A Broad Guide to Teaching the Skills of Listening and Speaking
A Broad Guide to Teaching the Skills of Listening and Speaking

By
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I dedicate this book to my parents’ souls and to all members of my family who are the source of my inspiration. I also dedicate it to my dearest respectable and reputable friends – Mr. Saeed Nouri and the members of his council – since they have been highly supportive academically and psychologically in all stages of producing this distinguished work as well as other works. Moreover, I dedicate this book to the glowing candle of my love and life, my grandson Abdullah.
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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Writing a book is really a highly demanding task that requires not only knowledge and patience but also ongoing support and encouragement since research and frequent standstills can be undermining. Accordingly, I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my faithful friend Mr. Said Nouri, the supervisor of English Language in RAK, Dubai and Ajman, who is an authority on English language teaching and learning for enriching this book with his constructive academic comments. I would also like to express my deepest thanks to my friend Mr. Nabil A-Batta’s soul, the eminent supervisor at Dubai Educational Zone, for his productive academic and educational feedback.

Additionally, I am honored to extend my deepest thanks to my brothers and sisters; particularly, my brother-in-law, the famous poet, Mr. Azam Abu Salem for his precise and sincere comments on many academic issues. Last but not the least, I am extremely grateful to the members of my nuclear family (including my sons Sultan and Mohammed), predominantly my wife, Mrs. Suzan Abu-Rub who has provided invaluable support and dedication throughout all the ups and downs of writing this book, owing to their consistent optimism and encouragement.
Teaching speaking and listening skills is highly demanding because it requires physical, psychological and linguistic as well as social competencies. This book is exceedingly distinguished since it explicates in depth the nature and characteristics of speaking and listening skills through division into two main parts.

The first part of this book probes the speaking skill through a discussion of the requirements of speaking, the characteristics of efficient teaching speaking strategies and the factors that make teaching speaking a highly challenging task. Furthermore, it explores the stages of the teaching speaking process, its approaches and speaking categories, and the methodologies of designing speaking activities. Moreover, this book discusses the speaking cycle and speaking competences along with the factors that affect these competences. Additionally, it delves into teachers’ and students’ roles in teaching and attaining the speaking skill along with effective assessment tools for evaluating speaking tasks through creating precise multi-tiered rubrics.

From another perspective, the second part of the book explores the listening skill by defining it from different angles and explaining types of listening in terms of tasks, activities and listeners. Besides, it highlights the criteria for assessing listening activities, micro and macro listening and BICS and CALP, in addition to the listening approaches, models and principles. Furthermore, this book discusses the ways of designing effective teaching listening lesson plans through presenting its phases and techniques. It also clearly explains the ways of designing teaching listening materials along with the most practical ways of using podcasts, YouTube videos and short stories and the standards of shortlisting them. More importantly, this book presents multifaceted techniques and tasks for assessing the listening skill through pointing out the purposes of listening assessment, its types and the constructive criteria for shortlisting assessment tools that guarantee the reliability, validity and enhancement of learners’ listening capabilities.
In a nutshell, this book is a comprehensive and practical resource that explores these two integrative core receptive and productive skills through their investigation, exploitation to develop learners’ potentials and assessment their impact on the language teaching and learning process.
PART I:

A BROAD GUIDE TO TEACHING AND DEVELOPING THE SPEAKING SKILL

Abstract

Speaking is the core skill of learning language as it is the ultimate tool of communication; accordingly, it has been at the center of many researchers’ interests from different perspectives. This book explores in depth the concept of speaking and the requirement of characteristics of successful teaching speaking sessions. Furthermore, it examines the challenges of teaching speaking and ways of overcoming them along with the stages and the approaches of teaching speaking. Moreover, this book probes in depth speaking models, activities, and speaking sub-skills together with teachers’ and students’ roles in the speaking teaching and learning process. Additionally, this book highlights the reasons why speaking is exceedingly challenging and demanding for students as well as the factors that impact speaking competence. Furthermore, pronunciation definition is examined in depth since it is at the core of speaking competence. More importantly, speaking assessment is probed from different dimensions in terms of the types, assessment rubrics, design and implementation speaking assessment tasks in addition to a consideration of the nonverbal aspects of assessing speaking tasks. In a nutshell, this book is a comprehensive guide for teaching, developing and assessing the speaking skill process from different perspectives.

Introduction

Speaking is the first productive skill that measures learners’ communicative competency; therefore, it has been defined from different standpoints. In spite of the fact that these definitions vary and may be contracted, they all show the vitality of speaking in teaching and learning speaking. Speaking
can be defined as one of the four skills that language users employ to communicate orally in order to express a variety of messages and to convey their views. Torky (2006) gives a definition as, “Speaking is one of the four language skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking). It is the means through which learners can communicate with each other to achieve certain goals or to express their opinions, intentions, hopes and views” (p. 13). She adds that speaking is the most widely used skill as humans start communication through speaking earlier than any other skill. Rivers (1981) supports Torky’s suggestion by affirming that speaking is utilized twice as much as reading and writing.

Rocio (2012) highlights the importance of speaking knowledge as he believes it is identical to language knowledge; thus, it is considered a major criterion for measuring students’ linguistic knowledge and competency. Bailey and Savage (1994) support Rocio’s view by confirming that mastery of speaking knowledge is a clear indicator of learners’ success in learning languages although they consider it to be one of the most demanding skills because it integrates a group of linguistic components such as pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary.

Furthermore, speaking can be defined as an interactive process of creating meaning through information production, reception, and processing, so its shape and significance depend on the situation, the involved people, and the objectives of the speaking task. However, speaking can also be defined from an operational point of view as students’ ability to speak orally, coherently, fluently, and appropriately in a given meaningful context to serve both transactional and interactive purposes. This includes using proper pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary as well as adopting the pragmatic and discursive rules of the spoken language. Speaking can also be identified as the ability to demonstrate mastery of linguistic competence by displaying clear and correct pronunciation, mastery of grammatical rules, and the utilization of appropriate vocabulary. Additionally, effective speaking should prepare students to reach a convenient level of discourse competence through constructing coherent and cohesive discourse as well as the ability to manage and interact during conversations to keep them communicating vigorously on the right track. Moreover, speaking implies having a pragmatic competence which in turn implies the capability to express a
variety of purposes effectually and correctly in accordance with the context and register.

From another point of view, Howarth (2001) uses the top-down approach for defining speaking as a dual process that entails genuine exchange of thoughts, information, or emotions. The spoken sentences are seen in this top-down perspective as the result of a collaboration between two or more participants in a certain context. The supporters of this approach call for encouraging students to form sentences, and to integrate them in more developed discourses.

Other researchers display the multi-dimensional relationship between speaking and other skills since speaking can be closely linked to writing as both are productive skills. From another point of view, Oprandy (1994) and EL Menoufy (1997) confirm the close reciprocal bond between listening (a receptive skill) and speaking, as they are interrelated in order to achieve communication, by purporting that each speaker must be a listener, so each listener will be a potential speaker. Expressive and successful speaking is also based on diversified reading since the latter enriches students’
vocabulary and lexical competence. Thus, speaking is a natural outcome of other skills.

According to Nunan (1989, p. 37), speaking can be classified in two main categories of monologue and dialogue as he purports that “The former focuses on giving an interrupted oral presentation and the latter on interacting with other speakers.” From another standpoint, Brown (2001) and Yule (1989) categorize speaking based on its functions: transactional for conveying information and interactional for maintaining social relations. Accordingly, speaking becomes the ultimate goal of learning languages since it is a major tool for transferring knowledge and constructing societies. This argument is supported by Burkart and Sheppard (2004) who argue that mastering speaking through carrying out conversations is the success criterion for evaluating languages learning. Accordingly, Florez (1999) encourages teaching speaking because it is an efficient tool for instructing and practicing language fluency that enables students to communicate like other languages’ native speakers. Furthermore, Nunan (1999) and Celce-Murcia (2001) assert that teaching appropriate speaking exercises motivates students to learn and acquire languages since it adds a logical reason for this acquisition and links it to their own personal lives and interests, thus making the speaking learning process more pleasing and interesting.

From another standpoint, further research studies prove that acquiring a high standard of speaking skill has profound repercussions on developing linguistic competence, the overall framework of language (Gass & Varonis, 1994). Consequently, Hilferty (2005) argues that mastering the speaking skill is significant for developing reading competence as it familiarizes language users with various language contexts and enriches their vocabulary which are the cornerstones for communication. Furthermore, Trachsel & Severino (2004) confirm the vitality of acquiring speaking skills in developing writing skills through boosting students’ knowledge of multi-tiered language structures and patterns that empower them to produce an infinite number of sentences for expressing their personal opinions and interests. Additionally, Regina (1997) confirms that speaking has the upper hand in developing the a mutually interdependent relationship with listening. Listening familiarizes learners with the articulation of the right utterances, sounds and pronunciation, while effective speaking results in
clearly expressing the listening tasks. Thus, speaking is a key requirement for developing good listeners, and listening reinforces students’ speaking faculty. In a nutshell, Brown (2001) pinpoints the vitality of speaking as a collaborative process in creating meaning that comprises the production, reception, and processing of information. By contrast, Wipf (1998, cited in Maulidar, Gani and Samad, 2019) adds more depth to Brown’s definition by commenting that speaking requires five competences in order to be carried out effectively: pronunciation, fluency, grammar, vocabulary and comprehension in order to be carried out effectively. Thus, speaking is a complex skill as speakers should mind these contents, and then move to the shortlisting form.

Bygate (1987, p. 2) sums up the vitality of speaking by ascertaining:

Speaking is the vehicle par excellence of social solidarity, of social ranking, of professional advancement and of business. It is also the medium through which much language is learnt, and which for many is particularly conductive for learning. Perhaps, then, the teaching of speaking merits more thought.

From another perspective, Burns (2019) summarizes the concept and characteristics of fluent speaking as “Learning to speak in a second language involves increasing the ability to use these components in order to produce spoken language in a fluent, accurate and socially appropriate way, within the constraints of a speaker’s cognitive processing.”
Due to the interactive and multi-layered nature of the speaking skill in terms of its dependence on many linguistic, physical and psychological factors, there are many requirements for fostering and boosting this pivotal skill. Firstly, learners should have particular motor-perspective skills for mastering sounds, pronunciation and language structures as well as interactional skills that require the utilization of the previous skills to communicate smoothly and spontaneously as native speakers. Additionally, Burns and Joyce (1997) discuss mastering some sociolinguistic competence, i.e., using an appropriate linguistic item in the right social context in terms of when, how and why to produce certain language utterances. This trend can be linked to social intelligence, i.e., having the skill to deal with people and use the appropriate language to express their ideas tactfully and precisely. From another point of view, Harner (2001) affirms that speakers should rely on and integrate more than one skill to produce their ideas precisely.

However, Florez (1999) discusses many basic principles and skills that construct effective speaking:

1. The effective usage of grammatical structures.
2. Evaluating the target audience’s characteristics in terms of knowledge, grade, authority relations, or variances in outlooks.
3. Shortlisting lexical items that are comprehensible and convenient for the audience, the discussed topic, and the set of speech acts.
4. Implementing appropriate strategies to boost comprehensibility, such as highlighting keywords, rewording, or assessing a listener's understanding.
5. Paying attention to the success of the interaction and regulating components of speech such as lexemes, speaking rates, and the complexity of grammatical structures to enhance listeners' comprehensibility and engagement.

From another perception, Anuradha et al. (2014) confirm the pivotal principles for teaching speaking effectively by asserting:

1. Students should be encouraged to speak right from the beginning; thus, teachers should not wait in order to build students’ lexical competence through providing them with a stock of words and phrases. Consequently, students should be actively motivated even if they have a limited lexical capability.

2. Teachers should tolerate one-word answers at the beginning, and then they should raise the bar for more developed answers.

3. Teachers should scaffold students with many thematically related structures and phrases by encouraging students to use these lexical and structural items in meaningful multi-level exercises with diverse drillings.

4. Teachers should encourage students to form more developed sentences by using back-chaining and tail-forwarding techniques, that is reading or speaking a sentence backwards.

5. Guided role-plays should be used as much as possible where teachers correct and direct active speakers and motivate passive ones.

6. Teachers should be well-prepared before introducing speaking tasks because they are handling language and psychology noting that speaking also requires practical linguistic and psychological support.

7. Allowing or tolerating errors is recommended particularly at the initial stage since interruption and correction can hinder or cripple fluency and discourage students from speaking.

Accordingly, educationalists should note that the integration of all previous structural, social and psychological skills is a clear indication of speaking skill complexity. Additionally, the speaking skill also requires many
psychological and linguistic processes that entail a high degree of focus owing to the limitation of the working memory. For example, speakers must retrieve an appropriate amount and type of vocabulary, in addition to combine them to produce correct expressive sentences. Furthermore, speaking entails an excessive level of concentration since it usually occurs due to high external pressure.

Burns (2019) points out that teachers should be acquainted with the differences between the written and speaking discourses in order to manage speaking activities. For example, when dealing with written tasks the rules and textures are formal and academic in terms of diction, structure, vocabulary and punctuation. In written tasks, sentences are the basic units of structure that link the subordinators with little use of formulaic language as the main focus is on formal language. Furthermore, there are few or no performance setbacks such as pauses and repetitions, little ellipsis and little or no use of personal pronouns (I, we). By contrast, in spoken excerpts utterances are the basic structural units linked with the first level of coordinators (FANBOYS for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so). Spoken texts are characterized by having plenty of formulaic expressions (commonly used expressions such as “I’ll get back to you later” or “Cat got your tongue”) that add a touch of informality. Additionally, performances such as false starts and incompletion along with ellipsis and personal pronouns are common in spoken texts.

Table 1. Spoken and written language: Typical features

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spoken language</th>
<th>Written language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Basic unit is the clause (utterance)</td>
<td>Basic unit is the sentence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clauses linked by a conjunction (and, but, so, etc.)</td>
<td>Clauses linked by subordination (who, which, when, etc.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequent use of formulaic chunks (I was lucky enough)</td>
<td>Little use of formulaic language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informal language preferred (we used to get together)</td>
<td>Formal language preferred (commenced)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A range of noticeable performance effects (hesitations, pauses, repeats, false starts, incompletion) Few/no noticeable performance effects

Frequent use of ellipsis (omission of grammatical elements, started at the same time) Little use of ellipsis

Frequent use of personal pronouns (I, we) Little use of personal pronouns

Burns, A., 2019. Concepts for Teaching S 1

Kurum (2016) points out that speaking is based on three basic elements in terms of mechanics, function and pragmatics. Mechanics is mastering grammar pronunciation and vocabulary which implies using the right word and structure in the exact context and order with the correct intonation. The function can be either transactional or interactional. A transactional function implies the conveyance of a clear message and information, whereas an interactional function denotes building a relationship where precise understanding is not required. Pragmatics implies the social or cultural rules with regard to “turn-taking, rate of speech, length of pauses between speakers, relative roles of participants): Understanding how to take into account who is speaking to whom, in what circumstances, about what, and for what reason” (p. 2).

1.1. The Characteristics of Efficient Speaking Teaching

Due to the cognitive complexity and diversity of teaching, it is vital that teachers observe certain features when speaking in order to enhance students’ mastery of this multi-faceted skill. Oprandy (1994) and Nunan (1999) suggest some effective characteristics that teachers should consider when introducing, practicing and drilling on speaking:

1. Speaking tasks should focus on speaking as a whole process since it should take precedence over the individual parts. This implies that speaking instruction should focus on the overall speaking process rather than on its parts in both synthetic and analytical methods.
2. Speaking tasks should enable students to actively reflect on their own processes and tactics as well as those of others through instruction.

3. In order to increase the range of encounters with the targeted language and its numerous ideational, interpersonal and textual functions, there should be plenty of possibilities for interaction through diversifying speaking tasks.

4. Speaking tasks should provide many chances for learners to practice both language and communicative competencies simultaneously.
CHAPTER II

THE CHALLENGES OF TEACHING SPEAKING

Speaking is an exceedingly demanding skill; it requires a great deal of preparation and hard work since it involves many psychological and linguistic efforts. Accordingly, there are many factors that cripple teaching speaking:

1. Teachers cannot give students a great deal of time due to the huge number of students within a limited-time lesson.

2. Teaching speaking requires individual focus since each student has his own linguistic standard, psychological status and special strengths and weaknesses.

3. Scarcella and Oxford (1994) highlight the tangibility of the speaking skill as it is extremely difficult to provide a concrete evidenced assessment or precise feedback on students’ speaking performance. Thus, evaluating speaking tasks is time-consuming and not very practical.

4. Teaching speaking is less systematic as it is characterized by having many fragmentary short sentences. Consequently, it cannot be taught based on fixed rules like writing. Therefore, it requires a great deal of flexibility, open-mindedness and syntactic and lexical knowledge as well as psychological leniency for coping with students’ inclinations and errors tactfully and prudently (Hall, 1993). Teachers should adopt the sandwich approach by starting with positive comments and then briefly embedding adverse comments in the middle and at the end with a confident positive trend that directs students’ attention and comportment to produce constructive utterances.

From another perspective, teachers may face other psychological, social and linguistic challenges with regard to the following.
2.1. The Critical Balance of Accuracy or Fluency

Teachers should encounter and cope with accuracy and fluency with the utmost care and prudence. Thus, they should not correct any linguistic error because it will reduce students’ self-confidence and cripple their fluency. By contrast, if teachers do not correct structural and lexical errors, students may gain some confidence and fluency; however, they will lose academic accuracy and will be called immature language users. Consequently, the most constructive strategy is to use the sugar-coated approach for correcting major repetitive errors and the positive ignoring strategy when dealing with minor or slip of the tongue errors. This enables teachers to develop students’ fluency and accuracy simultaneously.

From another perspective, Hedge (2000, cited in Zyoud, n.d.) highlights an understanding of the concept of fluency for mastering speaking by purporting that “… the ability to respond coherently within the turn of conversation, to link the words and phrases of the questions, to pronounce the sounds clearly with appropriate stress and intonation and to all these quickly in ‘real time’”. However, Larsen-Freedman (1993) links fluency to accuracy by pointing out that teachers should not sacrifice fluency for the sake of accuracy, yet they have to observe both of them. Accordingly, teachers should observe all errors passively without crippling or interrupting speakers, yet they should go back to them and discuss these errors.

2.2. Self-confidence

The second obstacle that teachers face when teaching speaking is lack of confidence. Some students are not confident enough to start speaking because they are afraid of being ridiculed for mistakes, and a shortage of syntactic and lexical potentials. This problem can be solved by creating a positive self-respect environment where teachers highlight the hypothesis that errors are effective springboards for learning correct speech. Furthermore, teachers should not tolerate the slightest level of ridicule by demonstrating strict rules and responses that eradicate this unacceptable behavior. Additionally, teachers should include a syntactic and lexical warming up for preparing students to deal with the targeted speaking tasks through multi-tiered functional and syntactic exercises. For example, if
students are to practice providing advice on driving cars, teachers should
provide them with the functional language of constructing advice along with
the essential vocabulary that is used to express the driving process. More
importantly, teachers should be supporting their students through evading
the scaffolding that is supporting them when required. In other words, they
should be supporting students everywhere by relinquishing the traditional
role of frontal teaching and assuming the more constructive roles of guide,
facilitator and supporter as well as leader and developer.

2.3. Pronunciation Discrepancies
These are also severe or terrible problems since they cause many
instructional and psychological handicaps. These problems are clearly
demonstrated through “phonetic confusion, interference from the written
form, interference from the mother language and failure to use the weak
forms” (Torky, 2006, p. 17). Teachers can rectify these problems by
gradually developing students’ general linguistic competences in terms of
phonetics, writing skills, noticing mother language interference and more
drilling on the weak forms of language in terms of form, usage and
pronunciation.
2.4. Why is speaking a challenging task for students?

For a great number of learners, speaking is one of the most challenging or even intimidating skills. It is natural that some language learners say they can read and write and correctly respond to reading comprehension and grammar as well as vocabulary-based exercises. They argue that they can fully understand native speakers when listening to them, yet they cannot speak the targeted language fluently as they can only speak short phrases or utterances. Oxford (1992) points out that speaking is intimidating because of its communicative stressful nature. When speaking, students are usually afraid of making some grammatical mistakes or having a limited vocabulary. Songbatumis (2017) agrees with Oxford on the stressful demands of speaking due to eye contact with other people, but she adds other factors such as a lack of exposure to the targeted language and mother language interference, in addition to large classes which reduce teachers’ ability and opportunity to pay more individual attention to the above- and below-average students. Johnson (1996, p. 155) agrees with Songbatumis and Oxford on its challenging nature by describing the speaking skill as a “combinatorial skill” that “involves doing various things at the same time”. This explores and explicates the roots of challenge by requiring multi-dimensional psychological and physical efforts as well as multifaceted competences.

From another concept, Ur (1991, p. 121) points out some genuine causes that make speaking a difficult skill or faculty for students:

A. Inhibition

Unlike the other skill, speaking requires confidence so speakers can express what they want to say. However, inhibition is a natural phenomenon resulting from speakers’ fear of making mistakes, being criticized, lack of linguistic competence or failure to develop a communicative task. Littlewood (1999, p. 93) states that inhibition is a common phenomenon when speaking a second language by contending, “It is too easy for a foreign language classroom to create inhibition anxiety”. Sometimes, inhibition results from teachers ignoring speakers, so they feel they have lost their sole source of support; thus, teachers should keep supporting their students at all
stages of the speaking process. These reasons cause a certain inhibition that prevents students from participating and developing communicative tasks, or in better cases reduces their talking span.

B. Nothing to Say

The fear of making mistakes ultimately causes students to never try to talk. The worst impact is that in the end, students cannot say a word.

C. Low or no Participation

In the process of classroom interaction, usually in one class, some students will play a more dominant role in speaking. Conversations like this will make a minor student feel bored and reluctant to speak. Accordingly, good interaction requires each student’s participation in a balanced manner.

D. Mother Tongue

Students mostly use their mother tongue when interacting with both other students and teachers which reduces the students’ chance to practice their foreign languages.

E. Age

Age is another factor that affects the smoothness and quality of speaking. Young people below puberty can achieve a native-like accent because languages are stored in one part of the brain. After puberty (until 14 years), learners cannot achieve a native accent due to brain spread, as the mother tongue will be stored in one place and the L2 will be stored in a totally different place. However, they can achieve a native-like accent.

F. Exposure

This term implies that students should be subjected to a native speaking accent in order to acquire the correct pronunciation and the convenient or natural fluency rate. However, there are two types of exposure, that is a tense short exposure and a long mild exposure. Most research studies support focused exposure as it gives more linguistic support in a short time that motivates students to speak and overcome psychological barriers. This
trend is supported by Brown (2000, p. 285) who argues, “if class time spent focusing on speaking demands the full attention and interest of the students, then they stand a good chance of reaching their goals.” However, some students have certain contradictive conditions so that they need a long gradual exposure. Thus, teachers should understand their students’ conditions before carrying out exposure or immersion tasks. Accordingly, it is recommended that teachers integrate both styles simultaneously to obtain their advantages.

Ahmad, Aziz and Yunus (2021) summarize the most important factors that negatively affect or cripple speaking by purporting (p. 171):

Among other factors, social constructs such as learners’ anxiety and inhibitions proved to be the most common factors which obstruct and jeopardize the teaching and learning of speaking skills which will further cause learners to not be proficient in speaking in English.

From another standpoint, Abda (2017) explores in more depth the reasons for speaking weakness mainly by relating it to a lack of self-confidence which has many deeply-rooted linguistic and psychological dimensions. Firstly, most students lack basic language skills since they cannot use the appropriate structures and vocabulary to start or to respond to a talk. The second main reason for diminishing speaking opportunities is risk-taking, because speaking causes high levels of fear. This erupts from committing some mistakes or a speaking breakage that dissuades students from speaking in order not to appear foolish. The role of motivation is also valuable in demoting or promoting speaking proficiency. Abda (2017) highlights the vitality of motivation in teaching language learning and in creating active communicators in the long run by confirming (p. 290):

Motivation in language-learning plays a vital role. It is motivation that produces effective second-language communicators by planting in them the seeds of self-confidence. It also successfully creates learners who continuously engage themselves in learning even after they complete a targeted goal.

He also explicates that teachers can motivate students by suggesting six factors that affect motivation in terms of attitudes, views about self, objectives, involvement, environmental care, and personal features.
G. Listening Versus Speaking

Although all the previous reasons are effective for the quality and level of speaking, listening is highly efficient as well, because there is a strong mutual relationship between listening and speaking. Good listening leads to a high level of speaking and the opposite is true. Listening empowers students to be exposed to the second language’s natural environment through being exposed to the native or native-like accent and pronunciation. This exposure improves students’ articulation and pronunciation along with their ability to develop communicative tasks.

H. Anxiety

Horwitz et al. (1986, cited in Rosario, 2019, p. 231) postulate that the most challenging factor in paralyzing speaking is foreign language anxiety which they define as a “distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process”. Horwitz set the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale which consists of 33 items. This reason is supported by Wu (2010) and Zheng (2008) who argue that language anxiety is a determinant factor that limits educational efficacy and creates timid speakers as they do not have the courage to use the second language. Elaldi (2016) refers language anxiety to the high expectations students; therefore, they become anxious of falling short of these expectations. From another point of view, Rajanthran et al. (2013) hypothesize that language anxiety results from students’ belief that their linguistic competences are weaker than those of their peers, so they are anxious about making mistakes or being ridiculed.

Na (2007) and Cui (2011) point out that language anxiety has serious repercussions on foreign language learners since it discourages them to speak, undermines their self-confidence in their abilities, forces them to avoid classroom participation, or more seriously gets them frustrated, so they give up learning languages. Accordingly, students with higher anxiety levels learn less effectively that the ones with lower anxiety levels.
I. Lack of Attention

Al-Tamimi, Abdillah and Bin-Hady (2020, p. 114) draw attention to the fact that speaking remains a difficult or challenging task because it has not received as much attention as the other language skills of reading and writing or the language tools of grammar and vocabulary. They also argue that the components of the speaking skill are introduced and instructed in the traditional way that does not focus on teaching the language itself. They contend that “the most important components of speaking, such as accuracy, fluency, appropriateness, coherence and the like, are not focused upon and the speaking skill is taught primarily by using the grammar translation method. Such a method has a negative impact on many students’ speaking ability.” Thus, students become highly knowledgeable of the structure of language, yet they cannot use it in meaningful contexts.