1)
  A: Good morning. Would you like some help or are you just looking?
  B: Good morning. Well, I was considering taking a short skiing trip. You don't happen to have any bargain packages, do you?
  A: Ah well. As it so happens, yes. But could you first give me some idea of where and when you'd like to go?
  B: Anytime between now and mid-March really but the sooner the better.

[*] Continued

Tapescript 4 (**Continued**)

A: Would you prefer to ski in Europe or America?
B: I was thinking of Switzerland or Austria but it's more a question of cost and good skiing. Could you suggest where we can find good intermediate to advanced ski runs?
A: Mm, well ... we have a seven-night self-catering deal to Verbier in Switzerland and that's £259 and one to Alpach in Austria for £169. Both leave this Saturday. That's not too short notice, is it?
B: No, that's fine. Um, my partner prefers Switzerland so I guess I'll take that one. Er, could you tell me which airport the flight leaves from?
A: Yes, Gatwick.
B: And the plane comes back to Gatwick, does it?
A: That's right.
B: Fine.
A: Right, well, let me take a few particulars. Could you tell me what your name is?
B: Yes, Bogdan Kominowski.
A: Um ... yes ... er, would you mind spelling that for me?

SESSION 7

Travel Agents (con.)

Objectives

By the end of the session, students will have an awareness of some features of spoken grammar:

- **Spoken clause structure:** where one clause is added to another in a linear and incremental way.
- **Ellipsis:** when subjects and verbs are omitted.

Procedures

1. Asking some questions to revise the conversation:
A. Who is talking to whom about what, and why?
B. Where would the customer like to take a skiing trip? When?
C. What did the travel agent offer him? Did he agree?

2. Doing a follow-up activity:
Hand out a paper for doing the following exercise:

Listen to the conversation then work with a partner and complete this conversation:

A. Good morning, (a) ...... some help or are you just (b)......?
B. Good morning. Well, I was considering taking a short skiing trip. You don't happen to have any bargain packages, (c)......?
A. Ah well. As it so happens, yes. But could you first give me some idea of where and when (d)......?
B. Anytime between now and mid-March really, but the sooner the better.
A. Would (e) ...... ski in Europe or America?

A. I was thinking of Switzerland or Austria but it's more a question of cost and good skiing. Could you suggest where (f) ...... good intermediate to advanced ski runs? Mm, well... We have a seven-night self-catering deal to Verbier in Switzerland and that's £259 and one to Alpach in Austria for £169. Both leave this Saturday. That's not too short notice, (g)......?

B. No, that's fine. Um, my partner prefers Switzerland so I guess I'll take that one. Er, could (h) ...... airport (i)......?

A. Yes, Gatwick.

B. And the plane comes back to Gatwick, (j)......?

A. That's right.

B. Fine.

A. Right, well, let me take a few particulars. Could you (k) ...... name (l)......?

C. Yes, Bogdan Kominowski.

D. Um... yes..., er, would you mind spelling that for me?

Listen again and compare your answers. Then act out the conversation.

3. *Reflecting on language features (Spoken clause structure):*

a) **Paying attention (activating prior knowledge):**

- Numerate the previous features of spoken language using short sentences and connecting them using *and* more than once.
- Say that I connected the sentences using *and* not *besides*, *in addition to* or whatever connectors.
- Speakers do not normally have time to construct elaborate patterns of main and subordinate clauses. Much more common are chains of clauses linked by coordinating conjunctions (e.g., *and* or *but*) or by simple subordinating conjunctions (e.g., *cos* or *so*). In talk, these conjunctions often function in a dynamic and listener-sensitive way to coordinate rather than subordinate information.

b) **Noticing the gap:**

- Play the extract asking students to recognize the connectors and spoken clause structure in the conversation.
- Ask students to mention the reason for using this clause structure with these connectors.

c) **Understanding (rule generalization):**

- Extract the rule: The spontaneous nature of spoken English, with only limited planning and thinking time, is particularly marked in clause structure, where one clause is added to another in a linear and incremental way.

4. *Reflecting on language features (ellipsis):*
a) **Paying attention (activating prior knowledge):**
- Ask a student, "How are you?" S/he may say, "Fine!", or "I am fine thank you."

- Explain that the two utterances are the same except that the subject and the verb are omitted in the first.
- Say that this omission is called ellipsis.

b) Noticing the gap:
- Play the extract asking students to find other ellipses.
- Ask students to mention the reason for using this clause structure with these connectors.

c) Understanding (rule generalization):
Extract the rule: It happens when speakers can assume that listeners know enough about people and things in the immediate situation to be able to supply "missing" information. It occurs when subjects and verbs are omitted.

5. *Tell students that they have to do their SJ#6 today and revise it continually.*

SESSION 8

Travel Agents (con.)

Objectives

By the end of the session, students will have an awareness of using:

- **Speech act:** an utterance that serves a function in communication such as an apology, greeting, request, complaint, invitation, compliment, or refusal.
- **Discourse markers:** each discourse marker serves a certain language function.

Procedures

1. Introducing the spoken situation:
Write on board the following points for discussions:

a) The impression you would like clients to have of you.
b) The impression they should receive of your firm
c) How you can give this impression over the telephone.

2. Checking general meaning:
Play the extract pausing after each call to ask some questions. For example, "*Who* is talking to *whom* about *what*, and *why*?"

3. Checking details:
The extract should be replayed twice to answer the following questions:
a) Who made a good impression and why?
b) Who didn't make a good impression? Why not?

4. Listening and reading:

Hand out the tapescript. Replay the extract while students read silently.

5. Resolving doubts:

This may involve translating items that remain obscure or allowing students to consult their dictionaries. Replay the extract pausing after each call asking student to think of an adjective to describe each travel agent.

6. Reflecting on language features (speech acts +discourse markers):

a) Paying attention (activating prior knowledge):

- Ask students to differentiate between, "Good morning!" and "Good afternoon!"
- Elicit that both of them serve a communicative function which is "greeting". This function is different from an utterance like "Can I help you?" which is "an offer for help".
- Remind students of "discourse markers" and that they serve functional meanings different from their dictionary meanings.

b) Noticing the gap:

- Play the extract pausing after each call to analyze its speech acts.
- Ask students to mention the pragmatic meaning of each discourse marker.

c) Understanding (rule generalization):

- Extract the rule: speech acts are utterances that serve functions in communication such as apology, greeting, request, complaint, invitation, compliment, or refusal.
- Discourse markers serve certain language functions different from their dictionary meanings.

7. Tell students that they have to do their SJ#7 today and revise it continually.

Tapescript 5[*]

Travel Agents
Listening 2
Call 1
Agent 1: Yeah, what is it you want?
Caller 1: I'd like to speak to Monsieur Dupres, please.
Agent 1: Who did you say?
Caller 1: Monsieur Dupres in financing?
Agent 1: He doesn't work here any more.
Call 2
In**victa Press:** Hello, Invicta Press, can I help you?
Agent 2: Good morning, this is Sunrise Tours. Can I speak to Mrs. Sharp, please, on extension 452?
Invicta Press: Hold the line, I'm putting you through.
Mrs Sharp: Hello, Mrs. Sharp speaking.

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[*] Continued

Call 3
Caller 2: Hello, can you tell me what currency I'll need to go to the Ukraine?
Agent 3: Yeah, hold the line please and I'll find out for you.
Caller 2: Yes ... (*noise of conversation in background*)
Agent 3: Hello, are you still there?
Caller 2: Yes.
Agent 3: It's the karbovanets.
Caller 2: The what?
Agent 3: The karbovanets.
Caller 2: Never heard of it!
Agent 3: Me neither! (*more background noise*)
Caller 2: Well ... er... thank you.
Agent 3: Jane! Stop it! Thank you. (*hangs up*)
Call 4
Tour operator: Hello, reservations.
Agent 4: Could you check me something on an invoice please?
Tour operator: An invoice. I'll put you through to the accounts department.
Agent 4: Well, er... no it's... (*pause*)
Accounts: Hello, Accounts.
Agent 4: Sorry, but I didn't want Accounts, could you transfer me back to Reservations please?
Accounts: To Reservations? No, I can't. All their lines are engaged. You'd better call back later.
Call 5
Agent 5: Funtours, can I help you?
Caller 3: Could I speak to Mr. Poynter, please?
Agent 5: No, I'm sorry; he's in a meeting at the moment.
Caller 3: Sorry, I didn't quite catch that?
Agent 5: I said he's in a meeting.
Caller 3: Oh ... urn ... OK, um ... thank you.
Call 6
Customer: Can you tell me how much that'll be?
Agent 6: Yes, that's £375 plus a £5.50 sea-view supplement and that's per person per night, so that comes to £452 and another twice £38 flight supplement charge.
Customer: Oh.

SESSION 9

Travel Agents (con.)

Objectives

By the end of the session, students will have an awareness of using:
- **Register:** a shorthand for formal/informal style affected by the relationship between the speaker and the listener.

Procedures

1. *Revising Tapescript 5:*
Play the extract then ask some questions. For example, "What are these conversations about?"

2. *Doing some activities:*
The extract should be replayed twice then ask students to do the following conversation:

You work on the switchboard of Skyways Holidays. Take the telephone call. No one is available in the sales department at present. Offer to take the name and telephone number so that the caller can be contacted.

3. **Reflecting on language features (register):**

   a) **Paying attention (activating prior knowledge):**
   - Elicit that in doing this conversation, the relationship between the speaker and the listener is not the same. So, they spoke formally.
   - Say that when we speak with someone we do not know or someone with a status higher than ours, we use a formal style or otherwise we use an informal one.
   - Formal/informal style is called register.

   b) **Noticing the gap:**
   - Play the extract asking them to recognize the register used in each call
   - Ask students to change the informal style to be formal.

   c) **Understanding (rule generalization):**
   Extract the rule: formal/informal style is affected by the relationship between the speaker and the listener.

4. **Tell students that they have to do their SJ#8 today and revise it continually.**

SESSION 10

Revision: *Where people go*

Objectives:
This session aims at:
- revising all the features of spoken language: phonology (intonation patterns), vocabulary (backchannelling devices, discourse markers, deixis, and hedges), grammar (performance effects, and ellipsis) and pragmatics (speech acts, register, and functions of discourse markers).

Procedures:

1. *Introducing the spoken situation:*
   - Ask, "Could you tell me what are the features of spoken language we studied this term?" List the features on board.
   - Say that they are going to analyze a conversation to find these features.
   - Say that they are going to listen to an American family talking about their holiday in Europe.

2. *Checking general meaning:*
Play the extract then ask some questions. For example, "*Who* is talking to *whom* about *what*, and *why*?"

3. *Checking details:*
The extract should be replayed twice to elicit that Penny Goodman and her husband, Charles, with their son Harry, an advertising salesman in Los Angeles, and his wife Olivia, who is from Maryland, are on the last day of the Tornado Tour. They have visited seven countries in twelve days, a total distance of 2750 miles. This is their first trip to Europe. What were their impressions?

4. *Listening and reading:*
Hand out the tapescript. Replay the extract while students read silently.

5. *Resolving doubts:*
This may involve translating items that remain obscure or allowing students to consult their dictionaries. Replay the extract asking students to take notes on the comments they make about each of these topics: Paris and Florence, Swiss chocolate, cheese, ice cubes, and shopping.

6. *Reflecting on language features (revision):*
For each turn in the conversation, ask a student to analyze it according to the features of spoken language listed on board.

7. *Tell students that they have to do their SJ#9 today and revise it continually.*

Tapescript 6[*]

Where People Go

Interviewer: Penny Goodman and her husband, Charles, with their son Harry, an advertising salesman in Los Angeles, and his wife Olivia, who is from Maryland, are on the last day of the Tornado Tour. They have visited seven countries in twelve days, a total distance of 2,750 miles. This is their first trip to Europe. I asked them what their impressions were…

Interviewer: Can I ask a few questions?

Penny: No problem.

Interviewer: Have you honestly got to know the real Europe in twelve days?

Olivia: Of course not. Seven countries – 2,750 miles. That's why our tour's called the Tornado Tour!

Interviewer: Isn't it ever annoying when you can't get off the bus because you absolutely have to see Rome in two hours?

Penny: Well, I would've kind of liked to stay longer at a couple of places. But it was the first time I've been to Europe and so this was the right trip for me to get an impression of Europe, just to whet my appetite.

Interviewer: Where would you like to go back to if you had the chance to spend just another five minutes in Europe?

Harry: Paris, the Trocadero by night.

Olivia: Florence. To see Michelangelo's David again.

Charles: Those castles. All those wonderful castles on the river. Where was that now ...?

Penny: Germany – between Heidelberg and Bonn.

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[*] Continued

> **Interviewer:** How was the food?
> **Harry:** Swiss chocolate. Fantastic! I always get an allergy from American chocolate. But in Switzerland I could eat white chocolate for the first time in my life. Nestlé's Galak. That's one name I'll never forget.
> **Penny:** And you could eat cheese.
> **Harry:** That's right. I have this allergy to chemically-treated food. In LA you can spend hours trying to find cheese or an apple that hasn't been sprayed with something or other. It's great just to be able to go into a shop and not spend hours researching what is in the apple.
> **Penny:** And the herbs ... Have you ever had a pizza with fresh herbs? The difference is like night and day.
> **Interviewer:** Did you miss anything?
> **Penny:** Sure did, ice cubes. I can't understand how you can serve a cola in the summer without ice cubes. Two minutes in the sun and the stuff is cooking.
> **Interviewer:** Did you go to a McDonald's here?
> **Olivia:** Once, in London. But we have McDonald's in the US too. We came to learn about European culture.
> **Interviewer:** Did you pick up any souvenirs?
> **Olivia:** I picked up two outfits in Rome.
> **Harry:** For a mere 600 dollars!
> **Charles:** Come on, we've all spent a fortune.
> **Interviewer:** On what?
> **Penny:** Oh, crystal in Venice, a cuckoo clock in Geneva, leather bags in Florence. Did I forget anything?
> **Charles:** Silver spoons from almost everywhere.
> **Penny:** Well, my Mom will appreciate them. Anyway, I think it's good to go shopping even if you don't buy anything. It's good to know what everyone else has got. Just to compare.
> **Interviewer:** Has twelve days really been enough to see Europe?
> **Penny:** My son and Olivia – like most Americans – only had two weeks' vacation so there was no choice.

SESSION 11 (POST-TESTING)

Objectives

This session aims at:

- administering the post-test.

Procedures

The following steps will be followed in administering the post-test:

1. *Articulating that students are going to finish the term; and now, they are going to do a test for measuring their levels in oral skills;*

2. *Handing out the test papers;*

3. *Introducing the test saying that this test consists of two parts. To do Part I:*
   - Listen to a conversation twice while following in your tapescript.
   - Answer the following questions in your test papers.

4. *Reading the test items while students follow in their test papers;*
5. *Letting students answer Part I in their test papers; and*

6. *Introducing Part II, telling them that while doing it, their speech will be recorded to be analyzed after that.*

APPENDIX H

Jury Members

Names of the Jury Members

- **Prof. Mustafa Badr**
  Professor of Curriculum and Instruction of English – Faculty of Education, Tanta University

- **Prof. Mohamed Hassan**
  Professor of Curriculum and Instruction of English – Faculty of Education, Zagazig University

- **Prof. Ahmed Abdel-Sallam**
  Professor of Curriculum and Instruction of English – Faculty of Education, Zagazig University

- **Dr. Ahmed Aliweh**
  Associate Professor of Curriculum and Instruction of English – Faculty of Education, Tanta University

- **Dr. Mervat El-Hadedy**
  Associate Professor of Curriculum and Instruction of English – Faculty of Education, Tanta University

- **Dr. Nagwa Serag**
  Associate Professor of Curriculum and Instruction of English – Faculty of Education, Tanta University

- **Dr. Taher Al-Hadi**
  Lecturer of Curriculum and Instruction of English – Faculty of Education, Suez Canal University

جامعة المنصورة
كلية التربية
قسم المناهج و طرق التدريس

فاعلية التأمل فى تنمية الشفاهية لدى طلاب كليات السياحة و الفنادق فى مادة اللغة الإنجليزية

جيهان السيد أحمد زايد

مدرس لغة – كلية السياحة والفنادق – جامعة قناة السويس

تخصص مناهج و طرق تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية

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أستاذ مناهج و طرق تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية   أستاذ مساعد مناهج و طرق تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية

كلية التربية ـ جامعة المنصورة   كلية التربية ـ جامعة المنصورة

٢٠٠٩

ملخص باللغة العربية

مقدمة:

تتم عملية الاتصال خلال تبادل بين فردين أو أكثر، و اللغة هى أحد وسائل الاتصال التى يعتمد عليها الطلاب فى تشكيل معلوماتهم و مشاركة غيرهم فى التفكير، و إذا كانت اللغة تعطى شكلاً للأفكار فلا يؤثر التفكير فى اللغة فقط و لكن تؤثر اللغة فى التفكير أيضاً، لذلك لا تعتبر عملية الاتصال قضية لغوية بحتة و لكن عقلية أيضاً (Stoodt, 1988; Oxford, 1990; Mercer, 2000).

و ترى Hennings (1989) أن اللغة فى الأساس هى حديث شفهى و الكتابة هى التمثيل المرئى لأصوات هذا الحديث، وإذا كانت الشفاهية Oracy هى أكثر شكل تلقائى للغة؛ لا توجد طريقة لإيقاف الصوت و إذا حدث ذلك فلن يكون هناك إلا الصمت، فإن الكتابة Literacy لا تتطلب نفس القدر من الانتباه الذى تتطلبه الشفاهية؛ فبينما تستطيع الشفاهية أن توجد بدون الكتابية، لا تستطيع الكتابية أبداً أن توجد بدون الشفاهية (Ong, 1992; Nicholson, 1998).

و الشفاهية عنصر حيوى فى منهج اللغة الإنجليزية، فهى توفر أساساً لكل أنواع التعلم حيث أن التحدث يزيد من تفكير و فهم الطلاب من خلال تزويدهم بفرص لكى يعبروا و يستكشفوا الأفكار ليربطوا بين ما يعرفونه و ما هم على وشك معرفته (Zhang and Alex, 1995)، و لذلك تكون الشفاهية رابط هام فى عملية التفكير، و تنمية التفكير تتضمن زيادة الاهتمام بجوانبه الناقدة و الابتكارية و أيضاً التأملية، فالمدرسة متهمة لقلة معرفة الطلاب، و لكن الأسوأ أن هذا القليل يحتفظون به دون أن ينتقدوه أو أن يتأملوه، فالطالب الذى يتأمل تعلمه يكون على وعى بفروضه و بالقدر نفسه بالأسباب و الدلائل التى تدعم هذا أو ذاك الاستنتاج. و مثل هذا التأمل Reflection أساس لخلق ممارسات متقنة (Lipman, 2003).

و على هذا يمكن القول أن التأمل هو قناة أساسية يمكن من خلالها أن يكتسب الطلاب وعياً أعمق و أشمل بعملية تعلمهم، و لكى تنمى الشفاهية يحتاج الطلاب أن يتأملوا استخدامهم و استخدام غيرهم للغة (Grainger, 1999)، و لذلك لابد من تشجيعهم على أن يتأملوا بصورة ناقدة: ماذا يفعلون؟ كيف يفعلون؟ ولماذا يفعلون؟ لكى يخططوا و يوجهوا تعلمهم (Wright and Bolitho, 1993; Ellis, 1998; Venn and Terrell, 1998; Bage, 1999; Putnam, 2000) وهذا سيؤدى حتماً إلى استخدام اللغة كأداة للتفكير؛ فالحوار يحفز التفكير بطريقة لا يمكن للخبرة غير التفاعلية أن تقوم بها.

و لأن اللغة تتبع قواعد متسقة ، هذه القواعد تساعدنا فى توصيل رسائل إلى الآخرين الذين يتحدثون نفس اللغة (Stoodt, 1988)، و هؤلاء المتحدثون لا يعون أو ينطقون هذه القواعد أثناء تطبيقها وإنما ينمون إحساساً غريزياً بكيفية وضع الكلمات فى وحدات كلية ذات معنى، و نظرية التوالدية Noam Chomsky's Generative Theory فى النمو اللغوى توضح قدرة المتحدث على أن يكوِّن جملاً لم يسمعها أو يقرأها من قبل حيث يوظف ما أدخله من تراكيب لغوية من خلال استماعه للغة المنطوقة (Hennings, 1989). و بالتالى يفترض أننا عندما يعطى الطلاب وقتاً لكى يتأملوا استخدامهم و استخدام غيرهم للغة يمكنهم أن ينموا وعياً بقواعدها الشفهية و الأهم من ذلك أنهم ينقلون هذه القواعد إلى مواقف حياتية. و لذلك فالشفاهية فى نموها تعتمد على ارتباط بين زيادة الوعى داخل الفصل و الأداء خارجه.

و يرى Seibert (1999) أن التأمل هو أساس التعلم من الخبرة؛ فهو عملية تفحص و استكشاف قضية ذات اهتمام من خلال المرور بخبرة تخلق أو توضح معنى له علاقة بالنفس فتؤدى إلى تغيير مفاهيم الفرد، ففى التأمل يكون الطالب واعياً مستكشفاً ناقلاً أجزاءً من الخبرة لكى ينتج فهماً جديداً، و يفعل الطالب ذلك من خلال الوصف و الاتصال و التقييم و الاستنتاج من خلال جماعة أو بيئة مشجعة على ذلك.

كما يذهب Seibert (1999) إلى تقسيم التأمل إلى أسلوبين هما: التأمل أثناء الخبرة Active Reflection و التأمل بعد الخبرة Proactive Reflection، و طبقاً لثلاث رؤى نظرية يحدث هذا التأمل من خلال ثلاث طرق:

١. **الفردية Individual**: يؤكد Jean Piaget على أن عملية التأمل هى عملية فردية، حيث أن التعلم هو تفاعل مستمر بين الفرد و البيئة، وهنا يتطلب التأمل التكامل بين المفاهيم و الخبرة.

٢. **الأقران Peer-based**: يدعم Kurt Lewin تنمية التأمل من خلال مجموعات النقاش و روح الاستقصاء و زيادة الوعى و تنمية العلاقات.

٣. **الموجهة من المعلم Tutor-guided**: يدعو John Dewey إلى تنمية التأمل من خلال المناقشات مع أقران مع تلقى المساعدة من شخص ذى خبرة.

إن محاولة الطلاب استكشاف اللغة الإنجليزية هو بحث لما وراء اللغة، من لغة ملموسة أثناء الاستخدام إلى تعميم معنوى و تكوين للقواعد، ولذلك يمكن أن يشترك الطلاب فى الحديث عن اللغة و مناقشتها بطريقة تحليلية و شرح استنتاجاتهم (Valentin, 1996)، كما يستطيعون الاحتفاظ بصحف تساعدهم على التأمل، هذه الصحف تكون إما مكتوبة أو شفهية مسجلة على شرائط كاسيت؛ لكى يستطيع الطلاب أن يطرحوا رؤاهم و الأسباب التى تؤيد ما يفكرون فيه و يظهرون الوعى

بالأفكار المتعارضة و جوانب الضعف فيما يعرفون (Dantas-Whitney, 2002; Granville and Dison, 2005).

و لأهمية الشفاهية فى اللغة الإنجليزية لجميع الطلاب بصفة عامة و لطلاب كليات السياحة و الفنادق بصفة خاصة؛ حيث يعتمد نجاحهم الوظيفى عليها بشكل كبير تم استخدام أسلوب التأمل فى تنمية الشفاهية لدى طلاب كلية السياحة والفنادق – جامعة قناة السويس– التى تتكون من ثلاثة أقسام: دراسات فندقية و دراسات سياحية و إرشاد سياحى، و تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية بها يعتمد على نظام المحاضرة لمدة ساعتين أسبوعياً لبعض قطع الهدف منها هو الفهم القرائى، كما أن لكل قسم ساعتين لممارسة اللغة عملياً، و الفرقتان الثالثة والرابعة فقط لديهما الفرصة لمثل هذه الممارسة داخل معمل اللغة، و لكن هذه الممارسة لا تأخذ إلا شكل تدريس بعض القواعد النحوية، دون أن يكون لدى الطلاب الفرصة لممارسة اللغة فى مواقف حياتية، يختبرون فيها و يمارسون التحدث للغة الإنجليزية. و من خلال ذلك فقد ساعدهم التأمل على استخلاص قواعد لاستخدام بعض متحدثى اللغة الأصلية اللغة الشفهية فى موقف ما، كما جعلهم يفهمون مستويات الصعوبة أثناء تحليل رد شخص ما أثناء الموقف، و ما يمكن أن يقوموا به أثناء أدائهم لنفس الموقف.

تحديد مشكلة الدراسة:

أثبتت الدراسة الاستطلاعية التى قامت بها الباحثة أن مستوى الشفاهية لدى طلاب كلية السياحة و الفنادق دون المتوسط مما قد يعيق نجاحهم الوظيفى فى المستقبل. و تشير الدراسات السابقة إلى أن التأمل يزيد من وعى الطلاب بكيفية استخدام الآخرين (متحدثى اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أصلية) للغة شفهياً مما قد أدى إلى تنمية الشفاهية لديهم. و لذلك استطاعت الدراسة الحالية أن تجيب عن التساؤل الرئيس التالى :

● ما فاعلية استخدام التأمل فى تنمية الشفاهية لدى طلاب كليات السياحة و الفنادق فى مادة اللغة الإنجليزية ؟

و فى سبيل ذلك أجابت الدراسة عن الأسئلة الفرعية التالية:

١. ما جوانب الشفاهية التى ينبغى أن ينميها طلاب كليات السياحة و الفنادق ؟

٢. ما السمات المرتبطة بخصائص اللغة الشفهية التى يستطيع طلاب كليات السياحة و الفنادق التأمل فيها؟

٣. ما فاعلية التأمل فى استخدام هذه السمات فى تنمية الشفاهية فى مادة اللغة الإنجليزية لدى طلاب كليات السياحة والفنادق؟

٤. إلى أى مدى يمكن التنبؤ بالأداء الشفهى لطلاب كليات السياحة والفنادق من خلال وعيهم بهذه السمات؟

٥. إلى أى مدى يمكن التنبؤ بأداء طلاب كليات السياحة والفنادق فى الاختبار البعدى للشفاهية من خلال درجاتهم على صحفهم الشفاهية؟

حدود الدراسة:

تقتصر هذه الدراسة على:

١. عينة عشوائية من طلاب الفرقة الثالثة بكلية السياحة والفنادق ـ جامعة قناة السويس ـ مدينة الإسماعيلية، حيث يقصر دخول معمل اللغات بالكلية على طلاب كل من الفرقتين: الثالثة و الرابعة. و لذلك يكون لدى طلاب الفرقة الثالثة الفرصة لممارسة التأمل فى استخدام سمات اللغة الشفهية عندما ينتقلون للفرقة الرابعة.

٢. ستة نصوص شفهية ـ مسجلة على شريط كاسيت ـ من المقرر الدراسى English for International Tourism، و هذا المقرر موصى به من قبل الغرفة التجارية و الصناعية و هيئة وضع الامتحانات ـ لندن، و ذلك لاجتياز اختبار اللغة الإنجليزية للعاملين فى مجال السياحة. و هذه النصوص تزخر بالسمات الشفهية المستهدفة مما ساعد الطلاب على تكوين رؤية شاملة لكيفية استخدامها.

أدوات الدراسة:

١. **اختبار للشفاهية** Oracy Test (OT) ـ إعداد الباحثة ـ استخدم كاختبار قبلى و بعدى. و يتكون من جزئين لاختبار جانبى الشفاهية: الوعى اللغوى و الأداء الشفهى

٢. **مجموعة من المعايير** Scoring Rubric (SR) ـ إعداد الباحثة ـ لتقييم أداء الطلاب عن أدائهم فى الجزء الثانى من الاختبار.

٣. **صحيفة شفهية** Spoken Journal (SJ): عشرة أسئلة ـ إعداد الباحثة ـ قام الطلاب بالإجابة عنها شفهياً و تسجيل الإجابة على شرائط كاسيت كل أسبوع.

٤. **استبيان** Student Questionnaire (SQ): عشرة جمل ـ إعداد الباحثة ـ للوقوف على مدى إلمام الطلاب بأهداف البرنامج و رد فعلهم بعد القيام بأول تسجيل فى الصحيفة الشفهية.

أهمية الدراسة:

١. تقديم دليل للمعلم يوضح كيفية استخدام التأمل فى تنمية الشفاهية.

٢. وضع معايير مقننة لتقييم الأداء الشفهى لدى طلاب اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية.

٣. جذب انتباه طلاب اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية إلى اللغة كشىء يدعو للتأمل.

منهج الدراسة:

اتبعت الدراسة المنهج التجريبى حيث تم تقسيم العينة إلى مجموعتين تجريبية CG و ضابطة EG، درست كل منها النصوص الشفهية ، و لكن الأخيرة كان لديها فرصة التأمل اللغوى لهذه النصوص كما قد أجابوا على الاستبيان الشفهى و احتفظوا بصحف شفهية.

إجراءات الدراسة:

١. مراجعة الأدبيات السابقة الخاصة بموضوع الدراسة بالإضافة إلى أهداف تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية فى كلية السياحة والفنادق – جامعة قناة السويس، و ذلك للآتى:

* تحديد السمات المرتبطة بخصائص اللغة الشفهية التى يستطيع طلاب كليات السياحة و الفنادق التأمل في استخدامها.

* إعداد Session Plans تم فيها وضع الإجراءات التدريسية للنصوص الشفهية المأخوذة من المقرر الدراسى English for International Tourism طبقاً لاستخدام التأمل فى التعلم.

٢. إعداد اختبار لقياس الشفاهية (OT)، ثم تحديد صدق و ثبات هذا الاختبار.

٣. إعداد مجموعة من المعايير(SR) لتقييم أداء الطلاب عن أدائهم فى الجزء الثانى من الاختبار. وتم تحديد صدقها و ثباتها.

٤. إعداد و تحديد صدق و ثبات الصحيفة شفهية (SJ).

٥. إعداد و تحديد صدق الاستبيان (SQ).

٦. تطبيق الاختبار قبليًا على عينة البحث

٧. التدريس للمجموعة التجريبية كما هو مبين فى التصميم التجريبى للدراسة و المجموعة الضابطة بالطريقة التقليدية.

٨. تطبيق الاختبار بعدياً على عينة البحث.

٩. معالجة التطبيقين الأول و الثانى للاختبار إحصائياً.

١٠. تقديم النتائج وتفسيرها.

١١. تقديم التوصيات و المقترحات.

نتائج الدراسة:

أظهر تطبيق الدراسة ما يلى :

أ. يوجد فرق ذو دلالة إحصائية بين متوسطى درجات المجموعة التجريبية و المجموعة الضابطة فى التطبيق البعدى لاختبار الشفاهية عند مستوى (٠.٠١) لصالح المجموعة التجريبية.

ب. يمكن التنبؤ بالأداء الشفهى طلاب كليات السياحة والفنادق من خلال وعيهم بالسمات الشفهية للغة.

ت. يمكن التنبؤ بأداء طلاب كليات السياحة والفنادق فى الاختبار البعدى للشفاهية من خلال درجاتهم فى صحفهم الشفهية.

ARABIC SUMMARY