KEY ELEMENTS OF L1-ORAL LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

A LITERATURE REVIEW

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Abstract

In order to inform the redesign of L1-oral language education in secondary schools, international literature was analyzed to deduce key elements, effective and practical ingredients, of good quality L1-oral language lessons. Thirteen articles were selected based on a systematic database search and analyzed with Van den Akker's curricular spiderweb (Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009). From the most frequently mentioned codes we could extract five, empirical based, key elements which support student oral language learning in the classroom: 1) a clear oral language skills framework with criteria; 2) the exploration of students' speaking potential by analysis and assessment of oracy skills; 3) self-, peer- and teacher-feedback on speaking; 4) observations of and discussions about videotaped speakers; and 5) regular practice with various speaking tasks. In addition, L1-oral language curriculum should give students the chance to develop their oral language competence throughout the school year because this helps them 1. to build on their speaking experiences and 2. to let their confidence grow when speaking in public.

Keywords: L1, oral language education, secondary education, review of literature, key elements

1.   INTRODUCTION

Over the last few decades, oral language education has gained a clear place in L1-curricula all over the world. In England, Flanders, Germany, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, the USA, France, Denmark and Finland, views on mother tongue education have evolved in very similar ways. As Van de Ven (2005) and Sawyer and Van de Ven (2006) have indicated, the well-defined literary-grammatical L1 curricula of the 19th century and the personal, child-centered developmental paradigms of the early 20th century were followed in the 1960s and 1970s by a more open and society-centered communicative paradigm. From the 1980s, a more normative and society and economic-centered utilitarian paradigm emerged, which created scope for language teaching with a focus on language as a means of communication. Educational goals in secondary L1-education increasingly focused on teaching students to function in society and on emancipating them. In the mid-1990s there was a shift from the traditional focus on reading and writing in L1-education, and speaking and listening became important as well.

This became all too clear when in 2001 the Council of Europe published The Common European Framework, meant to provide 'a common basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses, curriculum guidelines, examinations, textbooks, etc. across Europe.' The Council underlined the grown importance of oral language education in the L1- and L2-education by giving it a clear place in the Framework. Not long after that the OECD (2005, p.10) developed key competencies to inform the world wide PISA-project in which spoken and written language were described as essential tools 'for functioning well in society and the workplace and participating in an effective dialogue with others.' In several Western countries, such as the Netherlands, these developments resonated in L1-education and oral language education nowadays has acquired a formal place in the L1-curriculum.

Despite the increased attention for L1-oral language education in the last twenty years, there is hardly any present-day, empirical evidence about effective L1-oral language education available (Bonset & Braaksma, 2008; Kaldahl, Bachinger & Rijlaarsdam, 2019; Kaldahl, 2019). In order to inform L1-teachers in secondary schools and L1-curricula reformers, we analyzed international research literature to deduce key elements of good quality L1-oral language teaching. First, we provide more context by elaborating on the concepts of oracy, oral language skills and oral presentation competence and explaining our research focus on monologues. Then we will describe oral language education in the L1-secondary school curriculum in the Dutch context, which is also relevant to L1-oral language education in other Western countries.

The concept of oracy is a rich one and researchers and educators seem to use different angles to understand and study it. Kaldahl et al. (2019, p.1) define oracy as the 'most utilized and basic form of human communication'. They refer to Wilkinson (1965) who introduced the term oracy to describe the skills set which involves speak-

ing and listening. Following Wilkinson, this set involves all kinds of speaking and listening forms in all kinds of (in)formal situations. From formal speeches for an audience to peer interaction in a small group. De Grez (2009), De Grez, Valcke and Roozen (2009; 2012) and Van Ginkel, Gulikers, Bieman and Mulder (2017) focus in their studies on 'oral presentation competence', which they define as 'a combination of knowledge, skills and attitudes needed to speak in public in order to inform, self-express, relate, or to persuade' (De Grez, 2009, p. 5). De Grez et al. (2009) describe oral presentation competence criteria which can be categorized in criteria of content, delivery and general quality of speech performance.

The Dutch L1-standards for secondary education operationalize oracy as a set of monological and dialogical skills. The student first has to learn to gather relevant information for the speaking task, and then to present it adequately in relation to the audience, speaking goal and speaking genre. In addition, students have to learn to respond adequately to conversation partners (Meestringa, Ravesloot & Bonset, 2012). Monologues, mostly the formal public speech, are the most widely taught and assessed L1-oral language tasks in Dutch secondary schools (Gelinck, 2000 and Meestringa & Ravesloot, 2012). This explains our focus on monologues in this literature review on L1-oral language education and our interest in the concept of oral presentations, as defined by the Council of Europe (2001) and De Grez et al. (2009).

Currently, groups of Dutch education experts are working on a revision of the L1-curriculum. One of the main themes is learning to communicate in the mother tongue via reading, writing, speaking and listening. Knowledge of language and use of language are seen as vital elements of this. The experts state that it is important to teach students to become reflective, conscious language users (Coppen, 2018 and Curriculum.nu, 2018). They have built their opinions on international ideas about language awareness and education (Bolitho et al., 2003) which are embedded in the normative and society and economic-centered utilitarian paradigm. However, the practical implications of this view for Dutch L1-oral language education have not yet been worked out.

Since the 1990s, several Dutch L1-experts have emphasized the importance of building a knowledge base on L1-oral language education with insights into good lesson practices and valid and reliable ways to assess spoken language (Bonset & Braaksma, 2008 and Lammers, 1993). In the light of the upcoming L1-curriculum changes in secondary schools in the Netherlands, an analysis of empirical research on effective and practical ingredients of L1-oral language lessons in secondary education was necessary. Taking into account the extent to which these ingredients mentioned in the literature inform educational practice based on empirical information, they will be labelled as 'key elements' of good quality L1-oral language teaching. Meaning, meeting the educational goals which are set for L1-oral language education.
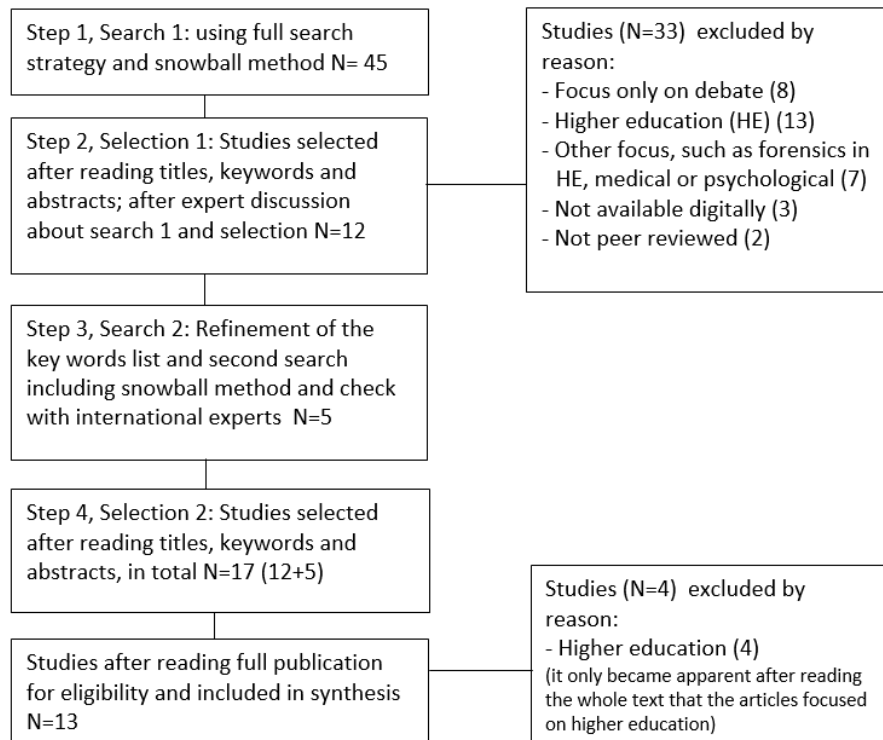
The research question of this thematic, international literature study was: "What are the key elements of good-quality L1-oral language teaching in secondary education?"

2.   METHOD

2.1 Search and selection of articles

We conducted a systematic review study using the guideline of Okoli & Schabram (2010). We started the literature search with a pilot search (search 1) with the goal of selecting articles and refining the set of keywords. This final set of keywords was used for a second search, which was followed by a screening and reading phase, see Figure 1 for the flowchart. The whole procedure was evaluated and confirmed in a meeting with the authors.

Figure 1. Flowchart showing the search and selection procedure

Step 1, Search 1: using full search strategy and snowball method N= 45

Step 2, Selection 1: Studies selected after reading titles, keywords and abstracts; after expert discussion about search 1 and selection N=12

Studies (N=33) excluded by reason:
- Focus only on debate (8)
- Higher education (HE) (13)
- Other focus, such as forensics in HE, medical or psychological (7)
- Not available digitally (3)
- Not peer reviewed (2)

Step 3, Search 2: Refinement of the key words list and second search including snowball method and check with international experts N=5

Step 4, Selection 2: Studies selected after reading titles, keywords and abstracts, in total N=17 (12+5)

Studies after reading full publication for eligibility and included in synthesis N=13

Studies (N=4) excluded by reason:
- Higher education (4)
(it only became apparent after reading the whole text that the articles focused on higher education)

The inclusion criteria and keyword lists of Search 1 and 2 are described in Table 1. Peer-reviewed studies published between 1995 and 2019 were included in the selection. This time span was chosen because oral language education was formally implemented in L1-curricula in many Western countries in these two decades (Council of Europe, 2001 and Verbeek, 1996). In the Netherlands, new L1-standards were

introduced in secondary schools in 1996, with oral language as a new formalized element (Hulshof, Kwakernaak & Wilhelm, 2015).

Table 1: Inclusion criteria and key words

Type	Inclusion criteria	Search 1: pilot list of key words	Search 2: refined list of key words
Education type	secondary education	secondary education, education	
Classroom context	L1 education	L1, mother tongue education	
Language skill	oracy, monologue, presentation	oral language, speech, speaking, speaking task, speaking competence, presentation, public speaking	oral language, speech, speaking, speaking task, speaking competence, presentation, public speaking, oracy, communicative competence, communication skills, oral presentation, pedagogy, rhetoric
Language of publication	English and Dutch		
Year of publication	1995 or later		
Snowball articles year of publication	1995 or later		
Scientific quality	peer-reviewed journals or book chapters		

The 'All databases' search option in Web of Science and the search engine Google Scholar were used to search for relevant publications. In Search 1, this procedure resulted in 45 publications. By scanning titles and abstracts, the search was extended to specific journals: *Language and Education, The Journal of Language Teaching and Learning, Language Teaching Research, Journal of Language* and *Education and Language Awareness* (+1). A backward and forward snowballing procedure (Wohlin, 2014) based on references from these 45 publications did not lead to more relevant publications.

Of all the publications (*N* = 45) which were found in Search 1, the first and second authors read the titles, the keywords and abstracts. Studies conducted in higher education, non-peer-reviewed articles as well as studies solely focusing on debates or polylogues were left out. Twelve studies were selected. After that, all the authors decided on the list of refined keywords for the second search phase (see Table 1).

For Search 2, the first author used the same procedure as in Search 1 (with the same search engines, inclusion criteria and combinations of keywords). This second search resulted in four more articles being added to the set of twelve. We then asked two experts on oral language education to check the list of sixteen articles and to

suggest possible missing publications; this resulted in the addition of one more article to our list.

After reading the seventeen articles, the authors agreed to exclude four of them. It turned out that these concerned research carried out in the context of higher education. Of the thirteen articles included in the selection, some reported about more contexts than only secondary education or about monologues *and* dialogues.

2.2 Data analysis

The first author conducted a deductive procedure to analyze the data with several checks in the analyzing process by the co-authors. Firstly, the research question, research methodology and findings were summarized (see Table 3). Secondly, all the articles were fully analyzed for substantiated conclusions and claims about good quality L1-oral language teaching. To categorize this information, we used the generally accepted and commonly used curricular themes from Van den Akker's curricular spiderweb (Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009), see Table 2. This instrument helps to provide an overview of the main aspects of educational curricula, in this case of the L1-oral language curriculum.

The results section provides an overview of the findings of the thirteen articles clustered into the curricular spiderweb thematic framework. Based on this clustering, we extracted key elements of L1-oral language lessons. We weighed the findings by determining the scientific value of the articles and the distinctive coded items per curricular theme, taking into account the extent to which these informed educational practice based on empirical information.

The thirteen articles hardly addressed the themes Time and Location; therefore, these themes did not inform the key elements. In addition, the findings in Rationale, Objectives and Content did not inform the key elements, as these aspects were not objects of research in the eleven selected articles.

Table 2. Curricular themes and questions, based on Van den Akker's spiderweb, used for the analysis of the selected articles

Curricular themes and questions
Rationale:
Why should we teach/develop students' L1 oral language skills?
Objectives:
Which objectives should L1-oral language education aim for? /
Towards which goals of oral language are students learning?
Content:
What are they learning?
Learning activities:
Which learning activities are most suitable in order to obtain these objectives?/
How are they learning?
Organization and teacher role:
How could these learning experiences be organized effectively? / How is the
teacher facilitating the learning of L1-oral language?
Grouping:
With whom are students learning?
Materials and resources:
With what are they learning?
Time
When are they learning? (planning)
Location
Where are they learning? (physical and digital learning environment and their interior)
Assessment:
How can we determine whether the objectives have been achieved? / How is their learning assessed?

3 FINDINGS

3.1 Overview of studies

The research questions, research methods and outcomes of the thirteen articles are shown in Table 3. This overview enabled us to gain insight into what the thirteen articles concluded in relation to L1-oral language education.

The descriptive qualitative research and quantitative research presented in the articles not only differ in scientific approach and sample sizes but also in research objects and identified central concepts. Eleven of the thirteen articles can be typified as empirical studies. Six of them are case studies (one of them with a specific focus on the assessment of oral language). One article can be characterized as a literature review with a historical focus (Keith, 2008). One article reports on a collection of empirical, quantitative studies about the use of video to provide feedback (Bourhis & Allen, 1998). Oliver, Haig and Rochecouste (2005) report on oral language classroom practices in several schools and Carlson and Smith-Howell (1995) present a study on the reliability and validity of L1-oral language assessment instruments for

the assessment of public speaking. Casteleyn (2019) presents a quasi-experimental design study on speaking stress and speaking competence under impact of an improvisational theatre program. Finally, in the selection of thirteen, two studies do not show empirical evidence. Cohen and Wei (2010) present a description of a lesson intervention and the article of Keith (2011) can best be characterized as an essay based on a literature study.

In the thirteen articles the following examples of research objectives and used central concepts can be discovered: teaching of oracy, oral language skills, communicative competence, public speaking competence, effective speech, (formative and summative) assessment of speaking skills, feedback on speaking and confidence of a public speaker. From the majority of articles (10) a broad view occurs on oracy and public speaking competence, roughly including the skills which are categorized by Mercer, Warwick and Ahmed (2016): physical skills (e.g. voice and body language); linguistic (e.g.vocabulary and structure); cognitive (e.g. content; reasoning and audience awareness) and social & emotional skills (e.g. confidence while speaking). Where some authors give specific attention to the justification of their research objects and make serious efforts to define their central concepts (e.g. Baxter 2002; Mercer et al., 2016 and Patiung, Tolla, Hum & Dolla, 2015), other authors (e.g. Bourhis & Allen, 1998 and Cohen & Wei, 2010) provide more global information. The possible cause for this variation is the lack of a strong theoretical base of well-defined central concepts in this still relatively new research field of L1-oral language education. However, it seems the majority of the authors have a rather broad understanding of concepts like oracy and oral language skills, meaning they acknowledge oracy as a rich construct manifesting in various oral forms and oral language skills as a set of different interrelated competencies.

Table 3: Overview of the selected articles (N = 13): research questions, type of research and research method, results and conclusions

Authors and year of publication	Research question	Type of research and research method	Results and conclusions
Baxter, 2000	In the context of contributing to curriculum development work, this study focuses on what constitutes an effective 'public' speaker at GCSE level and on how English teachers can help their students develop such skills?	An ethnographic case study in the UK of a Year 10 class with 24 students. Data from: lesson observations, video recordings, semi-structured interviews with the teacher and groups of students, and a staff moderation meeting where students' work was assessed. Data-analysis: a multi-method approach.	This study argues that students have to become effective instead of dominant speakers. To become *effective* speakers, students have to develop 1) their ability to speak out; 2) their case-making skills; 3) flexibility while speaking, moving between different styles of engagement; 4) the ability to challenge dominant views; 5) ways of using humor to persuade or draw the attention. For teachers it is important to 1) create a safe learning environment with regular opportunities to practice oral language skills; 2) give the students the chance to act in competitive settings; and 3) help students to meta-analyze and discuss the effectiveness of examples of videotaped speakers.
Baxter, 2002	This study '*investigates why it is that boys often appear to be more confident and adept than girls at speaking out in classroom public contexts.*'	An ethnographic case study in the UK of a Year 10 class with 24 students. Data from: lesson observations, video recording, semi-structured interviews with the teacher and groups of students, and a staff moderation meeting where students' work was assessed. Data-analysis: a multi-method approach.	Evidence in this explorative study showed that boys are indeed more powerfully positioned than girls in a variety of speaking tasks. They are more likely to use a sidekick or support group, generally accepted by an audience of boys and girls. When girls do the same, this is generally not accepted by a similar audience. Furthermore, boys are better than girls at using humor effectively in their oral tasks. The researcher claims that teachers need to discuss with their students why some speakers are more effective than others and to help them understand why it is that public speaking is more challenging for some speakers than for others.
Bourhis & Allen, 1998	What effect does the use of videotaping have in public speaking courses to provide feedback to students?	A quantitative synthesis study: a collection of empirical, quantitative studies (N=12) about the use of video technology in the teaching of public speaking and experimental studies in the context of college and higher education. The goal is to determine the average effect size across the group of studies through meta-analysis.	This study has four main findings. The use of videotaped feedback ensures 1) better content of student speeches; 2) greater oral skill acquisition; 3) better performance on objective tests and 4) it ensures a more positive attitude towards the basic speaking course. There is no sign of increased anxiety when videotaped feedback is added to a public speaking course. Based on these results the use of videotaped feedback for instructional uses in oral language lessons is justified.
Carlson & Smith-Howell, 1995	'*Do evaluation forms and/or speech evaluation experience affect speech ratings?*'	A descriptive and methodological study which investigates the reliability and validity of speech rating instruments and the educational backgrounds of raters (*N* = 58) in public speaking courses. Participants with varying degrees of experience with rating rated two speeches (at A- and C-level) with four different rating forms. Analysis: Cronbach's alpha; paired comparison t-tests; series of one-way analyses of variance with follow-up Newman-Keuls tests and paired t-tests.	Results show that various sets of evaluation forms and the speech evaluation experience and backgrounds of raters do not affect speech ratings. The researched forms contained commonly used oral language criteria ('the fundamental constructs of content and delivery') and rating scales. All forms used had total score reliability. Less or more experienced raters could determine whether criteria were absent or present in the speeches, which indicated content validity. The authors claim that their study shows that teacher-constructed procedures for oral language assessment are reliable and valid. Finally, '*a lack of extensive rater training and experience does not appear to have a major negative impact on the evaluation process.*'
Casteleyn, 2018	This study '*investigated the impact of improv(isational) theatre training on public speaking stress and public speaking competence of students aged 17–18 years.*'	A case study with an adopted mixed-method design. Data from: a pre- and post-test self-report of public speaking stress. For this a Dutch version was used of the form of Hook, Smith and Valentiner (2008) with a seven-point Likert scale. Participants were Grade 12, L1-secondary school students (average age of 17 years; *N* = 35) who either were part of an intervention group or of a control group. The speaking competence of the students in both conditions was assessed before and after the received education via comparative judgement of videotaped speaking tasks (*N* = 64) by 13 assessors who all have an educational profession. The intervention consisted of four 50-minute improvisational theatre training sessions.	Findings are: public speaking competence in the control group at both test moments showed a '*robust relationship*'. However, in the experimental group this result could not be found. Secondly, in the experimental group at test moment 2 there '*was no longer a difference in quality in the public speaking competence related to whether the topic of the speaking task was student oriented.*' [..] Also, '*the significant relationship between public speaking stress and public speaking competence at test moment 1 disappeared at test moment 2.*' The author shows that the impact of the improvisational training on public speaking stress is not detected. He claims that the qualitative data analysis implies that there are some tendencies which indicate an impact of the intervention on public speaking anxiety and speaking competence over a longer period of time and for students '*with a distinctive but limited amount of public speaking stress*' but not for students '*who experience no stress when speaking in front of an audience*'.

Casteleyn, 2019	*'Does an improvisation training that focuses on eye-contact, body language, and voice have an impact on the public speaking competence of students in secondary education?'*	A study with a quasi-experimental design consisting of an intervention group which experienced four lessons of theatre exercises and a control group which experienced 'regular' L1-lessons which not specifically focused on the training of public speaking. Data was derived from a one minute pre- and post-test of speaking competence of Grade 10, L1-student participants ($N = 18$, average age of 15 years) in secondary education. The tests were videotaped ($N = 33$) for comparative judgement by 3 assessors. The General Linear Model ANCOVA analysis was used to answer the research question.	The impact of the intervention on speaking competence was shown to be significant but moderate. The author gives a number of reasons to explain these results. He claims that possibly the actual effect of the intervention was not directly examined in this study, due to the more holistic way of assessment rather than to assess only eye-contact, body language and voice in relation to speaking competence.
Cohen & Wei, 2010 (*CW*)	How can the analogy of music in oral language lessons stimulate students' oral language competence: in particular, teaching them to speak powerfully?	A substantiated description of a lesson intervention based on analogies derived from the world of music with pedagogical advice on oral language education.	The analogy of music as speech has proved itself to be an effective way for teachers and students to explore the fundamentals of speech delivery, such as speaking powerfully and delivering a message 'which resonates with the audience'. The authors argue that a good composer, like an effective speaker, 1) uses repeating themes; 2) evokes emotion; and 3) builds to a climax. They state (but do not prove) that the described music intervention will help students to critically overthink their own (improvement of) communication skills and will help them to understand how professional speakers use musical images to influence their audiences.
Keith, 2008	How can we describe the history of the views, the goals and discussions of different groups of oracy teachers from 1880 to 2008 in the United States of America and their influence on research about oral language education?	Literature study. Historical overview of the speech field *'by examining the primary sources for its institutional and pedagogical origins'*, such as reports of expert meetings and essays from academic fields and departments. The author uses descriptions and quotes.	This study shows that at the beginning of the 20th century, the founding of this educational discipline coincided with a civic focus on teaching and pedagogy. *'The pedagogy of the early field did not represent simply a move from platform entertainment to business efficiency, but a reconfiguration of the meaning of speaking, bringing out an underlying stratum of civic and democratized value.'* Teachers claimed that students, while practicing public speaking and debating, also practiced democratic forms and norms. These objectives still exist in oral language education, alongside more practical oral objectives in a complex mix of civic implications of speech pedagogy. The author concludes with that *'we need to understand this past as we move into our curricular futures'*.
Keith, 2011 (*K11*)	How did the earlier communication specialists see and practice their work and how can that help us to understand and improve the work of present-day speech teachers?	An argumentative essay based on a literature study and a historical analysis of a variety of sources *'from discussion, to debate, to pedagogy'* that led to a *'disciplinary matrix'*.	The paper provides an overview of the disciplinary history of the educational field of Communication in America and its pedagogical and performative trends. The goals of public speaking courses in the early twentieth century and still now, are: making students more effective speakers, improving their speaking skills and their skills in dealing with others. In our times, students not only learn to improve their speaking skills but they also learn about communication. Classical rhetoric has important elements for oral language education but, since the early twentieth century, oral language education has adopted many theories from fields such as social science and philosophy. Keith argues that '[..] *important theoretical problems of rhetoric and communication theory manifest themselves in rich, complex, and satisfying ways in the context of our basic courses, and* [..] *we should take these courses seriously as sites of political action and theoretical, critical reflection (Campbell, 1996).* [..] *When we can fully reclaim our heritage as speech teachers, we will be ready to chart our disciplinary future'*.

Mercer, Warwick & Ahmed, 2016	How can we develop and scientifically validate a toolkit for teachers (to use with Year 7 students, age 11 and 12), enabling teachers' monitoring and assessment of student progress in oral language skills?	Qualitative and quantitative research: a case study on the use of an oral assessment tool. Data from: studying existing frameworks and testing schemes, consultations with experts in focus group sessions. Video recordings of students' oral tasks (*N* = 16). Different moderation meetings with experts to assess and compare student work. In the developmental process of the Toolkit, trials were conducted of tasks and assessment rating schemes in oral language lessons. Data analysis included calculating inter-rater reliability (IRR) of the assessments by using a Pearson correlation.	The Cambridge Oracy Assessment Project has to a '*reasonable extent*' produced '*an Assessment Toolkit that combined research-based validity with practical ease of use for teachers*'. The toolkit consists of '(*a*) *a framework for understanding the spoken language skills that their students will need to use talk effectively in the various social situations they find themselves in; (b) a set of tasks for assessing their students' oracy skills across a sample of such situations; and (c) a rating scheme which provides a valid and fairly reliable way of assessing individual students' levels of competence and the progress they make over time*'. From the interview data with students, it is suggested that students recognize the importance of oral language skills and see the developed Toolkit tasks and criteria as comprehensible and clear. The author argues that this means that students will be motivated and will '*perform to the best of their abilities*' with this Assessment Toolkit in the L1-oral language classroom.
Oliver, Haig & Rochecouste, 2005	What place do oral language and communicative competence have in the current teaching and assessment practices of secondary schools in Western Australia?	Descriptive qualitative research about teaching and assessment of oral language in Western Australian secondary schools (*N* = 13), with staff and students of Years 8 and 11. Data-collection: teacher interviews, three online student tasks and student follow-up discussion.	This study shows that Australian teachers acknowledge the importance of L1-oral language education for the student's social skills and future life and career. But they also face problems with incorporating oral language tasks in the L1-classroom, because of the importance of writing in the L1-curriculum. Furthermore, teachers report a lack of oral language assessment skills. This study shows evidence of a very narrow view that teachers have '*[..] of what constitutes oral language*'. Performance speech is the most widely taught and assessed oral form in secondary schools, while the broader range of oral language activities is almost entirely neglected in practice. '*Students involved in the study were [..] aware of many weaknesses in their communicative competence and that these were not being addressed in the classroom.*' Students experience oral language tasks as '*situations where they lacked confidence.*' They are, however, competent in analyzing their own oracy skills. The authors argue that a needs-based approach in oral language lessons is desirable, but that the current L1-curriculum and its associated teaching practices are expected to thwart attempts in that direction.
Patiung, Tolla, Hum & Dolla, 2015	How can communicative educational approaches in an L1-Indonesian setting positively influence the development of speaking skills?	Descriptive qualitative research: an intervention study. Participants: the Indonesian language teachers and second-grade students in SMAN1. Data: video recording, observations, interviews and documentation.	The authors claim that in a communicative approach to L1-speaking education, it is important for the teachers to act as '*motivators, facilitators, counsellors, and mediators in the learning activities of the students.*' For the students, this approach has proven to be helpful by exploring their speaking potential and helping them to be actively and creatively involved with their learning process. '*It creates learning experiences that accommodate the needs of the students.*'
Thompson, 2006	How can teacher-led and peer-based formative assessment approaches to classroom talk improve the quality of students' thinking in oracy lessons at UK secondary schools?	Qualitative research (case study) project which studied small group talk in the context of secondary education in the UK, Year 8-13 classes. Data-collection through videotaping, and transcriptions of 48 small group debates. Data-analysis by focusing on three key features of progression in spoken debate in the data collection.	This study argues that '*both teacher-led and peer-based formative assessment approaches to classroom talk could be used to improve the quality of students' thinking. If supported by a sociocognitive assessment model, such approaches would help to accelerate conceptual development and the quality of students' talk by encouraging teachers to develop the quality of children's thinking in a more systematic and conscious way. Spoken language can only be fully understood as the expression of thought.*' The use of a sociocognitive assessment model, foregrounding primarily '*(but not exclusively) the quality and content of student thinking*' appears to be important for '*enabling teachers to grasp what Vygotsky evocatively describes as "the unexpected rapprochements, the leaps of thought, the treacherous generalizations, and the diffuse transitions" which characterize mental operations in the course of conceptual development (Vygotsky, 1987, p. 141).*'

3.2 Studies in relation to curricular themes

The main findings of each study are summarized in Table 3. An overview of the findings of the thirteen articles clustered into the curricular thematic framework is provided in Tables 4, 5 and 6. What should be noted here is that Keith's (2008) historical literature study did not provide information about contemporary L1-oral language education and, therefore, relevant information about the curricular themes. Furthermore, only in Table 4, we did include the findings from Cohen & Wei (2010) and Keith (2011), to distinguish between the case description and argumentative essay, on the one hand, and the empirical studies on the other hand.

3.2.1   Rationale, Objectives and Content

The findings with respect to Rationale, Objectives and Content are presented in Table 4. The Rationale of students learning L1-oral language is described in six articles and is predominantly about gaining social skills, being able to compete and be successful in a global economy and becoming literate. In describing their views, some of the authors explicitly touch upon specific theoretical fields, such as classical rhetoric (Carlson & Smith-Howell, 1995; Keith, 2008; Keith, 2011); formative assessment (Thompson, 2006) and developmental psychology (Mercer et al., 2016).

The information with respect to Objectives seems to be quite similar for the eleven articles that mentioned them. Eight articles, including those of Cohen & Wei (2010) and Keith (2011), state that students have to become confident (with high self-esteem or low feeling of anxiousness while speaking), persuasive (convincing) and effective (powerful) public speakers.

In the theme Content, the authors show the variety of possibilities that can be learned in L1-oral language lessons, such as aspects of speech content, presentational skills and speech effectiveness. In general, the authors try to give clarity about the mentioned content items. Casteleyn (2019) for example elaborates on the content of 'delivery' (meaning eye-contact, vocal delivery, enthusiasm, interaction with the audience, body language), referring to the description of De Grez, Valcke & Roozen (2009). Another example is Patiung et al. (2015, p. 1094) who describe students have to learn to master 'the material; A good speaker seeks to master and learn the material to be conveyed. The speaker [..] examines various sources of reference. These sources are either in the form of books, magazines, newspapers or articles.'

Table 4. Overview of curricular themes and articles: rationale, objectives and content

Curricular theme and question	Findings with the number of articles included between brackets
Rationale: Why should we teach/develop students' L1-oral language skills?	Total (6) To stimulate social skills (4) To be able to compete and be successful in a global economy (4) To become literate (3) (to be able to exercise the rights and responsibilities of citizenship (2)) To stimulate cognitive development (1) To stimulate learning skills (1) To get into university (mandatory requirement) (1)
Objectives: Which objectives should L1-oral language education aim for? / Towards which goals of oral language are students learning?	Total (11) To speak confidently, persuasively (powerfully) and effectively to a large audience and in debates or discussions (8) CW, K11 To learn to reflect (2) (critically overthink own's communication skills) (1) CW, (learn about one's self, one's culture and others' culture) (1) To learn to think critically (1) To become well-developed communicators for their future professional lives (1) To boost creativity (1) To learn how to take risks (1) To learn to speak without preparation for an audience (1)
Content: What are they learning?	Total (10) Presentational skills (8) (having a convincing performance or delivery by use of voice (clarity, tone, tempo, etc.) (7); body language (posture, gestures, eye contact, etc.) (6); reflection skills (to make it possible to react to the audience on the spot) (3) K11 Aspects of the speech content (6) (preparation skills: '*understanding the background of the listener*' and the speaking context to make a convincing case (5); mastering of the material, knowing the subject (4) CW, K11 Structuring of the speech (3) CW Formulating, skills to select appropriate words and sentences (2) Cognitive skills, critical thinking (1)

Argumentation or persuasiveness can be seen as a prominent Content element (*what are they learning*) in many Western L1-oral language curricula (for example of the USA: CCSI, 2015; Europe: Council of Europe, 2001; and also of the Netherlands: Meijerink, Letschert & Rijlaarsdam, 2009). The more striking is the lack of information in our corpus of articles on teaching and learning of argumentation in oral language lessons, despite their attention for oral persuasiveness as an Objective. Only Thompson (2006) states explicitly that the quality of thinking is a key element

to improving oral argumentation skills. Some other authors indirectly refer to argu-mentation, as Baxter (2000, p. 27) speaks of the importance of learning to make a convincing case to an audience and to 'persuade other people to consider your point of view'; and as Mercer et al. (2016, p. 54) describes in his oral language criteria the criterium of 'reasoning'[…] 'giving reasons to support views'. These authors, how-ever, don't describe the teaching of argumentation in oral language lessons.

3.2.2   Learning activities, Organization, Grouping and Materials

The findings with respect to the themes Learning activities, Organization and teacher role, Grouping, and Materials and resources are presented in Table 5. The most men-tioned Learning activities are receiving feedback (6), regularly practice of speaking skills (5) and the exploration or profiling of students' speaking potential (3). Elabo-rating on these findings, some authors make substantiated claims. Regarding feed-back Mercer et al. (2016) and Patiung et al. (2015) claim that incorporating different forms of feedback in the L1-oral language lessons create a learning environment which nurtures the students learning needs. Bourhis & Allen (1998) claim that their research shows that the use of videotaped feedback for instructional uses in L1-oral language lessons is justified. Following Thompson (2006) formative feedback should integrate oral language skills with students' thinking skills. He states that is has been shown this kind of integration stimulates the learning process in both directions.

The authors describe different kinds of benefits (and kinds) of regularly planned speaking exercises. Baxter (2000) argues that observing and analyzing a range of speaking situations in authentic contexts (such as political speeches, talk shows, oc-casional speeches) give students insight into how effective or ineffective other speakers are. Baxter (2000), Oliver et al. (2005) and Mercer et al. (2016) state that regularly practice of public speaking boosts the self-confidence of student speakers. Following these authors, (the lack of) confidence directly influences the speaking quality. Baxter (2000) and Casteleyn (2018; 2019) address the possible relationship between practicing drama in the classroom and the growth of students speaking confidence.

Regarding the exploration or profiling of students speaking potential Baxter (2000, p. 34) suggests it is important that 'students can be asked routinely to analyse their own and each other's performances, as constructively as possible, after a given oral activity.' The study of Patiung et al. (2015, p. 1096) show the link between teach-ers who motivate 'their students to explore their [speaking] potential continuously' and the extent to which the students are actively and creatively involved in their own public speaking learning process. Finally, the research findings of Mercer et al. (2016, p. 53) advocate for building a 'profile of a child's oracy skills' during the L1-oral lan-guage lessons for the use of students ánd teachers to provide suitable guidance and instruction.

Table 5 Overview of curricular themes and articles: Learning activities, Organization and teacher role, Grouping, Materials and resources

Curricular theme and question	Findings with the number of articles included between brackets
Learning activities: Which learning activities are most suitable in order to obtain these objectives? / How are they learning?	Total (8) Feedback on speaking (6) (self (4); peer (4); teacher (2)) Regularly practice of speaking skills (with various tasks, such as: presentations, discussions, problem-solving activities, drama forms) (5) Exploration of students' speaking potential, profiling the child's oracy skills (through analysis and assessment) (3) Observe and discuss videotaped speakers (2) Stimulate the development of listening and reading skills (1)
Organization and teacher role: How could these learning experiences be organized effectively? / How is the teacher facilitating the learning of L1-oral language?	Total (11) Provide regular and varied opportunities to practice, analyze and improve oral language skills (6) Assess the weaknesses and strengths of students' speaking skills for a needs-based approach (3) Organize feedback and reflection (3) (provide specific and informative teacher feedback (1); give instructions about video feedback (1); promote metacognitive reflection on students' own contributions in classroom talk by focused teacher questioning (1); organize peer feedback (1). Provide a clear oral language skills framework with criteria (2) Explain criteria of oral language skills (2) Establish a fun atmosphere (2) (getting students in a cheery mood, encourage spontaneity) Establish a safe learning environment (1) (create an atmosphere of concentration and trust) Let students meta-analyze and discuss speaking examples and analogies for speech (1)
Grouping: With whom are students learning?	Total (5) A small peer group and with the whole class/group (plenary) (3) A small peer group and with the whole class/group (plenary) and alone (1) With a supportive group (1)
Materials and resources: With what are they learning?	Total (6) Feedback (3) A video camera (3) Specific tasks which match the criteria (3) ('approached from the point of what the students' oral language strengths might be at the time'(1); drama forms (2)) An assessment framework with clear criteria (3) Examples of speakers on video (1) Examples of video feedback (1) A set of LEGO (1)

Since Learning activities are closely involved with Organization and teacher role, a similar picture as for Learning activities emerges for this next curricular theme. For

Organization and teacher role, authors of six research articles conclude that providing regular and varied speaking practice supports analysis and improvement of students' speaking skills. Three studies emphasize the importance of assessment of weaknesses and strengths of students' speaking skills as well as organizing feedback and reflection (teacher, self and peer feedback). Adding to this rather similar picture with Learning activities some of the research articles make claims about the benefits of explaining oral language criteria (2) and providing a clear criteria framework (3). Furthermore, Casteleyn (2018; 2019) stresses the importance of a safe and fun learning environment for the speaking/improvisational lesson intervention he introduces.

Complementing to what is also important for Learning activities and Organization and teacher role are the findings and claims with respect to Grouping (with whom are students learning?). Four of five studies which discuss Grouping suggest a combination of grouping conditions for L1-oral language exercises: exercises in small peer groups, alone and in the whole class.

Six articles provide information about certain Materials and resources which positively would affect the development of students L1-oral language skills. Most mentioned and explicitly described Materials and resources in the articles are feedback (3); a video camera (3); specific oral language tasks which match oral language criteria (3) and an assessment framework with clear speaking criteria (3).

3.2.3   Time, Location and Assessment

In Table 6 an overview is provided of what the authors explicitly report about the curricular themes Time, Location and Assessment. None of the authors report on when students have to learn speaking skills. Only one article (Bourhis & Allen, 1998) includes information about Location, stating that it is advisable to let the students learn to reflect on speaking tasks at a place removed from the actual communication event. With respect to Assessment, a framework or form with clear criteria (3) was mostly advised for assessment followed by the recommendation to use video examples to provide a benchmark standard for performance (2). In addition to these two findings, Mercer et al. (2016) argue that this combination of assessment forms causes the students to be motivated and to perform to the best of their abilities, because students 1) recognize the importance of oracy skills; 2) understand the tasks and their procedures; and 3) know the criteria for success. Casteleyn (2019) claims it is best to assess L1-oral language competence in a holistic way. For his research he combines this with comparative judgment to get reliable test scores, referring to assessment research in higher education. It is unclear, however, if Casteleyn believes that comparative judgement in combination with holistic assessment is also the best way in educational practice to assess L1-oral language.

Table 6 Overview of curricular themes and articles: Time, Location and Assessment

Curricular theme and question	Findings with the number of articles included between brackets
Time: When are they learning? (planning)	Total (0)
Location: Where are they learning? (physical and digital learning environment and their interior)	Total (1) At a place removed from the actual communication event (with the use of video) (1)
Assessment: How can we determine whether the objectives have been achieved? / How is their learning assessed?	Total (4) With the use of a framework with clear criteria for (formative) assessment (3) With the use of a set of video examples to give teachers a benchmark standard for performance (because of reliability and validity) (2) Holistic assessment, with all the aspects of the speaking competence (1)

4   DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The aim of this study was to gain insights into key elements, effective and practical ingredients, of good quality L1-oral language teaching in secondary education from an international literature review. In our research, we focused on the education of monologues or oral presentations. First of all, we noticed that the thirteen selected research articles offered a diverse picture of L1-oral language research and education. The selection included, for example, a historical overview of the discipline of oral language education (Keith, 2008), consultations of L1-oral language teachers (Oliver et. al, 2005) and educational design research (Mercer, et al., 2016). Despite this variety in research designs and research foci, it became clear that the majority of our corpus of articles seem to share a rather united, broad view on oracy and oral language skills in the L1-classroom, manifesting in various forms and involving different interrelated competencies.

4.1 Key elements of L1-oral language education

To analyse the articles and ultimately to extract the key elements we used Van den Akker's curricular spiderweb (Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009). Five of the curricular themes provided relevant, empirical information about key elements of L1-oral language education: Learning activities (LA), Organization and teacher role (OT), Grouping (G), Materials and resources (MR), and Assessment (A). The findings in Rationale, Objectives and Content did not inform the key elements, while they weren't an object of research in the selection of thirteen articles. In addition, the themes Time and Location did not inform the key elements because the articles hardly addressed these themes.

The most frequently mentioned items, categorized in the five curricular themes, generated five empirically substantiated key elements of good-quality L1-oral language teaching in secondary education:

1) A clear oral language skills framework with assessment criteria (OT; A);
2) The exploration of students' speaking potential by analysis and assessment (LA; OT; A);
3) Self-, peer- and teacher feedback (LA; OT; G; MR);
4) Observations of and discussions about videotaped speakers (LA; OT; MR; G); and
5) Regular practice with various speaking tasks (LA; OT; G).

Key element 1, a clear oral skills framework with assessment criteria, implies that teachers should have a clear view on goals and criteria before they start teaching and testing oral language skills. Such a clear framework 'would help teachers to plan how to use classroom discourse to enable their students to become more metacognitively aware, and more skilled speakers and listeners' (Mercer et al., 2016). Additionally, such a framework could act as a formative assessment instrument, so that students and teachers can analyze and monitor the learning process over a longer period of time (Mercer et al., 2016; Thompson, 2006). Having a clear framework would also allow testing of L1-oral language skills in a valid way (Carlson et al.,1995). The skills criteria presented by Mercer et al. (2016) (the physical; linguistic; cognitive and social and emotional) constitutes a useful basis for further work on this issue.

Key element 2, the exploration of students' speaking potential by analysis and assessment, implies that teachers ánd students are recommended to consciously analyze and monitor the L1-oral language development of individual students. This means that teachers need to design learning tasks and materials which allow them to do this with their students. Oliver et al., 2005 (p. 220) claim in this respect that the learning tasks need to have a 'needs-based approach', linked to 'what the students oral language strengths might be at the time'. Also, an important prerequisite for Key element 2 is to reserve time for reflection and analysis in the L1-oral language lessons.

Key element 3: self-, peer- and teacher feedback has several practical implications for L1-oral language education. The first is that teachers not only have to have feedback skills but also significant knowledge about how feedback can be used to stimulate learning processes and how feedback can best be organized in the L1-oral language classroom. Inspired by this and supported by Bourhis & Allen (1998), another practical implication is to integrate classical instructions about the use of feedback in order to successfully integrate student feedback into the L1-oral language lessons.

Key element 4, observations of and discussions about videotaped speakers, implies that teachers have to collect videotaped examples of public speaking that can be observed and discussed in the L1-oral language classroom. Following Baxter

(2002, p. 94), these examples should give a varied view on speaking in public, show-ing students 'different discursive conditions according to categories such as age, race, class, gender and so on.' Such observations and discussions could lead to the development of a shared understanding in the classroom of what is needed to be or become an effective public speaker. This also seems to be related to the advice to use a clear oral skills framework (key element 1) in the L1-oral language classroom.

Following key element 5, regular practice with various speaking tasks, teachers would have to facilitate L1-oral language practice on a regular basis and with the use of different assignments for students. Our research implies that practice in small peer groups, alternated with speaking in front of the whole class is beneficial for the development of L1-oral language skills. Students can also benefit from occasionally videotaping their own speech and analyzing their performances. Furthermore, to boost students' self-confidence, we recommend varying the more formal speaking tasks with more playful tasks, such as role-play or problem-solving activities. This advice is based on what Baxter (2000); Mercer et al. (2016); Oliver, et al. (2005) and Casteleyn (2018; 2019) have stated about confidence and the development of oral language skills acquisition. Teachers, ideally, have to take all this into consideration while preparing their L1-oral language lessons.

It can be concluded that our corpus of selected articles show that it is advisable to combine the five key elements in the L1-oral language classroom: regular speaking practice with the use of feedback (student, teacher, peer), the use of analysis, self- and teacher-assessment, and observation tasks, combined with a list of clear criteria in the L1-oral language lessons. Our research suggests that students should be al-lowed to develop their oral language skills with regular skills practice throughout the school year. This would give students the chance to consciously build on their learn-ing experiences and to grow in self-confidence when speaking in public. All this seems to be consistent with the stated importance of helping students to become reflective, conscious language users and more language aware (Curriculum.nu, 2018; Coppen, 2018; Bolitho et al., 2003) and it also seem to fit with formulated aspects of formative assessment (Wiliam & Thompson, 2008), such as engineering effective classroom discussions, providing (self-, peer- and teacher-) feedback that moves learners forward, understanding criteria for success and activating learners as the owners of their own learning.

4.2 Context information for understanding the key elements

Important context information for understanding the key elements was provided by the analysis of the curricular themes Rationale, Objectives and Content. Even though the authors reported on different Rationales of L1-oral language education (support the development of social skills, help students to become successful in a global econ-omy, etc.), they were quite unanimous about the aims of L1-oral language education. Common claims concerning Rationale, Objectives and Content, such as that students

have to learn to become confident (with high self-esteem or low feeling of anxiousness), persuasive (convincing) and effective (powerful) public speakers, are consistent with the prevailing communicative and utilitarian paradigms (Van de Ven, 2005; Sawyer and Van de Ven, 2006).

A possible explanation for the little attention given to argumentation as Content, i.e., being able to understand oral and written persuasive texts and to produce them (Verbeek, 1996; Council of Europe, 2001), is that it is mainly viewed as fundamental to the L1-standards for reading and writing in Western secondary schools, and is therefore treated as not requiring explicit attention in the L1-oral language classroom. Nevertheless, we believe it is important to explicitly address argumentation in the L1-oral language classroom because persuasiveness of the spoken text is an important objective of L1-oral language education.

4.3 Implications for theory

Despite the long tradition of oracy in education (e.g. classical rhetoric), this study revealed that international scientific research on L1-oral language education in secondary schools does not have a long tradition. The starting point for this study was the fact that there is hardly any present-day Dutch research available on L1-oral language education at secondary school level. In the course of our research, we only found a small number of international studies on public speaking in secondary schools which, nonetheless, gave insights into effective and practical elements in L1-oral language lessons. We therefore suggest that the formulated set of key elements could function as a scientifically substantiated starting point for describing good L1-oral language lesson practices in pedagogical handbooks on L1-teaching. The set of key elements could also inform the current redesign of Dutch L1-oral language education in secondary schools.

4.4 Limitations and implications for future research

For future research, it would be interesting to ask L1-pedagogical and curriculum experts, L1-teachers and their students for their views on (the importance of) education of oracy and oral language skills and their experiences with L1-oral language education. Combined with observations of L1-oral language lessons and an analysis of the lesson materials used, this could provide important insights into the actual strengths and weaknesses of L1-oral language educational practice. Comparing these insights with the empirical based key elements distinguished in this research may contribute to the development of the L1-oral language curriculum in secondary schools and to making L1-oral language lessons more effective.

Secondly, the small collection of articles that we studied provide no empirical information on how separate or combinations of different key elements might influence the L1-oral learning process of students. It would be interesting to examine this. An effect study, for example, would make it possible to see what scientific value, if

any, lies behind the claims made about cause-effect relations, such as regular practice in speaking and growth of self-confidence (Baxter, 2000; Casteleyn, 2018, 2019; Mercer et al., 2016 and Oliver et al., 2005).

It would also be interesting to investigate if and how the prominent content element missing from this study (argumentation in oral texts) is visible in current L1-lesson practice and how this element relates to the L1-oral language development of students.

This review study has its limitations because of the small number of articles found. There was a clear reason for choosing the defined search period of 1995-2019. Due to the increased focus on oral language skills in Western L1-curricula of secondary schools in the last two decades, we expected to find a larger collection of research published in English and/or Dutch within this chosen time frame and from that collection a rather clear or concrete definition of oracy and oral language in the context of L1-oral language education. Evidently, educational research on L1-oral language in secondary education is still in its infancy, compared to, for example, research on L1-writing. With this in mind, it could be worthwhile to expand this research on L1-oral language education to suitable publications that may be available in languages other than English and Dutch and to the larger research field of the basic public speaking courses in Higher education.

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