

I, the undersigned **Eman Basheer Awad**, as a student of the Faculty of Humanities and Psychology at the University of Almeria, hereby declare under the penalty of perjury, and also certify with my signature below, that my Master's Thesis, titled:

Speaking Problems Encountering English Major Students: Perspectives of Senior Students at University of Almeria.

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Abstract

As English has become one of the prominent languages used for communication across the world, learners of English as a foreign language have become more concerned about acquiring an oral communicative competence in English to communicate with others effectively in various contexts and for different purposes. Thus, this prevailing necessity to develop EFL learners' oral communicative competence has attracted our attention to investigate speaking problems encountering students of English philology and literature at the University of Almeria. In this study, we will explore the processes of L1 and L2 speech production, components of the communicative competence, use of communication strategies (CSs), types of problem-solving mechanisms and principles of communicative language teaching approach (CLT). Moreover, to obtain our objectives, we have adopted the quantitative research methodology and elaborated a questionnaire of (21) items which was filled by (29) English major senior students studying at the University of Almeria. The results of the study reveal that English major students are still in need to develop various aspects of their linguistic, actional and discourse competences; are negatively influenced by their first language (L1) while speaking in English and have not effectively fostered their language contact outside their classrooms through extensive reading, listening, thinking and speaking in English. Finally, the results show that classroom activities have not effectively developed English major students' speaking and oral communication abilities.

Keywords: speaking problems, first language (L1) interference, communicative competence, communicative language teaching (CLT) approach, language contact.

Resumen

Puesto que el inglés se convirtió en una de las lenguas más importantes para la comunicación a nivel mundial, los alumnos de inglés como lengua extranjera (ILE) se preocupan cada vez más por adquirir competencias orales en esta lengua con el fin de comunicarse con otras personas en diferentes contextos y con diferentes objetivos. De ahí que esa imperante necesidad por desarrollar la competencia oral de los alumnos de ILE haya despertado nuestro interés para investigar los problemas que los alumnos de Estudios Ingleses de la Universidad de Almería hayan encontrado a lo largo de su carrera. En este trabajo, analizamos los procesos de producción de la lengua materna (L1) y de la lengua extranjera (LE), los aspectos de la competencia comunicativa, el uso de las estrategias comunicativas, las técnicas de resolución de problemas y los principios del enfoque de enseñanza comunicativa de la lengua. Asimismo, para alcanzar nuestros objetivos, hemos adoptado una metodología cuantitativa y hemos elaborado una encuesta compuesta por 21 preguntas en la que han participado 29 estudiantes de último año del grado en Estudios Ingleses. Los resultados de dicha encuesta revelan que los estudiantes todavía necesitan desarrollar varios aspectos de sus competencias lingüísticas, interactivas y discursivas; que la lengua materna (L1) influye negativamente en la comunicación en inglés; y que no se fomenta realmente un contacto por medio del cual se lea, se escuche, se piense o se hable con frecuencia en la lengua extranjera fuera de las aulas. Además, nuestro estudio demuestra que las actividades de clase no son efectivas para el desarrollo de las habilidades de comunicación oral de los estudiantes en su último año de carrera

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Abbreviations

CLT.....	Communicative language teaching
CSs.....	Communication strategies
EFL	English as a foreign language
FL.....	Foreign language
L1.....	First language
L2.....	Second language
PSM.....	Problem-solving mechanisms

Part (1)

1.1. Introduction

According to recent statistical and historical studies, English has become the world's lingua franca in almost all areas of life (e.g., business, science, politics, education, entertainment, etc.) and has recorded the greatest worldwide reach of all languages in history (Mastin, 2011). Accordingly, having a good command of English language skills is essential to all EFL learners, especially university students of English philology and literature. Furthermore, since the main objective for teaching or a foreign language is developing the learners' abilities to use it for communication, which mostly occurs orally, great attention should be given to teaching the speaking skills as Ur (1996;120) argues that "of all the four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing), speaking seems intuitively the most important". However, neither teaching speaking and communication skills in English nor acquiring such skills is an easy task, especially for learners living in a non-English speaking community as Zhang (2009;32) reveals, "After more than ten years of study, college graduates in China are often incapable of effectively communicating with foreigners in English, a phenomenon known as mute English". Indeed, several recent studies have addressed different aspects of speaking problems among university students and English major students studying in various contexts (see, for example, Alyan, 2013; Alahmadi & Kesseiri, 2013; Koizumi, 2005; Shteiwi & Hamuda, 2016; Meriem, 2015; Oya et al., 2009). Therefore, we indicate that speaking represents a challenge for English major students, and EFL learners in general, partially due to the lack of sufficient real opportunities to communicate in English while living in a non-English speaking community. To complicate matters, learners' L1 interference, incomplete acquisition of the English language, poor language contact

outside their classrooms and insufficient classroom speaking activities may all contribute to their English speaking problems. Therefore, in this study, we aim to investigate challenges facing English major students at the University of Almeria while speaking in English to help teachers and students better understand this problem and, thus, take a forward step in solving it.

Finally, this research paper is divided into five main parts. The first part introduces the objectives, justification and hypotheses of our study. The second part presents the theoretical framework and discusses previous studies related to our investigation. The third part illustrates our research methodology, participants, materials and procedures. The fourth part presents our obtained results, analysis and discussion. The last part includes some pedagogical implications for both teachers and learners to effectively handle the revealed speaking challenges, points out the limitation of our study, provides some suggestions for future research and concludes the key results of our study briefly.

1.2. Justification

In spite of the many years of classroom instructions, application of various language teaching methods and strategies and use of computer-mediated learning facilities, speaking and communicating in English still represents a challenge even for university students of English philology and literature in various contexts of non-English speaking countries, which has been revealed in a number of recent studies (see, for example, Alyan, 2013, Shteiwi & Hamuda, 2016; Meriem, 2015). Moreover, speaking from my own humble experience and constant observation, as an English major graduate, I noticed that during the years of our undergraduate studies in the major of English

Philology and literature at the Islamic University of Gaza, many of my colleagues, and I, were struggling to communicate or speak spontaneously without previous preparation, whether in classroom activities or real-life situations. Still, after graduation, many of my colleagues enrolled themselves particularly in speaking courses to improve their oral proficiency. Surprisingly, as I moved to the University of Almeria, I noticed the same problem among English major students. This motivated me to initiate an intimate discussion with a group of undergraduate students of English major, most of whom were either junior or senior students, who opened up about their struggles while speaking and communicating in English. Therefore, I decided to conduct the current study to further investigate the contributing factors affecting English major students' speaking and oral communication competence.

1.3. Objectives of the Study

This study aims to investigate English major students' perspectives about the following:

- 1- Their speaking and oral communication problems in English.
- 2- Their first language (L1) influence on their speaking abilities in English.
- 3- The effectiveness of their classroom activities on their English speaking abilities.
- 4- Their English language contact outside their classrooms.

1.4. Hypotheses of the Study

In order to achieve our abovementioned objectives, we propose the four following hypotheses:

- 1- English major students' incomplete oral communicative competence negatively impacts their speaking and oral communication abilities in English.

- 2- English major students' first language (L1) negatively influences their speaking and oral interactions in English.

- 3- Classroom activities conducted throughout different academic courses effectively develop English major students' speaking and oral communication abilities.

- 4- English major students develop an effective language contact outside their classrooms.

Part (2)

Theoretical Framework

This part is divided into four main sections investigating various research areas related to cognitive linguistics, applied linguistics and teaching methodology. First, we will explore some definitions of the term speaking as a foreign language proficiency. Second, we will summarize Levelt's (1989) L1 speech production model and Kormos' (2006) integrated model of L2¹ speech production. Third, we will discuss the components of communicative competence (Canale & Swain, 1980; Celce-Murcia et al., 1995), the concept of communication strategies (CSs) (Bialystok, 1990; Dornyei & Scott, 1997; Gass & Selinker, 1994) and the types of problem-solving mechanisms in L2 speech (PSM) (Dornyei & Kormos, 1998; Kormos, 2006). Fourth, we will explore the theory and practices of the communicative language teaching approach (CLT) (Hedge, 2000; Jacobs & Farrell, 2003; Richards, 2006), discuss some teaching methods of speaking and communication skills in English as a FL (Harmer, 2001; Zhang, 2009) and lastly review previous research investigating the relationship between oral proficiency and other language and cognitive skills- including listening, reading and thinking- (Abdolmanafi-Rokni, 2013; Bergmann et al., 2015; Feyten, 1991; Mart,2012; Pawly & Syder,1983) and the influence of language contact on the speaking skills in a foreign language (Alyan, 2013; Oya et al., 2009).

In this study, the term "second language (L2)" is used interchangeably as an equivalent to the term ¹ "foreign language (FL)".

Section One

2.1.1. Speaking as a Language Proficiency

In an attempt to explain what is meant by the term speaking as a language proficiency, scholars have provided various definitions according to their point of views, which are all valid and interrelated. For instance, Alyan (2013; 227) states that "Speaking can be perceived as an interactive process of constructing meaning that involves producing, receiving and processing information" while Pawlak et al. (2011; 4) points out that "speaking involves various aspects of communicative competence". Similarly, El-Koumy (2002; 85) defines speaking from two main perspectives:

From the skill-building perspective, speaking is defined as a collection of micro skills, including vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation... from the whole language perspective, speaking is defined as an oral process of meaning construction and expression.

Thus, we conclude that speaking is a language proficiency that is mainly used for communication and conveying meaning. Also, it requires the various components of communicative competence which will be discussed thoroughly in section (2.2.1).

2.1.2. Levelt's Modular Theory of L1 Speech Production

Levelt (1989) puts forward his theory of L1 speech production based on collected data analysis of L1 adult speakers' errors. His model accounts for speech processing as the information passes through different stages starting with a conceptual preparation and ending with speech articulation. This process starts as the speaker intends to convey

a message (conceptual preparation) using both macro-planning and micro-planning techniques. Next, the mind starts encoding this message in form of language on various levels (grammatical, morpho-phonological and phonetic encoding) and finally articulates the message into an overt speech (articulation).

To start with, during the stage of conceptual preparation, speakers generate their message using two types of planning. The first is macro-planning which involves the elaboration of the communicative intention expressed in speech acts like requesting, giving information, apologizing, etc. The second is micro-planning which helps speakers decide on the structure in which they wish to convey a message. This includes deciding on the new and old information in the message, propositional content, perspective of the message, thematic roles, referents, mood and tense. The outcome of macro and micro-planning is referred to as "the preverbal message". It is worth to mention that preverbal means non-linguistic message although it will be linguistically accessible afterwards since this stage includes all the necessary information to transform meaning into language.

The next processing stage is called grammatical encoding in which speakers start to lexicalize their preverbal message by retrieving the lemmas² whose meanings best match the semantic information in the preverbal message. This selection of the suitable lemma activates its syntactic information (e.g., in the case of a verb, its tense, person, etc.) and syntactic building procedure. For instance, selecting the lemma "read" as a verb leads to the activation of its syntactic verb-phrase building which activates an object such as "the book". The outcome of grammatical encoding is known as "surface structure" which refers to "an ordered string of lemmas grouped into phrases and sub-phrases" (Levelt, 1989; 11).

Contain the semantic and syntactic information of a lexical item ²

After that, the morpho-phonological encoding process takes place as speakers retrieve the morphological structure of the words and their segmental and metrical features, such as pitch and stress. Also, phonemes of morphemes are retrieved leading to what is known as "phonological score" or (internal speech). Finally, the message is articulated into an overt speech relying on a set articulatory gestures stored in the syllabary which is "the store of chunks of automatized movements used to produce syllables" (Kormos, 2006; 185).

Likewise, Levelt accounts on the process of speech monitoring. He argues that the monitor is located in the conceptualizer but separated from the speech production system. It receives information from the speech comprehension system or what he calls as "parser". Moreover, Levelt has identified three types of monitoring loops which function as a direct-feedback channels during and after speech production. The first monitoring loop compares the outcome of the preverbal plan with the speaker's original communicative intention before sending the preverbal message into the formulator. The second loop of monitoring checks the phonetic plan (i.e. the internal speech) before it is articulated. Thus, it enables speakers to notice encoding errors like choosing wrong words before they actually utter them. Finally, the last monitoring loop is external (the acoustic-phonotic processor) which enables the speaker to check and recognize their errors after articulating them. Once any of the three previously mentioned loops of control notifies the monitor of an error, the monitor sends an alarming signal and activates the process of production for a second time.

2.1.3. Kormos' Model of L2 Speech Production

Based on Levelt's (1989) previously discussed theory of L1 speech production, Kormos (2006) has proposed her integrated model of L2 speech production. Like L1 speech production, Kormos assumes that L2 speech production is modular in the sense that it consists of the three following phases of encoding: the conceptualization, formulation and articulation of speech. In addition, she argues that all stores of knowledge are shared between L1 and L2, i.e., there is a common store for L1 and L2 concepts, lemmas, lexemes and articulatory scores. However, she assumes the existence of a fourth separate store which provides L2 learners, especially speakers with lower level of proficiency, with L2 specific rules of syntax and phonology in form of declarative knowledge, which makes the syntactic and phonological encoding processes less automatized. In contrast, proficient L2 speakers may not have a separate store of L2 syntax and phonology. Thus, they may apply these rules in form of procedural knowledge automatically. Similarly, Kormos argues that L2 competent speakers may have, like native speakers, parallel processing of language chunks at different stages of encoding, whereas L2 speakers with lower level of proficiency process different phases of encoding more serially, which also explains why L2 production is less automatic and requires more time and attention.

Initially, in the L2 conceptualization process, bilingual speakers decide on the language of their speech and start activating concepts relevant to their intended message. However, since Kormos assumes that L1 and L2 concepts are stored in one memory (i.e. the semantic memory), differentiating between L1 and L2 separate concepts of the same notions significantly relies on the speaker's level of proficiency. Thus, L2 speakers with low level of proficiency tend to transfer L1 concepts to L2 speech, which can be clearly identified when speakers transfer an idiomatic concept from L1 into L2. In contrast,

advanced speakers manage to distinguish between those different concepts in L1 and L2 while conceptualizing them. Moreover, Kormos points out that during the conceptualization process, speakers don't only activate the concepts which they wish to encode and articulate, but they also activated other semantically related concepts at the same time. For instance, when conceptualizing the concept of "mother", related concepts like "child", "love" or "family" may be activated as well.

In the process of lexico-grammatical encoding, the matching between the conceptual specifications and the appropriate lemma occurs in the mental lexicon. Still, since the mental lexicon which functions as a repository of lemmas and lexemes³ is shared between L1 and L2, both L1 and L2 lemmas receive activation in this process and compete against each other for selection. Moreover, Kormos argues that L2 learners with low level of proficiency tend to build stronger connection between L1 and L2 items, whereas balanced bilinguals have stronger links between L2 items. Furthermore, frequently used L2 words tend to take a central position in the mental lexicon and have high number of links with other items, whereas lexical entries which are rarely used or not known very well are pushed to the periphery (Kormos, 2006; 169-171).

In addition, the process of syntactic encoding, L2 syntactic information which matches the lemma receives activation and, then, the activated words and their syntactic features (e.g, gender, accountability status, obligatory and optional complements, etc.) are used to assemble longer phrases and clauses. However, Kormos argues that balanced bilinguals activate syntactic features which are specific to L2 entries, whereas incompetent L2 learners may activate L1 syntactic features to be applied on L2 items, which accounts for the occurrence of L1 syntactic transfer among L2 speakers. Likewise, when building phrases and clauses, L1 speakers and balanced bilinguals

Contain the morphological and phonological information of a lexical item³

automatically apply the syntactic and morphological rules of the language while L2 incompetent speakers may structure their phrases and clauses in three different ways: (a) if a rule is already acquired as a procedural knowledge, they automatically apply it as L1 speakers and L2 balanced bilinguals do (b) if a rule is learned as a declarative knowledge, learners need to apply it consciously (c) if a rule is not acquired at all, learners may resort to any of the communication strategies or transfer their L1 rules to be applied on L2 constructions.

In the phonological encoding, phonological forms of words, pitch and intonation of phrases are activated to be encoded. Similar to L2 syntactic encoding process, it is assumed that the phonological forms of L1 and L2 lexemes are activated simultaneously and compete for selection. After that, the phonemes of word forms are activated serially starting from the first phoneme of the word onwards. In this regards, Kormos postulates that identical phonemes in L1 and L2 are stored as a single representation in mental lexicon, whereas phonemes which are different in L1 and L2 are stored as separate representation. Thus, she concludes that L2 speakers with lower levels of proficiency may substitute L2 specific phonemes with similar L1 phonemes. Similarly, they may transfer their L1 phonological rules at the lexical and post-lexical levels to L2 items.

Finally, speakers retrieve the articulatory gestures required for different syllables from the syllabary and articulate their message into an overt speech.

Section Two

2.2.1. Communicative Competence

The term "communicative competence" was firstly proposed by the sociolinguist Hymes (1972) as a challenge to Chomsky's (1965) well-received notion of "linguistic competence" in the research of second language acquisition. Since then, there has been numerous research in the field of linguistics and applied linguistics aiming to explain what is meant by the communicative competence. In the following paragraphs, we will review two main proposed models of communicative competence by Canale & Swain (1980) and Celca-Murcia et al. (1995).

To start with, Canale & Swain (1980) have elaborated the first comprehensive model of communicative competence which includes the four following major components:

- 1- Grammatical competence: it involves the knowledge of language code, i.e. grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, spelling, etc.
- 2- Sociolinguistic competence: it involves the appropriate use of language socio-cultural code, i.e. appropriate use of vocabulary, politeness rules, register and style according to a given situation.
- 3- Discourse Competence: it includes the ability to construct various types of cohesive written or spoken speeches, e.g., giving a political speech, composing a poem, etc.
- 4- Strategic competence: it involves the use of communication strategies, whether verbal or non-verbal, to overcome problems manifesting over the course of communication.

However, this model has been criticized later by other scholars like Schachter (1990) who questioned its validity because it separates the socio-linguistic competence from the discourse competence. Thus, she argues that the unity of a text or a speech (discourse competence) requires a degree of appropriateness in language use which relies on contextual factors provided by the socio-cultural code, such as the participant's age, position, norms of interaction and purpose of communication.

Second, Celce-Murcia et. al (1995) have presented an elaborated model of communicative competence based on Canale & Swain's (1980) model and other models of communicative competence (see, for example, Bachman, 1990). As figure (1) below shows, Celce-Murcia's et al. model has placed the discourse competence in an inner circle surrounded by a triangle whose three angles represent the other three competences (i.e., linguistic, actional and socio-cultural). In addition, the inner circle and the triangle are surrounded by an outer circle which represents strategic competence (i.e., the speakers' ability to use some strategies to negotiate meaning and overcome problems over the course of communication).



Figure (1)

(Schematic representation of the communicative competence, Celce-Murcia et al., 1995;

10)

Moreover, it's worth to mention that this model includes some minor terminological differences from the previous models. For instance, Celce-Murcia et al. have used the term "linguistic competence" to generally indicate lexis, phonology, morphology and syntax. Likewise, they have substituted Canale & Swain's "sociolinguistic competence" with two separate competences: "socio-cultural competence" and "actional competence". They argue that language resources are mainly presented in the linguistic, actional and discourse competences, whereas sociocultural knowledge is significant for language users to use these competences appropriately according to the norms in a given culture. To sum up, we will present their definitions of each of the communicative competences in the following points:

1- Discourse competence: "[It] concerns the selection, sequencing, and arrangement of words, structures, sentences and utterances to achieve a unified spoken or written text" (1995;13).

2- Linguistic competence: "It comprises the basic elements of communication: the sentence patterns and types, the constituent structure, the morphological inflections, and the lexical resources, as well as the phonological and orthographic systems needed to realize communication as speech or writing" (1995; 16-17).

3- Actional competence: " [It] is defined as competence in conveying and understanding communicative intent, that is, matching actional intent with linguistic form based on the knowledge of an inventory of verbal schemata that carry illocutionary force (speech acts and speech act sets)" (1995; 17).

4- Sociocultural knowledge: " [It] refers to the speakers knowledge of how to express messages appropriately within the overall social and cultural context of communication, in accordance with the pragmatic factors related to variation in language use" (1995;23)

5- Strategic competence: " [It is the] knowledge of communication strategies and how to use them" (1995; 26).

2.2.2. Communication Strategies (CSs)

Since L2 speech production doesn't occur as spontaneously as L1, speakers of L2 tend to spend longer time and put greater efforts in formulating their intended messages, negotiating meanings and managing L2 related problems over the course of communication (Kormos, 2006; 137). As a consequence, the term "Communication Strategies (CSs)" was introduced firstly in Selinker's (1972) inter-language theory to help L2 learners overcome oral communication difficulties arising due to the insufficient knowledge of a target language. After Selinker's theory, numerous scholars have investigated the role of communication strategies in L2 oral communication and, according to different approaches, they have provided various definitions, terminologies and taxonomies to L2 communication strategies (for reviews, see Bialystok, 1990; Dornyei & Scott, 1997; Gass & Selinker, 1994). In the following paragraphs, we will present some of the comprehensive definitions to CSs, summarize different approaches studying CSs and illustrate various problem-solving mechanisms (PSM) applied as (CSs) following Dornyei & Kormos (1998) recent integrated approach.

To start with, scholars have provided numerous definitions to the term communication strategies, which are somehow related to one another. For instance, Dornyei & Scott (1997;179) define them as " every potentially intentional attempt to cope with any language related problems of which the speaker is aware during the course of communication". Similarly, Stern (1983; 411) views them as "techniques of coping with difficulties in communicating in an imperfectly known second language".

Finally, following two main approaches, namely the interactional approach and the psycholinguistic one, scholars have established different taxonomies of CSs (for review, see Bialystok, 1990; Dornyei & Scott, 1997).

2.2.3. Problem-Solving Mechanisms (PSM)

Dornyei & Kormos (1998) have presented a new integrated taxonomy based on various existing taxonomies in both the interactional and psycholinguistic approaches of CSs and, most importantly, based on Levelt's (1989) model of speech production. Thus, they have introduced four main types of L2 communication problems, which may occur through different stages of speech processing and production as the following: 1) resource deficit 2) processing time pressure 3) own performance problems 4) others' performance related problems.

First, resource deficits can be defined as "gaps in speakers' knowledge preventing them from verbalizing their messages" (Kormos, 2006; 183). These deficits can be related to lexical, grammatical or phonological aspects of a language and require various problem-solving mechanisms to cope with each of them as Dornyei & Kormos (1998) states:

(a) *lexical problem-solving mechanisms* handle the frequent inability to retrieve the appropriate L2 lemma that corresponds to the concepts specified in the preverbal plan; (b) *grammatical problem-solving mechanisms* deal with insufficient knowledge of the grammatical form and the argument structure of the lemma, as well as the word ordering rules of the L2... and (c) *phonological and articulatory problem-solving mechanisms* help overcome difficulties in the phonological and articulatory phases caused by the lack of phonological of a word or connected speech. (357)

Second, processing-time pressure occur during the planning and formulating of processes of the preverbal message. This problem is resolved by using stalling strategies

including non-lexicalized pauses like providing unfilled pauses, producing humming and erring sounds, lengthening sounds intentionally or producing lexicalized pauses, such as using lexicalized fillers, repeating one's self speech or repeating other's speech. Such mechanisms help L2 speakers gain more time and deal with the fact that L2 speech processing is more serial, less automatic and slower than L1 speech (Dornyei & Kormos, 1998; 356-357; Kormos, 2006; 151-152).

Third, own performance problems manifest after speakers encode their messages either during the internal monitoring phase or while articulating their speech. These problems could be overcome by two main types of strategies: self-repair (e.g., errors repair, appropriacy repair and rephrasing repair) and check questions (Dornyei & Kormos, 1998; 357).

Finally, others' performance problems, which are more related to speech comprehension rather than speech production. They can be overcome by strategies of meaning negotiation, such as requests for repetition, declaring a lack of understanding or providing interpretive summary (Dornyei & Kormos, 1998; 357). However, since such problems are related to speech comprehension, they will not be discussed in this paper as we are only concerned with problems related speech production.

To sum up, the following tables recap the most common problem-solving mechanisms used by speakers of L2 to overcome problems related to lexical, grammatical and phonological aspects of L2 speech according to Dornyei & Kormos (1998; 358-365):

An Overview of Lexical Problem-Solving Mechanisms (PSM)

1- Content reduction:

- **Message abandonment:** leaving out the message incomplete while speaking due to the loss of some linguistic resources.
- **Message reduction:** shortening the intended message in order to overcome the lack of certain linguistic resources

2- Substitution:

- **Code switching:** producing words, chunks or even a complete message in L1 or L3 while speaking in L2.
- **Approximation:** producing an alternative lexical item which is semantically related to the intended target word (e.g., saying "mouth" instead of "beak" when describing a bird).
- **Use of all-purpose words:** overusing general "empty" words in a wide range of contexts due to the insufficient knowledge of the appropriate specific terms (e.g. saying "like", "thing", "stuff", etc.).
- **Complete omission:** leaving out some words while speaking and continuing the speech as if the word had been said due to incomplete acquisition of L2 lexis.

<p>3- Substitution plus:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Foreignizing: producing L1 or L3 words and adjusting them to L2 phonology or morphology. - Grammatical word coinage: creating a non-existing word in L2 by mistakenly applying a L2 rule to an existing L2 word (e.g., coining a non-existing noun "<i>scarification</i>" from the verb "sacrifice" instead of "sacrifices" by applying the general rule of affixation, in which many nouns are derived by adding the suffix "-tion" to their original form of verbs). - Literal translation: producing literal translation to L1 or L3 lexical item or idiom while speaking in L2.
<p>4- Macro-reconceptualization:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Restructuring: substituting an intended message with another one due to the lack of ability to formulate and produce the original one.
<p>5- Micro-reconceptualization:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Circumlocution: describing or exemplifying the property of an intended lexis in L2 due to the insufficient knowledge of the appropriate or specific word. (e.g. saying "it would become water" instead of "melt"). - Semantic word coinage: creating a non-existing L2 word by compounding L2 existing words incorrectly (e.g. saying "<i>snowsculpture</i>" instead of "snowman").

Table (1): (for review, see Dornyei & Kormos, 1998; 358-361)

An Overview of Grammatical Problem-Solving Mechanisms:
<p>1- Grammatical substitution: changing some grammatical specifications of the lemma or substituting a structure with another due to the lack of knowledge of L2 grammar and structure rules (e.g. substituting the passive voice into active voice or irregular adverbs with regular ones).</p>
<p>2- Grammatical reduction: Overgeneralizing the use of a grammatical construction or tense (e.g., applying the present simple tense to all contexts).</p>

Table (2): (for review, see Dornyei & Kormos, 1998; 361)

An Overview of Phonological Problem-Solving Mechanisms (PSM):
<p>1- Phonological retrieval:</p> <p>- Tip-of-the- tongue phenomenon: producing a series of incomplete or wrong forms of speech in an attempts to retrieve and articulate the intended item. (e.g. repeating the first and second syllables of the word "totalitarianism" before successfully producing the complete word) .</p>
<p>2- Phonological and articulatory substitution:</p> <p>-Use of similar-sounding words: producing a lexical item which phonologically sounds similar to the target item, regardless of whether the articulated word actually exists or not in a L2 (e.g. saying "<i>mistakengly</i>" instead of "mistakenly".)</p>
<p>3- Phonological and articulatory reduction:</p> <p>- Mumbling, swallowing a word, or a part of it, or producing it in a low or barely audible voice due to the speaker's unassurance of the correct pronunciation.</p>

Table (3): (for review, see Dornyei & Kormos, 1998; 362)

Section Three

2.3.1. The Communicative Language Teaching Approach (CLT)

The communicative language teaching approach (CLT) has emerged out of the dissatisfaction of the traditional language teaching approaches which were dominant before 1970, such as the audio-lingual approach, the oral approach and, the grammar-translation method. It calls for shifting the attention from developing learners' grammatical competence into developing their communicative competence in order to be able to use the language communicatively and appropriately in real-life situations. However, it seems to be a matter of controversy to provide a single agreed upon definition of what is meant by the communicative language teaching (Celce- Murcia et al., 1997; 143). Accordingly, such lack of clear-cut guidelines led to various perceptions of the meaning and application of the communicative language teaching, which have in common a very general objective, i.e. preparing FL learners for real life communication instead of emphasizing on structural accuracy.

Generally speaking, CLT principles call for fostering learners' autonomy, creating real-life-like learning opportunities, enhancing the social nature of leaning, improving the connectedness and integration of different field of knowledge in language teaching, encouraging learners' use of learning and communication strategies, providing learners with opportunities to improve their fluency and accuracy, developing learners' higher-order thinking skills, emphasizing learners' role in their learning process, changing teachers' traditional roles from being the main source of information into being co-learners and facilitators of knowledge and viewing learners' errors as an inevitable and necessary to the development of their communicative competence (Jacobs & Farrell, 2003; Richards, 2006).

Moreover, Richards (2006; 9-10) has highlighted some key points that planners of communicative-based syllables should take into consideration as the following:

- 1- The purposes for which learners wish to master the target language (e.g., English for business, medicine, journalism, etc.).
- 2- The setting in which learners need to use the target language mostly (i.e., in an office, in a class, on an airplane, etc.).
- 3- The types of communicative events in which learners will be engaged (e.g., daily events, such as participating in a casual conversation; academic events, such as participating in conference; or professional situation, such as having a job interview).
- 4- The language functions and skills learners need to acquire in order to communicate successfully in an identified communicative event (e.g., analyzing statistics, talking about experiences, delivering an emotional speech or lecturing and giving explanations).
- 5- The notions or content learners need mostly to be able to spontaneously communicate in the target language (e.g., content related to finance, media, etc.).
- 6- The target language varieties which learners may encounter in a given communicative event (e.g., British, American or Australian English).
- 7- The lexical and grammatical content needed to facilitate communication in the target language.

2.3.2. Teaching Speaking and Oral Communication

According to Harmer (2001), EFL teachers can play three key roles to improve students' speaking and communication skills when conducting a speaking activity in their classrooms. First, they may play the role of a prompter in which they provide further suggestions, ideas, questions, etc. to help students overcome difficulties once they feel frustrated, lost, or unable to continue speaking. Second, they may choose to play the role an equal participant. Thus, after clarifying the necessary instructions to carry out an activity or task, the teacher participate equally with other learners. This role break any barriers between teachers and learners, maximize students' involvement in classroom activities and help students learn from teachers as a proficient speaker. Finally, teachers can play the role of a feedback provider by delivering feedback information to learners about their performance and errors while speaking in order to help them improve their speaking abilities (275-276). However, teachers should be conscious about how and when they should provide feedback so that they don't deter their students' fluency and confidence with over correction as Gammidge (2004:8) points out "once learners begin speaking, the best strategy is to monitor without interfering too much".

In addition, in their article entitled "*Communicative Competence: A Pedagogically Motivated Model with Content Specifications*", Celce-Murcia et al. (1995) have provided a detailed content specifications for teaching each of the four communicative competences proposed in their previous model (i.e., linguistic, acional, discourse and strategic competence). Interestingly, their proposed guidelines can be easily adopted to create suitable content to different levels of English language learners (for review, see Celce-Murcia et al., 1995; 14-24).

Similarly, in his article *"Reading to Speak: Integrating Oral Communication Skills"*, Zhang (2009) introduces three types of reading activities that could be applied to improve EFL learners' speaking and oral communication skills. The first activity type is "read to debate" in which students are engaged into a debate over a controversial issue after reading some texts related to an identified topic. The second is "read to interview" in which learners are encouraged to work in pairs and carry out an interview with one another. The interview questions and answers should be related to the ideas, facts, opinions, etc. presented in a given text (e.g., persuasive texts, argumentative texts, scientific texts, etc.). The last type of activities is "read to act" in which learners are asked to act out a script with the possibility of making some variations after reading the full text. Thus, we conclude that university teachers can also apply any of the previously mentioned speaking activities by simply designing suitable content that match with their students' advanced level of English.

Finally, Hedge (2000) emphasizes the role of free discussion on developing EFL learners' fluency and oral proficiency since discussion activities catch learners' attention, foster their involvement in classroom time, develop their critical thinking and communication strategies as they learn how to present facts, express opinions, reveal feelings, defend their own points of views and negotiate with others (277).

2.3.3. Listening and Oral proficiency in EFL

Developing listening skills is fundamental to efficient speaking and oral communication in a L2 as Brown (2004; 140) points out, "Listening and speaking are almost always closely interrelated". Similarly, examining relevant previous literature, Feyten (1991) finds out that "more than forty-five percent of our total communication time is spent on listening. Speaking takes thirty percent; reading takes sixteen percent;

and writing, nine percent" (174). Therefore, scholars have provided different components of the listening skill depending on the purpose of a listening practice. For instance, Wolvin and Coakley (1982) identify four key types of listening: (a) discriminative listening which requires listeners to distinguish between facts and opinions; (b) comprehensive listening which requires listeners to understand a given message; (c) critical which requires listeners to be critical and evaluate a given message before accepting or rejecting it; and (d) appreciative listening in which the listeners' goal is to enjoy a given message or gain a specific impression (32).

In addition, in her study, Feyten (1991) has conducted an experiment on a total number of ninety students enrolled in two intensive language courses (French and Spanish) over a period of ten weeks (285 hours of instruction) at the University of Tennessee. The results show that there is a significant positive correlation between listening ability and oral proficiency among learners of foreign language learners French and Spanish according to results of obtained from the post-test of her study.

Similarly, Abdolmanafi-Rokni (2013) has carried out an experiment on forty-six Iranian students at Novin institute in Gorgan. The study examined the effect of listening to audio stories when accompanied with some instructions of English phonetics on the participants' pronunciation in English as a FL. The results show that listening to audio stories after receiving some instructions related to the characteristics different English sounds and sentence intonation patterns have significantly enhanced the participants' pronunciation in English.

Thus, we conclude that developing the listening skill is significant to improve learners' pronunciation, their comprehension of fast speech in real time and their overall

oral proficiency in a L2.

2.3.4. Reading and Oral Proficiency

According to Karshen and Terrel (1983), "Reading may contribute significantly to competence in a second language. There is good reason, in fact, to hypothesize that reading makes a contribution to overall competence, to all four skills" (131). In addition, several recent studies have revealed that L2 speakers' lack of sufficient lexis constitutes a challenge in their oral communication (see, for example, Alyan, 2013; Mart, 2012; Oya et al., 2009). Thus, extensive reading of various authentic texts in a foreign language is essential to improve L2 speakers' oral proficiency since reading enriches learners' linguistic repertoire with a wide range of lexis, phrases and expressions to be used in oral communication. Similarly, it enhances learners' accuracy in selecting suitable words or expressions and in using them appropriately according to a given context while speaking or conversing in a L2 (Mart, 2012). Furthermore, reading develops learners' syntactic knowledge of L2 structures and discourse in a more natural contexts (William, 1984). Finally, reading develops L2 learners' native-like selections and discourse organization while speaking or communicating in English, which Pawly & Syder (1983) addressed in their article entitled *"Two Puzzles for Linguistic Theory: Nativelike Selection and Nativelike Fluency"* as a main challenge facing non-native speakers of English. Pawly & Syder points out that although many non-native speakers of English are able to convey meanings using grammatically correct language, many of their produced phrases or clauses still sound "unnatural" or foreignisms" to native speakers. Thus, they argue that learners should learn to distinguish which of the well-formed sentences are more natural and native-like (191-195).

2.3.5. Thinking and Oral Proficiency

Based on Kormos' (2006) integrated model of L2 speech production, a co-activation of the speaker's L1 and L2 at the semantic, morphological, syntactic and phonological levels of encoding takes place in bilinguals' minds while speaking in L2 language (see our discussion in part (2), section (2.1)). Such co-activation has been empirically proved in several studies. To give an example, Bergmann's et al. (2015) study examines the impacts of language co-activation on L1 and L2 speech fluency of three groups of participants: (a) the first group of participants are monolingual speakers of German (live in Germany); (b) the second group of participants are late L2 learners of German whose L1 is English (live in Germany); and (c) the third group of participants are L1 attriters of German who have fully acquired their L1 before emigrating to an English environment that have made their English strongly active(live in North America). The researchers designed a speaking test in German to the three groups and compared between the speakers' fluency. Surprisingly, the final results show that L1 attriters of German are as disfluent as the L2 learners of German. The researchers explain that L1 attriters of German, who have acquired their language like any monolingual speaker of German, are still less fluent than monolingual speakers of German not because they lack proficiency in German but rather because they have intensively exposed to English and activate it frequently while using it, which leads to the inactivation of German and reduced use of it. Thus, we conclude that intensive language contact and frequent use of it (whether L1 or L2) foster its activation in the mind, which positively affects the speaker's overall fluency in that language.

In addition, based on the theories of language co-activation in the bilinguals' minds, Northbrook (2018) has introduced the practice of "conscious thinking" in English as a strategy to improve learners' oral fluency. He argues that the frequent practice of thinking in a language keeps it strongly activated in mind, which facilitates speech production in L2. Such thinking practice could be done through communicating with one's own self (e.g., discussing issues, planning actions, solving problems, taking decisions, etc. in one's own mind).

2.3.6. Language Contact and Oral Proficiency in EFL

There's no surprise that staying in constant contact with a foreign language a learner aims to acquire fosters his/her proficiency in that language and provides him/her with potential opportunities to learn and practice that language (see, for example, Segalowitz, 2004; Constantino, 1994). In their study, Oye et al. (2009) have examined the influence of English language contact outside classroom context on the speaking proficiency of thirty-seven Japanese learners of English who aged between 18-67 years old and enrolled in a number of English language schools in New Zealand. The results of the study reveal that the participants' amount of time spent on practicing reading, listening to audio materials/music, speaking with native or non-native speakers of English, living in an English-speaking country positively correlates with their oral performance (including fluency, accuracy, complexity and global impression) in the post-test of the study. However, the results show that watching television/movies correlates negatively with the participants' speaking accuracy.

Similarly, responding to a questionnaire designed by Al-Busaidi & Borg (2012) on English teachers' perspectives about the relationship between learners' autonomy and foreign language learning, 93% of the teachers participating agreed that "autonomy has a positive effect on success as a language learner" while 85% of the teachers confirmed that "autonomy allows language learners to learn more effectively than they otherwise would." (15). In addition, in a follow-up interview to the same study, teachers express their opinions about what makes one an autonomous learner. They reveal that an autonomous learner is the one who is willing to establish contact with the language outside the classroom time through reading of authentic materials, listening to and watching English materials, surfing various resources to learn the language, taking risks, being committed to learn the language and making use of various opportunities to communicate in it (15-16).

Lastly, Alyan's (2013) results indicate that the lack of language contact, which is built through extensive reading, conscious listening, frequent practice of speaking and exploration of several resources to learn English out of classroom time, is a major cause to English major students' oral communication problems at the Islamic University of Gaza.

Part (3)

Methodology

This part introduces our research methodology that has been adopted to achieve our aforementioned objectives taking into consideration both the assumptions of related theories and the results of some previous studies. Moreover, it is worth to mention that the scope of our investigation falls in the field of didactic research. Thus, the following sections will provide complete descriptions of our research participants, design, materials and procedures.

3.1. Participants of the Study

In order to collect data, a convenience sample consisting of (29) senior students of English philology and literature studying at the University of Almeria was randomly chosen to answer our elaborated questionnaire. We decided to select all the participants from the same level (i.e., senior students) in order to create a homogenous sample. In addition, we chose our subjects from the fourth-year of study in particular since we assume that they have longer experience in learning the language and better level of proficiency in speaking. Moreover, the selected sample is aimed to represent the population of first-, second-, third- and fourth- year students of English philology and literature degree at the University of Almeria. Furthermore, the majority of the participants are Spanish native speakers (79.3%), whereas (20.6%) of them have other native languages but have been studying at the University of Almeria for one semester at least. Finally, although the sex of participants isn't considered as a particularly effective

variable on the results of our study, the majority the participants are females (see Appendix 2, Figure 1& 2).

3.1. Design, Materials and Procedures of the Study

To achieve the objectives of our study, we have adopted the quantitative research design. Thus, a questionnaire of (21) items was elaborated to investigate the effects of each of the four following factors on English major students' speaking and oral communication:

- 1- Their incomplete acquisition of oral communicative competence in English.
- 2- Their first language (L1) influence.
- 3- The effectiveness of classroom activities.
- 4- Their English language contact outside their classrooms.

Initially, our questionnaire opens with two questions collecting demographic data related to the participants' sex and native language. After that, there are (18) questions which aim to closely investigate the contributing factors to the participants' speaking problems according to their own perspectives and experiences. We have elaborated around 4-5 questions to investigate the role of each of the aforementioned factors. In addition, all of the questionnaire's items are close ended, i.e. they provide the participants with a number of alternatives to choose from. However, these items vary in nature, e.g. they include dichotomous questions, rating-scale questions and multiple-choice questions. To be more precise, questions (3-9) investigate various aspects related the participants' communicative competence, whereas questions (10-12) examine the influence of the participants' L1 on their speaking. Similarly, questions (13-15) examine the effectiveness of classroom activities carried out in different academic courses on the

participants' speaking while questions (16-21) examine the participants' language contact out of classroom time on their speaking abilities in English.

Moreover, it is worth to mention that we have elaborated our questions after examining Celca-Murcia's (1995;14-24) detailed content specifications for teaching the communicative competence and reviewing questions of similar interviews and questionnaires used to collect data in other relevant studies (e.g., see Alyan,2013; Shteiwi & Hamuda, 2016; Oye et al., 2009).

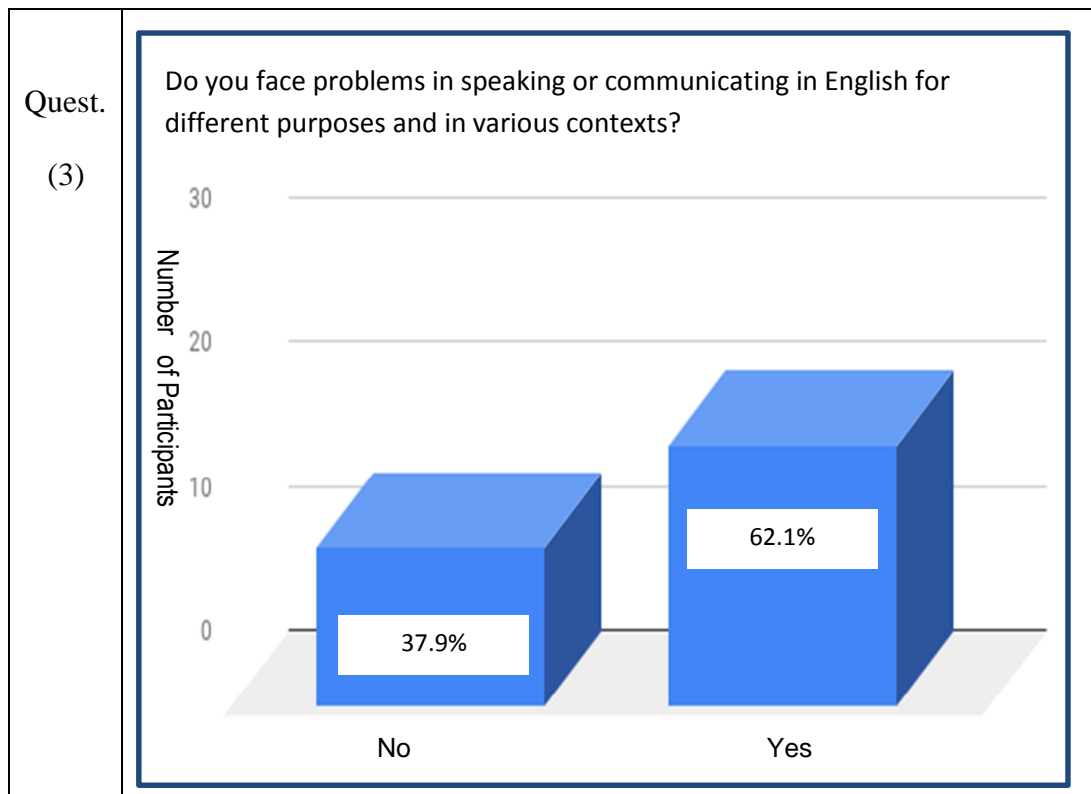
Finally, our quantitative data analysis will be carried out using *Google Forms* which is particularly designed for this purpose. In addition, to protect the participants' personal privacy, we have designed our questionnaire to be completely anonymous. Thus, the participants had to simply think and reflect upon their personal experiences during the period of their undergraduate studies and, then, answer the questions sincerely according to their own experiences and point of views. Besides, although the questionnaire was designed digitally, we have interviewed some participants personally and informally in order to help them better understand our objectives so that they could reflect upon their problems, abilities and experiences more consciously.

Part (4)

Results and Discussion

Taking into consideration the stated objectives of our study, presented theoretical framework and adopted methodology, we will present our results obtained from the participants' responses to our elaborated questionnaire. The collected data will be illustrated objectively following the quantitative research design by using graphics and percentages for each item of the questionnaire. However, since the first two questions of the questionnaire were dedicated to gather demographic data (i.e., the participants' sex and native language), relevant data will be gathered starting from question number (3) onwards. Finally, the results will be divided into four parts to match with the four previously presented objectives of our study.

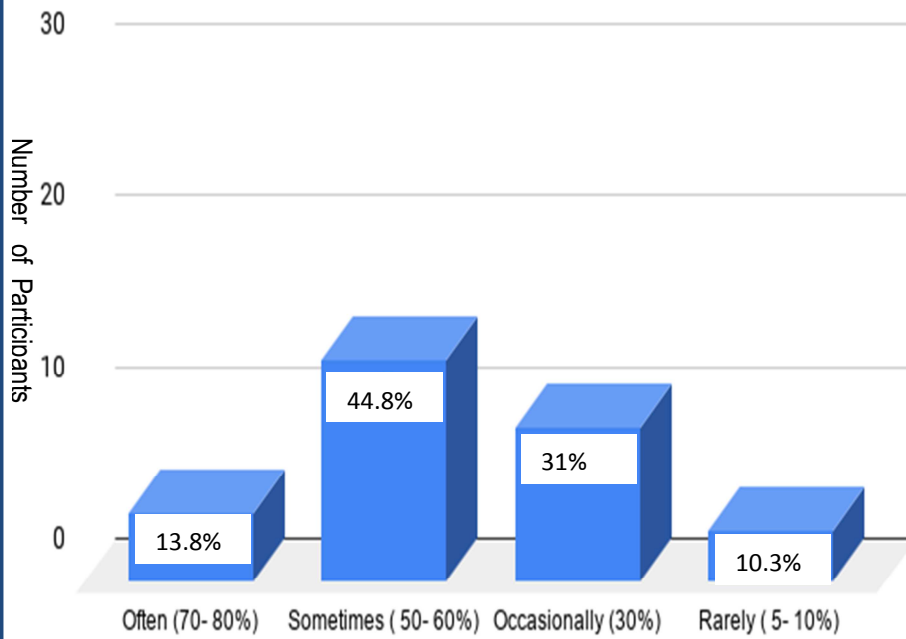
4.1. Results of the Questions Investigating Oral Communicative Competence (the first objective)



Quest.

(4)

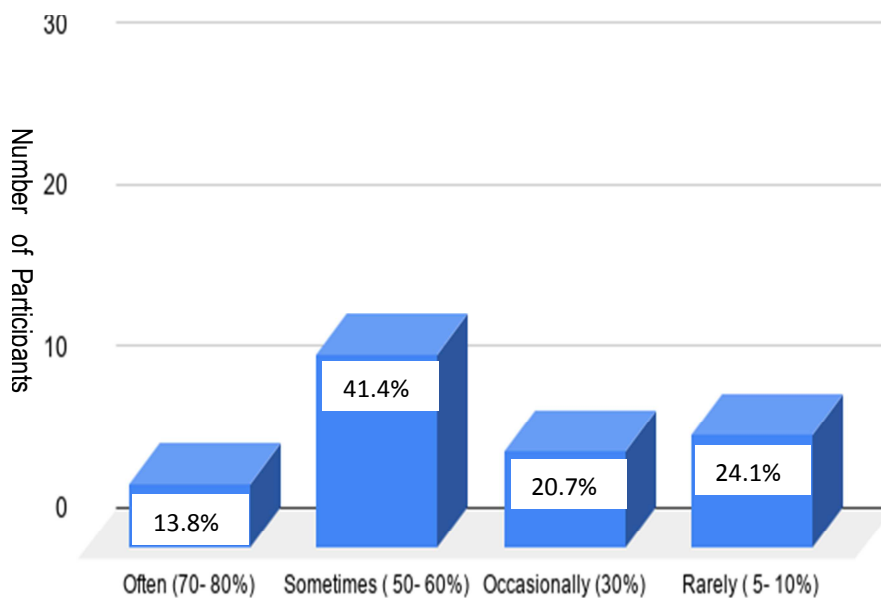
How often do you encounter challenges related to pronunciation, word stress or intonation patterns while speaking in English?



Quest.

(5)

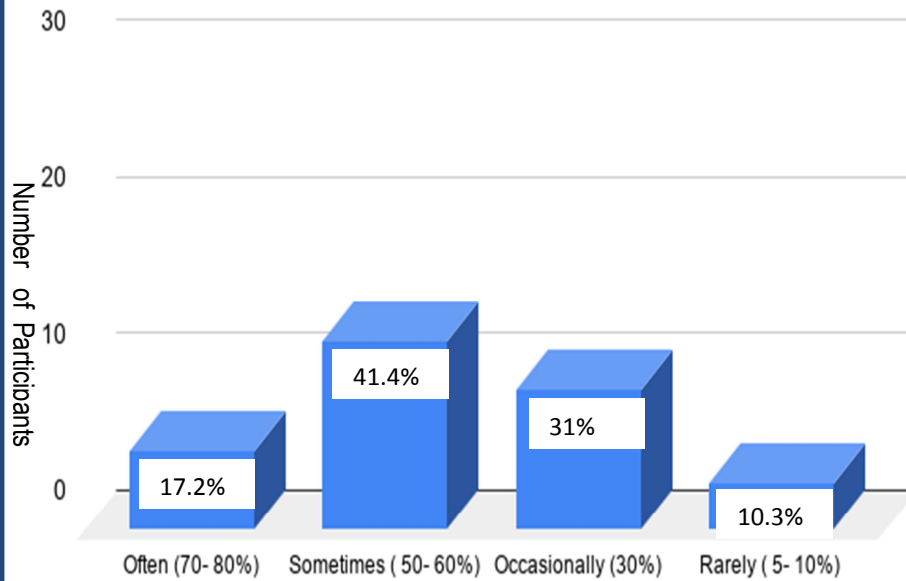
How often do you encounter challenges in constructing correct structures or using appropriate tenses while speaking in English?



Quest.

(6)

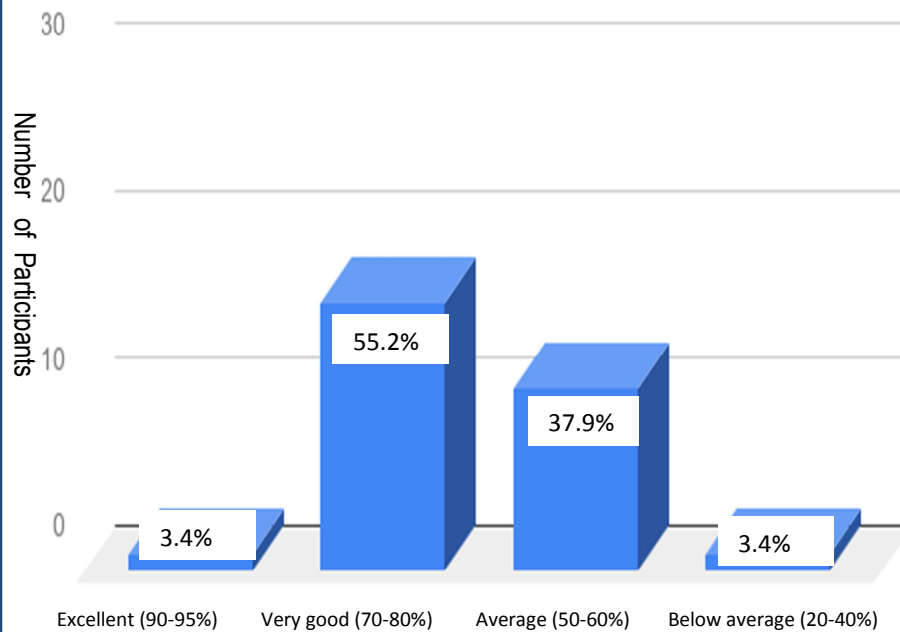
How often do you encounter challenges in finding/ retrieving the specific /suitable lexis, word collocations or expressions while speaking in English?



Quest.

(7)

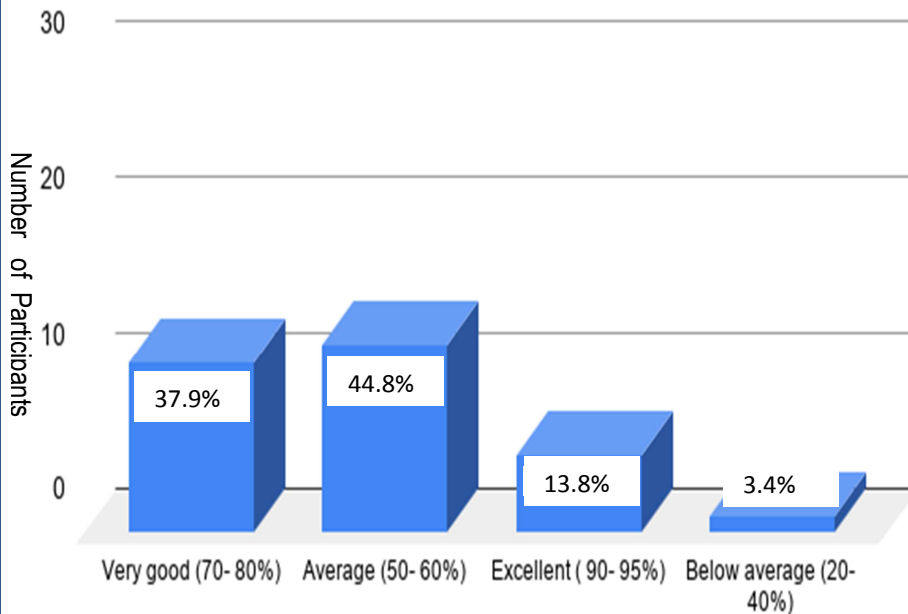
Assessing your ability to run conversations and speak about various general topics in English (e.g., politics, news, health issues, lifestyle, cultures, beliefs, etc.), how would you evaluate yourself?



Quest.

(8)

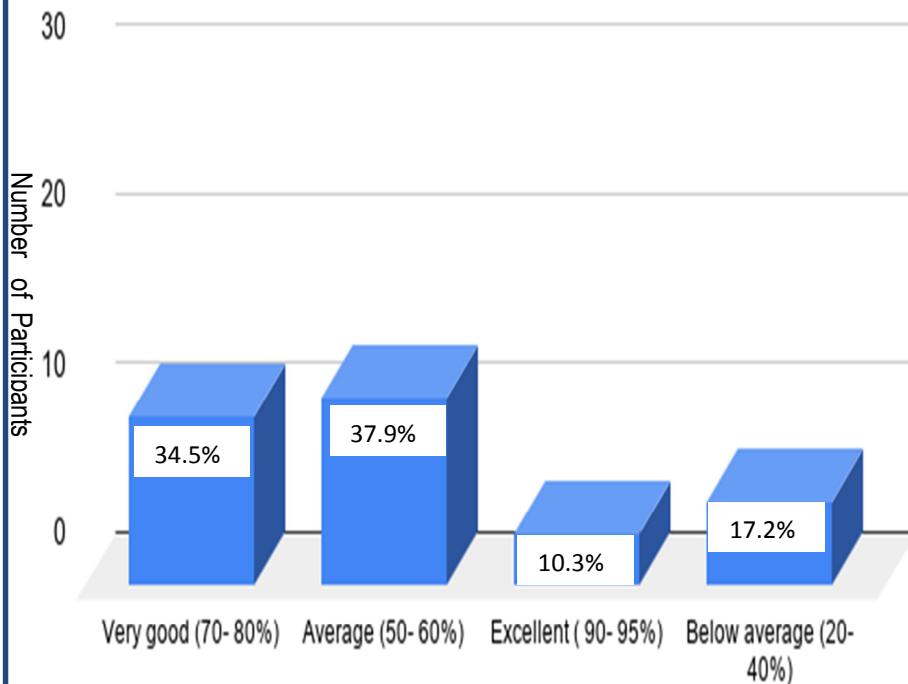
Assessing your abilities to (1) ask for & give information (2) communicate in English for various purposes (e.g., to debate, agree & disagree, express your feelings, advice & warn, complain & criticize, apologize & forgive, talk about hopes & wishes, talk about future hopes & plans, etc.), how would you evaluate yourself?



Quest.

(9)

Assessing your abilities to speak in English in various professional and academic contexts (e.g., having a job interview with native speakers or delivering an emotional speech to them), how would you evaluate yourself ?



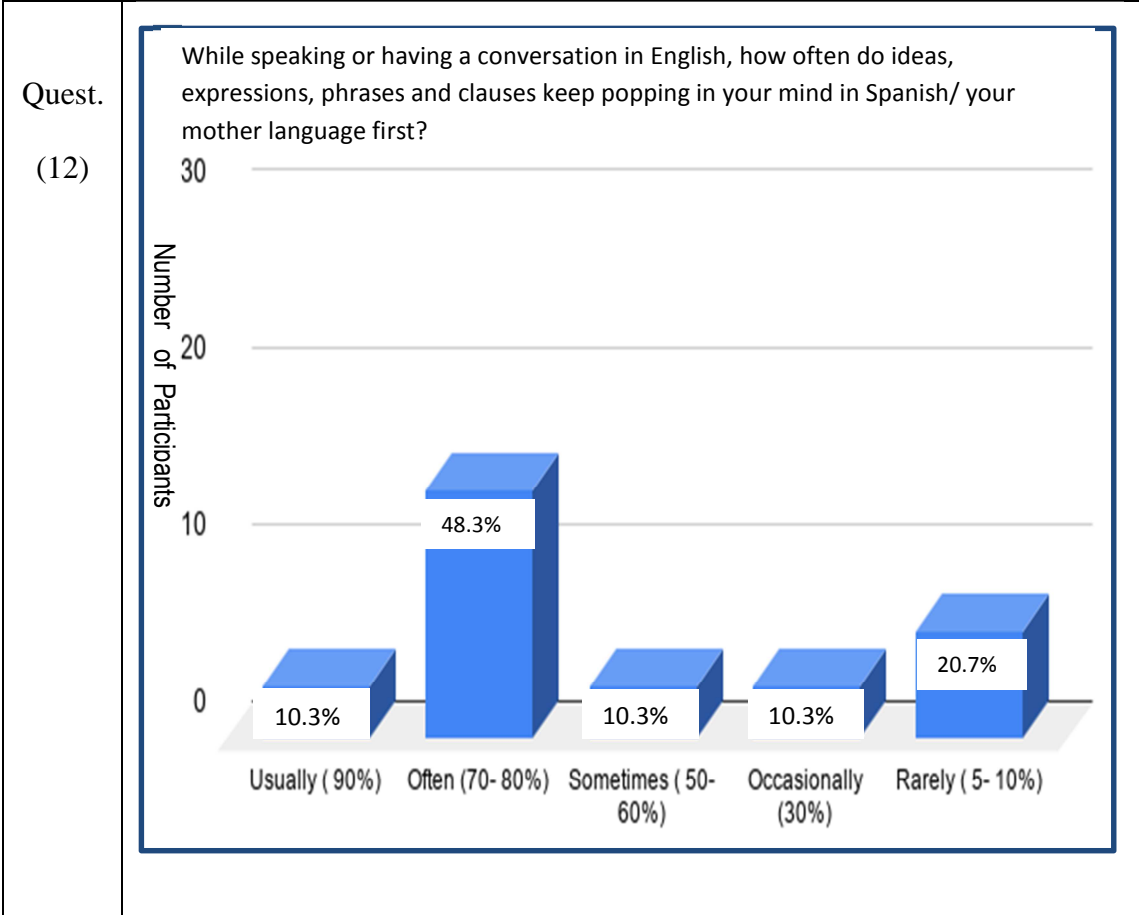
4.1.1 Discussion of the Results related to Oral Communicative Competence

To start with, the majority of the participants (62%) revealed that they do face challenges in speaking and communicating in English. Looking at the results of the questions (4-6) which investigate different aspects of the participants' linguistic competence, we find out that the two most problematic areas for the participants are revealed in their responses to questions (4&6), i.e. (1) producing the correct pronunciation, word stress or intonation patterns and (2) finding the suitable or accurate lexis, word collocations or expressions while speaking or conversing in English, as approximately 59% of the participants revealed that they face such challenges either "often" or "sometimes" in each of the two areas, whereas 41% of them say that they "occasionally" or "rarely" encounter such problems in each area. Similarly, 55% of the participants reveal that they "often" or "sometimes" encounter challenges in using the correct structure or tense in contrast to (45%) who state that they "occasionally" or "rarely" struggle in this area. To conclude, our results resonate with Kormos' (2006; 140) argument that "a great proportion of the problems speakers encounter during speech production are lexis related". Similarly, investigating English major students' speaking problems at the University of Birsk, Shteiwi & Hamuda (2016) found out that 55% of the participants face challenges in using word collocations either "usually" or "sometimes", 66% of the participants struggle in retrieving the suitable lexis either "usually" or "sometimes" and 18% of the participants face problems related to sentence structure and grammar while speaking. Equally, Alyan's (2013) findings revealed that pronunciation and limited lexical knowledge constitute an obstacle for English major students at the Islamic University of Gaza while speaking and communicating in English.

In addition, investigating the results of the questions (7-9), we find out that 55% of the participants have evaluated their interpersonal skills to run conversations and talk about various general topics in English to be "very good" in question (7). However, this percentage decreases sharply by 17% in the following question as only around 38% of them assess their actional competence in using the English language for various communicative functions to be "very good" when answering question (8). At the same time, the percentage of "average" speakers rapidly increases from (38%) in question (7) to approximately (45%) in question (8). Similarly, the overall percentages of "very good" and "average" speakers are further decreasing into roughly (35%) and (38%) respectively in question (9), which investigates the participants' oral discursive competence to use English in various contexts. Thus, we conclude that besides the need to foster their linguistic competence, English major students are still in need to develop their actional and discourse competences in English as a FL as Canale & Swain (1980) and Celca-Murcia et al. (1995) have pointed out (see our discussion in part (2);(2.2.1.)).

4.2. Results of the Questions Investigating L1 Influence (the second objective)

<p>Quest. (10)</p>	<p>How often do you feel that your words' choice, expressions, or phrase/clause structures don't sound like native speakers of English (i.e., they rather sound translated from Spanish/ your native language) ?</p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Frequency</th> <th>Percentage</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>Usually (90%)</td> <td>3.4%</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Often (70-80%)</td> <td>27.6%</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Sometimes (50-60%)</td> <td>44.8%</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Occasionally (30%)</td> <td>17.2%</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Rarely (5-10%)</td> <td>6.9%</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Frequency	Percentage	Usually (90%)	3.4%	Often (70-80%)	27.6%	Sometimes (50-60%)	44.8%	Occasionally (30%)	17.2%	Rarely (5-10%)	6.9%
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<p>Quest. (11)</p>	<p>How often do you feel that your pronunciation, words stress, or intonation patterns sound Spanish/ similar to your native language?</p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Frequency</th> <th>Percentage</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>Usually (90%)</td> <td>6.9%</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Often (70-80%)</td> <td>27.6%</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Sometimes (50-60%)</td> <td>31%</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Occasionally (30%)</td> <td>17.2%</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Rarely (5-10%)</td> <td>17.2%</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Frequency	Percentage	Usually (90%)	6.9%	Often (70-80%)	27.6%	Sometimes (50-60%)	31%	Occasionally (30%)	17.2%	Rarely (5-10%)	17.2%
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Rarely (5-10%)	17.2%												



4.2.1 Discussion of the Results related to L1 Influence

Looking at the results of the questions (10-12) investigating the effects of the participants' first language (L1) on their speaking abilities, we find out that the influence of the L1 is relatively high as around 72% of the participants declare that they either "often" or "sometimes" feel that their words' choice, collocations, expressions or phrase/clause structures seem to be Spanish/ similar to their native language. In fact, this result resonates with Pawly & Syder's (1983) study addressing the challenge of what they call "native-like selection" for FL speakers. In addition, responding to question (11), around 59% of the participants say that feel that their pronunciation, words stress or intonation patterns sound rather Spanish/ like their mother tongue either "often" or "sometimes". Similarly, this result partially resonates with Clavo Benzie's (2013) findings which revealed the negative influence of Spanish language as a (L1) on English

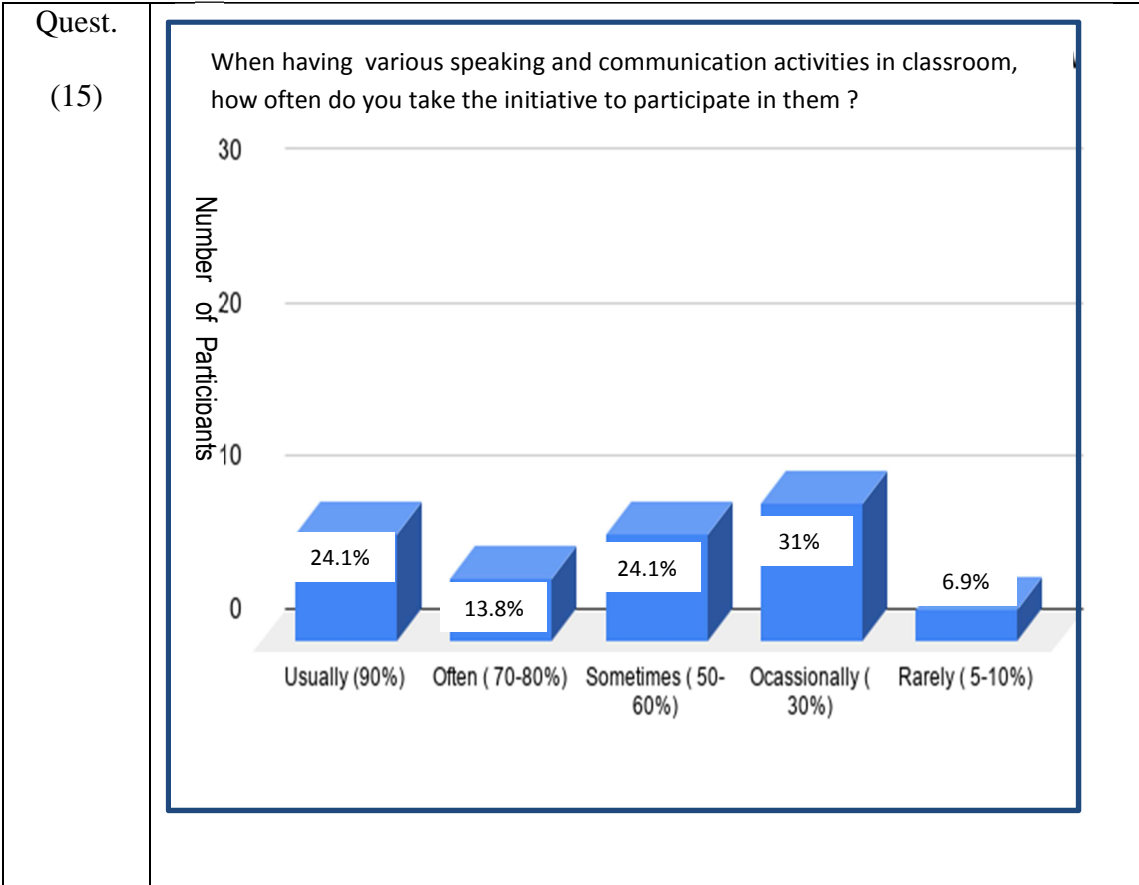
major students' pronunciation of four English vowel sounds (i.e., schwa /ə/, /ɚ/, /a:/, /ɔ:/) at the University of Santiago de Compostela. Equally, responding to question (12), approximately 59% of the participants reveal that ideas, words, phrases and clauses keep flowing into their minds in Spanish/ their mother tongue first "often" while speaking or interacting in English. This result indicates that the participants have high activation of their L1 in the conceptualization and formulation processes of speech production and that they are probably still thinking in their L1, which may account for their revealed phonological and syntactic problems influenced by their L1 while speaking. In this regard, Kormos (2006) points out that L1 influence is predominant among bilingual speakers who don't possess a high level of proficiency in a L2; thus, they may activate their stored L1 phonological and syntactic information to be mapped on L2 items (see our discussion in part (2); section (2.1.3)). Furthermore, this revealed co-activation of L1 and L2 while speaking in L2 could also indicate that the majority of the participants lack fluency while speaking in English as the findings of Bergmann's et al. (2015) study showed (see our discussion in part (2); section (2.3.5)).

Similarly, analyzing the individual responses of non-Spanish native speakers, we find out that (L1) still has negative influence on the phonological, lexical and syntactic aspects of their speech production (i.e., their pronunciation, words stress, intonation patterns, words choice, expressions, collocations, phrase structure and sentence structure). Like Spanish natives, most of them declare that ideas, expressions, phrases and clauses keep popping into their minds in their (L1) first while speaking or conversing in English. Thus, we conclude that the participants' (L1), whether Spanish or otherwise, negatively influences their speaking in English.

4.3. Results of the Questions Investigating the Effectiveness of Classroom Activities

(the third objective)

<p>Quest. (13)</p>	<p>Looking back at oral classroom activities (e.g., discussions, debate, role plays, oral presentations, practical tasks, etc.) which you were involved in throughout your undergraduate study, they have improved your speaking and communication by ...</p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Improvement Category</th> <th>Percentage</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>(90%)</td> <td>3.4%</td> </tr> <tr> <td>(70-80%)</td> <td>27.6%</td> </tr> <tr> <td>(60-70%)</td> <td>13.8%</td> </tr> <tr> <td>(50-60%)</td> <td>41.4%</td> </tr> <tr> <td>(30-40%)</td> <td>13.8%</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Improvement Category	Percentage	(90%)	3.4%	(70-80%)	27.6%	(60-70%)	13.8%	(50-60%)	41.4%	(30-40%)	13.8%
Improvement Category	Percentage												
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(50-60%)	41.4%												
(30-40%)	13.8%												
<p>Quest. (14)</p>	<p>How often do your teachers carry out such classroom speaking activities/ tasks throughout different academic courses?</p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Frequency</th> <th>Percentage</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>Usually (90%)</td> <td>6.9%</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Often (70-80%)</td> <td>34.5%</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Sometimes (50-60%)</td> <td>31%</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Occasionally (30%)</td> <td>27.6%</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Frequency	Percentage	Usually (90%)	6.9%	Often (70-80%)	34.5%	Sometimes (50-60%)	31%	Occasionally (30%)	27.6%		
Frequency	Percentage												
Usually (90%)	6.9%												
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Occasionally (30%)	27.6%												



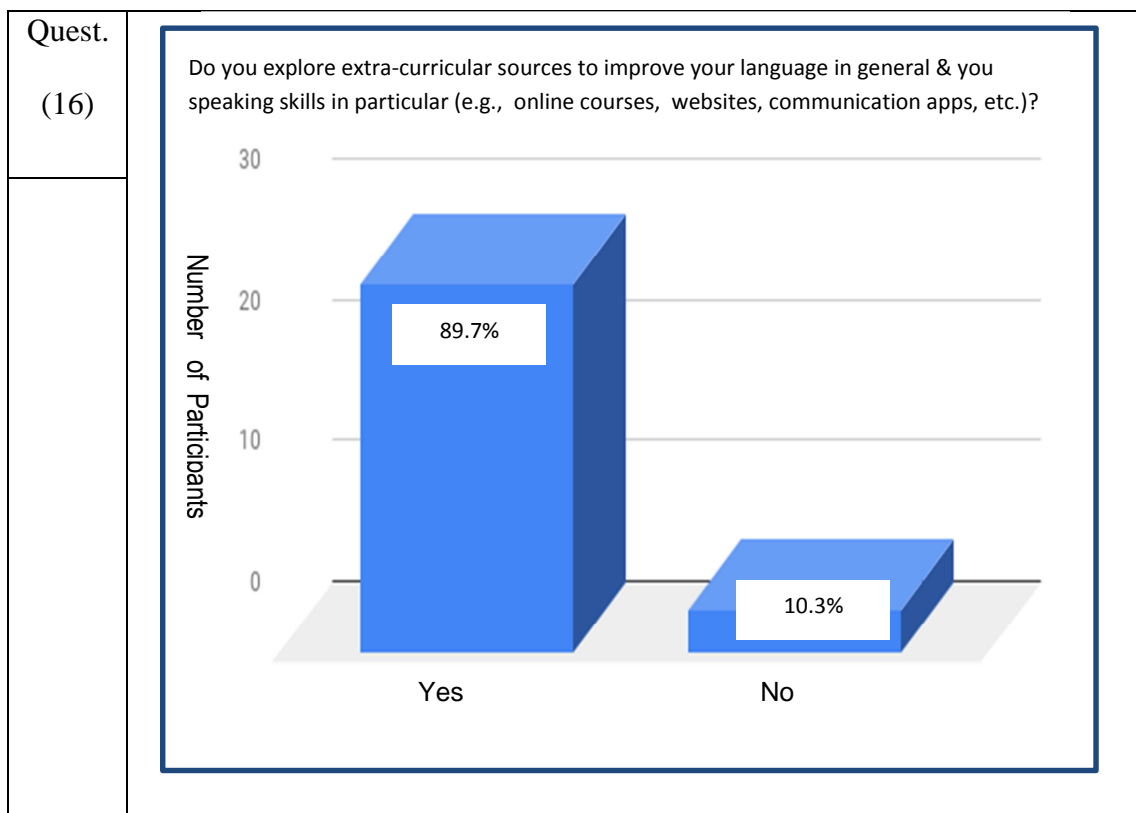
4.3.1. Discussion of the Results related to the Effectiveness of Classroom

Activities

On the one hand, assessing the effectiveness of classroom activities, the majority of the participants (41%) state that classroom activities organized throughout different academic courses have improved their speaking and oral communication by roughly "50-60%" followed by 28% stating that they have improved their oral abilities by "70-80%". In addition, a total of 41% state that ,throughout their undergraduate study, their teachers have organized a variety of oral classroom activates either "usually" or "often" in contrast to a total of 59% saying that their teachers have done so either "sometimes" or "occasionally". Accordingly, we deduce that oral classroom activities and tasks aren't frequently carried out as to improve students' speaking and oral communication skills. On the other hand, merely around 38% of the participants say that they "usually" or

"often" take the initiative and participate in different oral classroom activities, whereas a total of 62% of them reveal that they "sometimes", "occasionally" or "rarely" participate in such activities. To sum up, we conclude that speaking classroom activities and tasks are not sufficiently carried out. Thus, it is recommended that teachers organize more oral activities as an integral part of the content and assessment of different academic courses as we discussed before (for more suggestions, see part (2); section (2.3.2)).

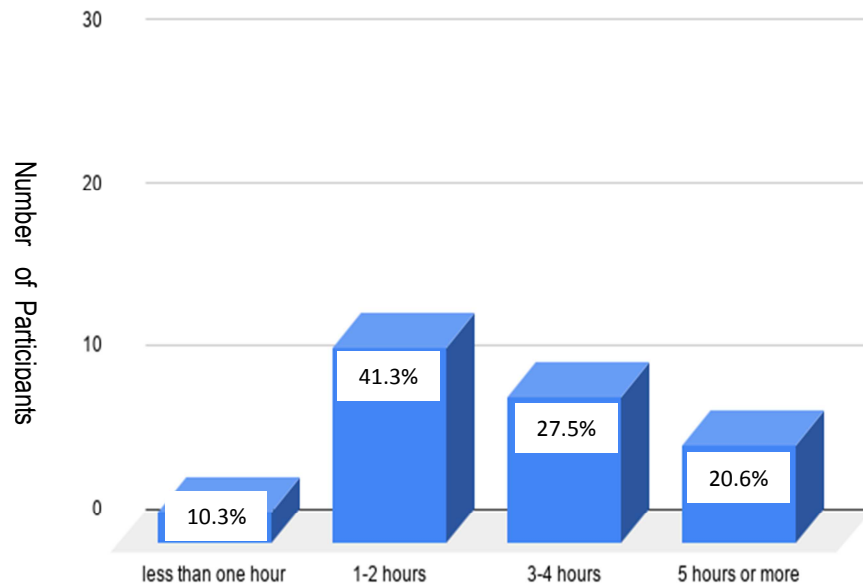
4.4. Results of the Questions Investigating Learners' Language Contact outside their Classrooms (the fourth objective):



Quest.

(17)

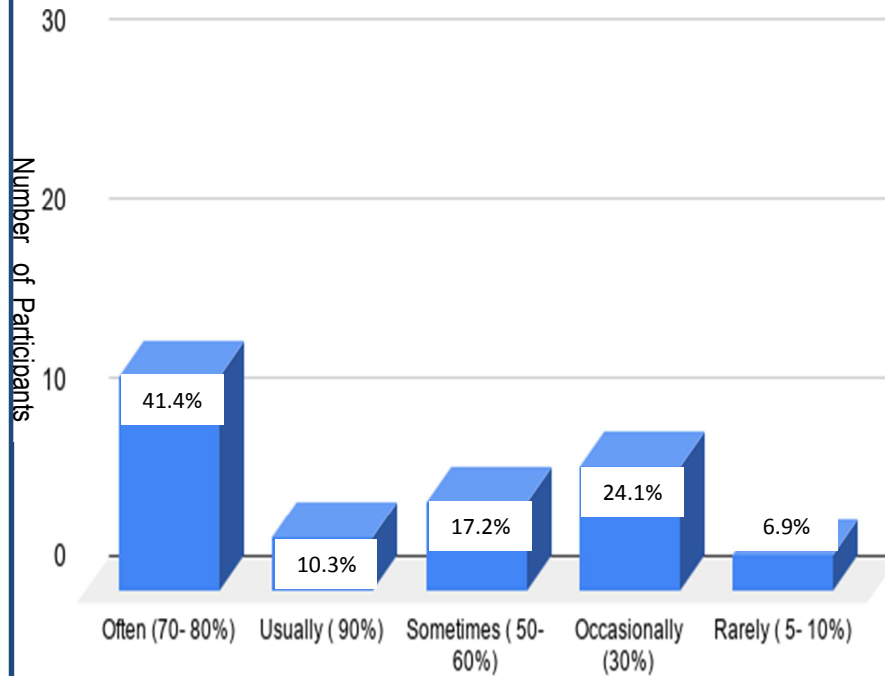
If you said yes, how much time do you spend per week learning from these resources to develop your language & speaking skills?



Quest.

(18)

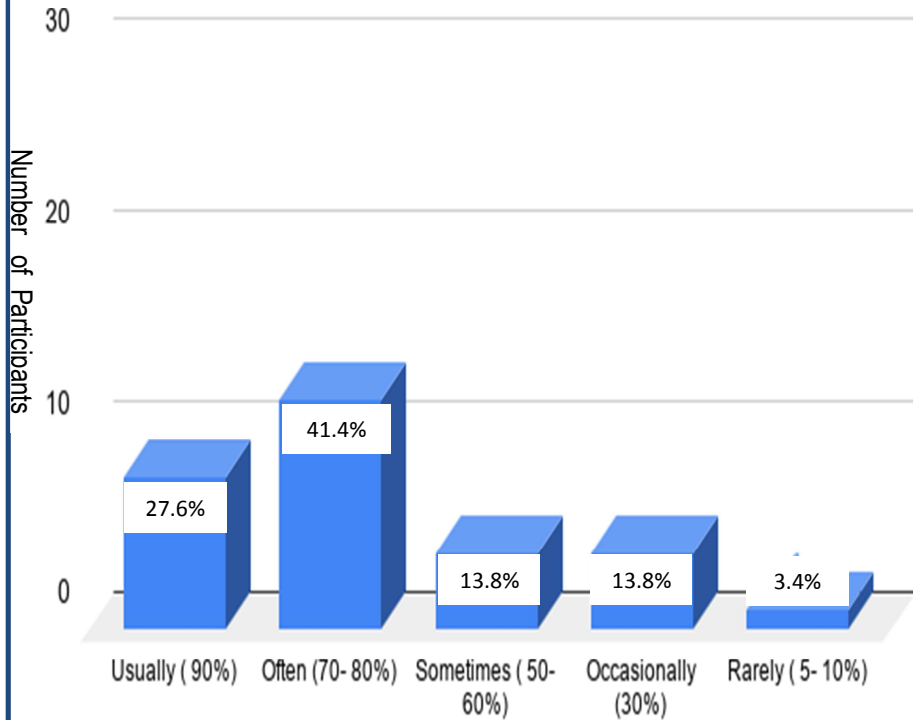
How often do you practice thinking in English (e.g., talking to yourself, planning your daily to-do list, taking decisions, etc.) outside your classroom context?



Quest.

(19)

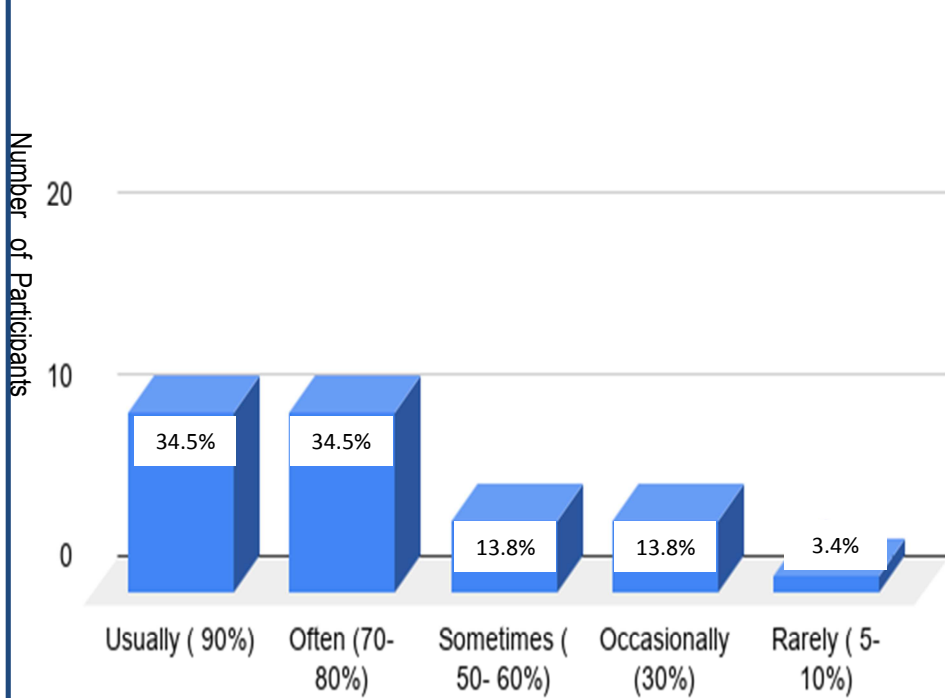
How often do you practice listening to authentic English materials beyond your classroom time (e.g., podcasts, news, radio, audiobooks, T.V. shows)?



Quest.

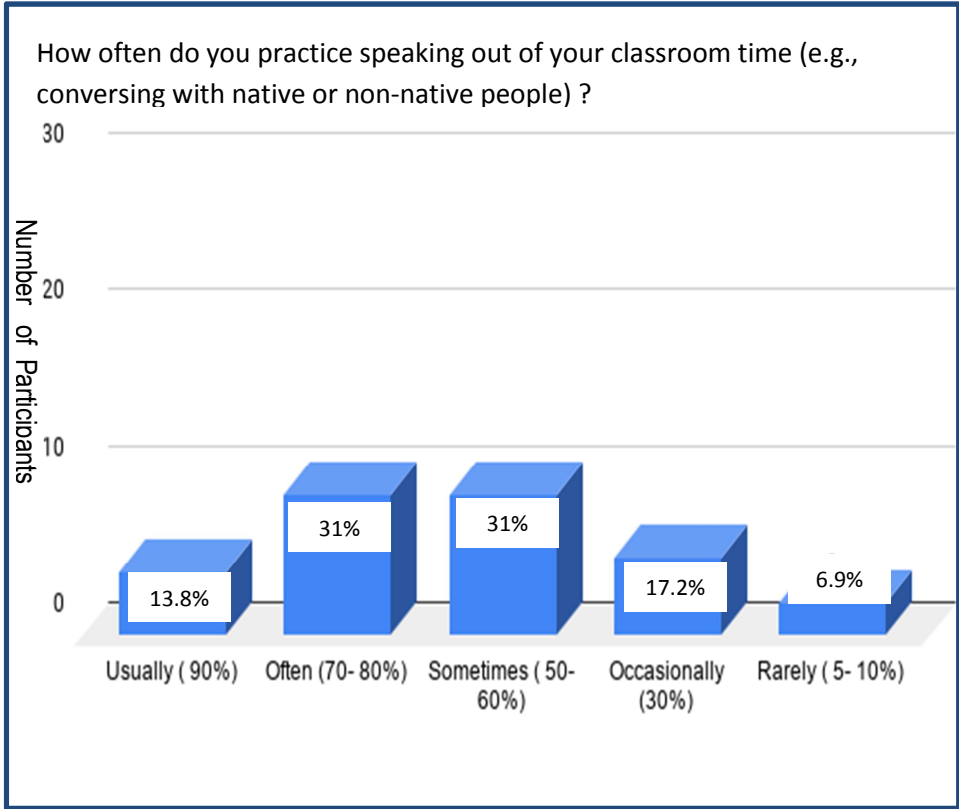
(20)

How often do you practice reading authentic English materials outside your classroom context (e.g., reading different books, news articles, scientific articles, short stories, etc.)?



Quest.

(21)



4.4.1. Discussion of the Results related to the Participants' Language Contact

Out of Classroom time

Surprisingly, looking at the participants responses to the questions (16-21), we notice that around 90% of them say that they do explore extra-curricular resources to develop their English language in general and speaking skills in particular. However, when asked about the amount of time they usually spend to learn from such resources per week, the majority of the participants (41.3%) state that they only spend from 1-2 hours on self-learning weekly, which equals merely seventeen minutes per day. On the other hand, only 28% of the participants reveal that they spend from 3-4 hours learning from other resources weekly (i.e., around thirty-five minutes daily) while 21% of them say that they spend five hours or more leaning from these resources (i.e., around forty-three minutes daily). Thus, we conclude that although the majority of the participants access

extra-curricular resources to develop their language and speaking skills, most of them do not dedicate sufficient amount of time to learn autonomously from these resources.

Similarly, generally speaking, a total percentage of 52% of the participants say that they practice "thinking" in English outside their classrooms either "often" or "usually", 69% of them reveal that they practice "reading" in English either "often" or "usually", 69% state that they practice "listening" to English materials either "often" or "usually" and approximately 45% of them say that they practice "speaking" either "often" or "usually". Nevertheless, after analyzing the responses of each individual participant, we find out that only around (27%) of them state that they do the following altogether: (1) explore extra-curricular resources to develop their speaking skills either "usually" or "often"; (2) spend either "3-4 hours" or "5 hours or more" weekly learning from extra-curricular language resources; (3) practice thinking, listening, reading and speaking in English either "usually" or "often" outside their classrooms. Interestingly, we also find out that those exact participants, except one, are seemingly the only proficient speakers of all the participants, according to our analysis of their individual responses to questions (4-12) which investigate L2 learners problems in speaking and oral communication (see appendix 3). Thus, we conclude that there is a high correlation between oral communicative competence and learners' development of an effective language contact through extensive reading and listening in English, practice of speaking and thinking in English and accessing extra-curricular resources of language learning out of their classroom time. These results resonate with Oye's et al. (2009) findings which investigated the influence of English language contact outside classroom context on the speaking proficiency of Japanese learners of English. Oye's et al. (2009) results have shown that the participants' amount of time spent on practicing reading, listening to audio materials/music and speaking with native or non-native speakers of

English correlates positively with their oral performance (including fluency, accuracy, complexity and global impression). In addition, Alyan' (2013) emphasized on the role of extensive exposure to English language through reading, listening and exploring different sources to learn the language on developing English major students' oral communication skills at the Islamic university of Gaza.

Part (5)

5.1. Pedagogical Implications

Based on the findings of our study and some other relevant studies discussed previously, a number of pedagogical implications for EFL teaching practices and learning techniques can be deduced for both teachers and learners.

On the one hand, teachers are recommended to

1- Integrate a wealth of purposeful oral communicative classroom activities and tasks, which provide learners with time and opportunity to develop their speaking and oral communication skills, problem solving skills and critical thinking. Such activities and tasks should be an essential part of the assessment criteria in all courses and should include various forms (e.g., discussions, debates, interviews, informative and persuasive oral presentations, speech delivering, role playing, drama and acting, creative storytelling, etc.).

2- Organize real life-like activities and tasks which aims at:

- Fostering students' involvement in classroom activities and improving their overall speaking and communication skills.
- Developing students' linguistic and functional competences as they learn how to communicate effectively for different purposes, how to make use of the language resources at their disposal and how to expand their linguistic repertoire.
- Developing students' discourse competence through a wide-range of activities which enable learners to use an appropriate language registers according to a given context (e.g., having a job interview, delivering a speech on special occasion, being hosted on a radio/T.V. show, making an oral proposal, etc.).

3- Guide and encourage students to take responsibility of their own learning process and to make use of various extra-curricular sources (e.g., websites, books, journals, applications, etc.) to enrich and develop their language skills, especially their speaking skills.

4- Organize more extra-curricular activities, workshops and events which can maximize students' communication and collaboration, such as creating speaking clubs, reading clubs and acting clubs; and organizing study-days, academic forums and conferences.

On the other hand, students of English philology and literature and EFL learners, in general, are advised to

1- Take the responsibility of their own learning and develop an effective language contact outside their classrooms through extensive reading (i.e., reading a wide-range of authentic materials in English, including literary texts, scientific articles, news articles, etc.), conscious listening (i.e., attentive listening to authentic materials produced by native speakers, such as podcasts, T.V. shows, news bulletins, audiobooks, etc.), frequent practice of speaking and oral communication, constant access to extra-curricular sources to language learning, and making meaningful use of technological facilities (e.g., online courses, language apps, communication apps, etc.), which help improving their own oral proficiency and their language in general.

2- Take the initiative to participate and involve in various oral communicative activities, tasks or events whether inside or outside the classroom context. Consequently, they will be able to practice the language, receive feedback, improve their performance, activate and expand their linguistic repertoire, and develop their functional and discourse competences.

3- Do voluntary work during their undergraduate studies for institutions where they can practice and improve their English language, especially their speaking and oral communication skills (e.g., teaching in language centers, providing different customer services in English, providing interpreting services, marketing in English, etc.).

4- Join academic and cultural exchange programs and travel, whether to an English-speaking country or to a non-Spanish speaking country, which will provide them with opportunities to practice and develop their English.

5.2. Study Limitation & Future Research

The findings of our study are limited to students of English philology and literature studying at the University of Almeria, Spain. Thus, we encourage further similar investigations to key speaking problems within the wider context of Spanish universities. In addition, our study has only investigated speaking problems which are related to the language. However, we have not examined challenges arising from other non-linguistic factors, such as the interlocutors' body language, gestures and proximity. Likewise, we haven't investigated challenges caused by some psychological factors, such as anxiety, fear and lack of confidence. For future investigations, we recommend that the impact of various areas such as pronunciation, word choice and limited lexical repertoire, learners' L1, etc. on learners' speaking and oral communication be investigated more independently and thoroughly. Also, we recommend that researchers examine the effects of other aspects, such as body language and gestures, psychological factors, gender and age on FL learners' speaking and oral communication.

5.3. Conclusions

To conclude, students of English philology and literature should be prepared to compete in the national and international labor market and to provide quality learning to future generations, as future language teachers. Thus, it is essential that they fully manifest oral proficiency in English. The main objective of our study was to investigate speaking and oral communication problems facing students of English philology and literature at the University of Almeria, Spain. Thus, the main data gathering tool of this study was a questionnaire of (21) items filled by (29) English major senior students at the University of Almeria. Moreover, the following four main hypotheses guided our investigation, which were elaborated in the beginning of the study (see part (1); section (1.4.)).

- 1- English major students' incomplete oral communicative competence negatively impacts their speaking and oral communication abilities in English.
- 2- English major students' first language (L1) negatively influences their speaking and oral interactions in English.
- 3- Classroom activities conducted throughout different academic courses effectively develop English major students' speaking and oral communication abilities.
- 4- English major students develop an effective language contact with English outside their classrooms.

Therefore, taking into consideration the abovementioned hypotheses and the obtained results (see part four), we induce the following conclusions:

First, the results show that English major students need to develop their oral communicative competence on the linguistic, functional and discourse levels as they still face challenges in using English for different communicative purposes and in various contexts. In addition, some of them still struggle in producing the correct pronunciation, word stress, and intonation patterns; retrieving the suitable/accurate lexis; constructing correct and meaningful sentence; and using an appropriate tense while speaking or communicating in English. Accordingly, we accept our first hypothesis.

Second, the results reveal that first language (L1) has negative influence on English major students' spoken production which manifests in their pronunciation, word stress and intonation patterns; their choice of lexis and expressions; their phrases and sentences structure; and their conceptualization and formulation of messages. Thus, we confirm our second hypothesis.

Third, the results show that speaking classroom activities organized throughout different academic courses don't effectively develop students' speaking and communication performance. At the same time, it's worth to mention that students show poor participation in the conducted speaking activities. Therefore, we reject our third hypothesis.

Finally, the results indicate that English major students don't develop an effective language contact outside their classrooms through extensive reading to authentic material in English, conscious listening to authentic materials produced by native speakers, frequent practice of speaking and thinking in English, and constant access to extra-curricular resources to language learning. Thus, we reject our fourth hypothesis.

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Appendix (1)

Questionnaire

1- Is Spanish your native language?

-Yes

-No

2-What's your gender?

-Male

-Female

3- Do you face difficulties in speaking or communicating in English for different purposes and in various contexts?

-Yes

- No

4- How often do you encounter challenges related to pronunciation, word stress or intonation patterns while speaking in English?

- Usually (90%)

- Often (70- 80%)

- Sometimes (50- 60%)

-Occasionally (30%)

- Rarely (5- 10%)

5- How often do you encounter challenges in constructing correct structures or using appropriate tenses while speaking in English?

- Usually (90%)

- Often (70- 80%)

- Sometimes (50- 60%)

-Occasionally (30%)

- Rarely (5- 10%)

6- How often do you encounter challenges in finding/ retrieving the specific /suitable lexis, word collocations or expressions while speaking in English?

- Usually (90%)
- Often (70- 80%)
- Sometimes (50- 60%)
- Occasionally (30%)
- Rarely (5- 10%)

7- Assessing your ability to run conversations and speak about various general topics in English (e.g., politics, news, health issues, lifestyle, cultures, beliefs, etc.), how would you evaluate yourself?

- Excellent (90- 100%)
- Very good (70- 80%)
- Average (50- 60%)
- Below average (20- 40%)

8- Assessing your abilities to (1) ask for & give information (2) communicate in English for various purposes (e.g., to debate, agree & disagree, express your feelings, advice & warn, complain & criticize, apologize & forgive, talk about hopes & wishes, talk about future hopes & plans, etc.), how would you evaluate yourself?

- Excellent (90- 100%)
- Very good (70- 80%)
- Average (50- 60%)
- Below average (20- 40%)

9- Assessing your abilities to speak in English in various professional and academic contexts (e.g., having a job interview with native speakers or delivering an emotional speech to them), how would you evaluate yourself ?

- Excellent (90- 100%)
- Very good (70- 80%)
- Average (50- 60%)
- Below average (20- 40%)

10- How often do you feel that your words choice, expressions, or sentence structures don't sound like native speakers of English (i.e., they rather sound translated from Spanish/ your native language) ?

- Usually (90%)
- Often (70- 80%)
- Sometimes (50- 60%)
- Occasionally (30%)
- Rarely (5- 10%)

11- How often do you feel that your pronunciation, words stress, or intonation patterns sound Spanish/ similar to your native language?

- Usually (90%)
- Often (70- 80%)
- Sometimes (50- 60%)
- Occasionally (30%)
- Rarely (5- 10%)

12- While speaking or having a conversation in English, how often do ideas, expressions, phrases and clauses keep popping in your mind in Spanish/ your mother language?

- Usually (90%)
- Often (70- 80%)
- Sometimes (50- 60%)
- Occasionally (30%)
- Rarely (5- 10%)

13- Looking back at oral classroom activities (e.g., discussions, debate, role plays, oral presentations, practical tasks, etc.) which you were involved in throughout your undergraduate studies, they have improved your speaking and communication by ...

- (90%)
- (70-80%)
- (60- 70%)
- (50-60%)
- (30-40%)

14- How often do your teachers carry out classroom speaking activities/ tasks throughout different academic courses?

- Usually (90%)
- Often (70- 80%)
- Sometimes (50- 60%)
- Occasionally (30%)

15- When having various speaking and communication activities in classroom, how often do you take the initiative to participate in them ?

- Usually (90%)
- Often (70- 80%)
- Sometimes (50- 60%)
- Occasionally (30%)

16- Do you explore extra-curricular sources to improve your speaking skills (e.g., online courses, websites, communication apps, etc.)?

- Yes
- No

17- If you said yes, How much time do you spend learning from these resources per week?

- Less than one hour
- 1-2 hours
- 3-4 hours
- 5 hours or more

Outside your classroom, ...

18- How often do you practice thinking in English (e.g., talking to yourself, planning your daily to-do list, taking decisions, etc.)?

- Usually (90%)
- Often (70- 80%)
- Sometimes (50- 60%)
- Occasionally (30%)
- Rarely (5- 10%)

19- How often do you practice listening to authentic English materials (e.g., podcasts, news, radio, audiobooks, T.V. shows)?

- Usually (90%)
- Often (70- 80%)
- Sometimes (50- 60%)
- Occasionally (30%)
- Rarely (5- 10%)

20- How often do you practice reading authentic English materials (e.g., reading different books, news articles, scientific articles, short stories, etc.)?

- Usually (90%)
- Often (70- 80%)
- Sometimes (50- 60%)
- Occasionally (30%)
- Rarely (5- 10%)

21- How often do you practice speaking out of your classroom time (e.g., conversing with native or non-native people) ?

- Usually (90%)
- Often (70- 80%)
- Sometimes (50- 60%)
- Occasionally (30%)

- Rarely (5- 10%)

Appendix (2)

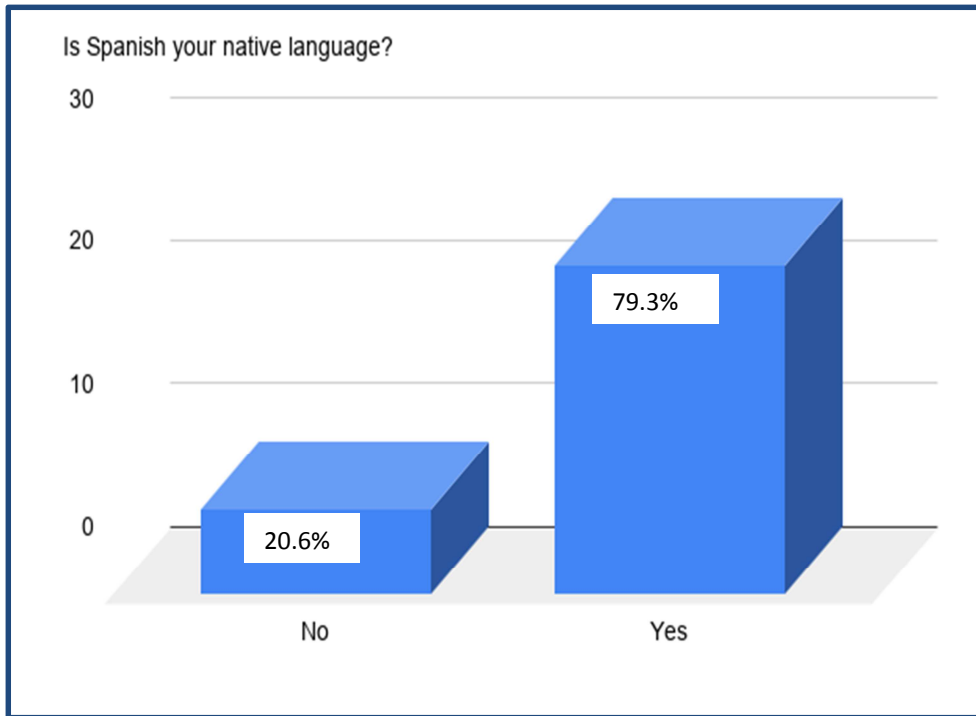


Figure (1)

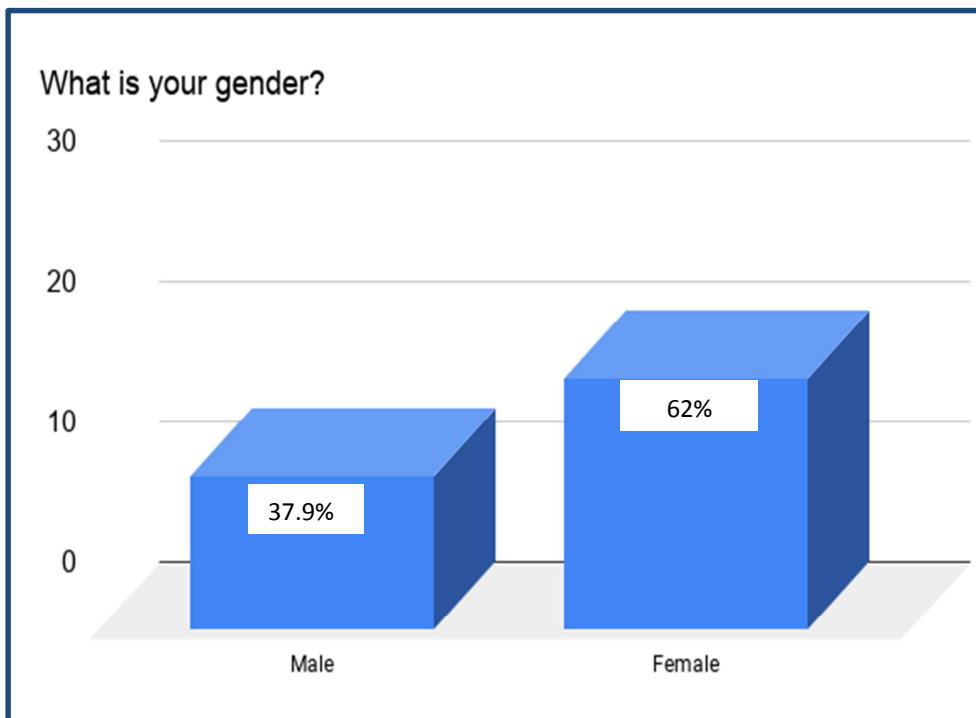


Figure (2)

Appendix (3)

Quest. (1)	Quest. (2)	Quest. (3)	Quest. (4)	Quest. (5)	Quest. (6)
No	Male	No	Occasionally (30%)	Occasionally (30%)	Occasionally (30%)
Yes	Male	No	Rarely (5- 10%)	Rarely (5- 10%)	Occasionally (30%)
Yes	Male	No	Occasionally (30%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)
Yes	Female	No	Occasionally (30%)	Rarely (5- 10%)	Rarely (5- 10%)
Yes	Female	No	Rarely (5- 10%)	Rarely (5- 10%)	Rarely (5- 10%)
Yes	Female	Yes	Often (70- 80%)	Often (70- 80%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)
Yes	Female	Yes	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)
No	Female	Yes	Occasionally (30%)	Rarely (5- 10%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)
Yes	Female	Yes	Often (70- 80%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)
Yes	Female	Yes	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)
No	Female	Yes	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Occasionally (30%)
No	Male	Yes	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Occasionally (30%)	Occasionally (30%)
No	Female	Yes	Occasionally (30%)	Occasionally (30%)	Occasionally (30%)
Yes	Female	No	Occasionally (30%)	Occasionally (30%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)
No	Female	Yes	Rarely (5- 10%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Rarely (5- 10%)
Yes	Male	Yes	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Often (70- 80%)
Yes	Female	No	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)
Yes	Female	No	Often (70- 80%)	Often (70- 80%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)
Yes	Female	Yes	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Occasionally (30%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)
Yes	Female	Yes	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Occasionally (30%)	Occasionally (30%)
Yes	Female	Yes	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)
Yes	Female	No	Occasionally (30%)	Rarely (5- 10%)	Occasionally (30%)
Yes	Male	No	Occasionally (30%)	Rarely (5- 10%)	Occasionally (30%)
Yes	Male	No	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Rarely (5- 10%)	Occasionally (30%)
Yes	Male	Yes	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Often (70- 80%)	Often (70- 80%)
Yes	Female	Yes	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Often (70- 80%)
Yes	Male	Yes	Often (70- 80%)	Often (70- 80%)	Often (70- 80%)
Yes	Male	Yes	Occasionally (30%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)

Quest. (7)	Quest. (8)	Ques. (9)
Very good (70- 80%)	Very good (70- 80%)	Very good (70- 80%)
Very good (70- 80%)	Very good (70- 80%)	Average (50- 60%)
Very good (70- 80%)	Very good (70- 80%)	Excellent (90- 95%)
Very good (70- 80%)	Excellent (90- 95%)	Excellent (90- 95%)
Very good (70- 80%)	Excellent (90- 95%)	Very good (70- 80%)
Very good (70- 80%)	Average (50- 60%)	Very good (70- 80%)
Average (50- 60%)	Very good (70- 80%)	Average (50- 60%)
Average (50- 60%)	Average (50- 60%)	Below average (20- 40%)
Average (50- 60%)	Average (50- 60%)	Average (50- 60%)
Average (50- 60%)	Average (50- 60%)	Average (50- 60%)
Very good (70- 80%)	Very good (70- 80%)	Average (50- 60%)
Average (50- 60%)	Average (50- 60%)	Average (50- 60%)
Very good (70- 80%)	Very good (70- 80%)	Very good (70- 80%)
Below average (20- 40%)	Average (50- 60%)	Below average (20- 40%)
Very good (70- 80%)	Very good (70- 80%)	Very good (70- 80%)
Very good (70- 80%)	Average (50- 60%)	Very good (70- 80%)
Average (50- 60%)	Average (50- 60%)	Below average (20- 40%)
Very good (70- 80%)	Average (50- 60%)	Very good (70- 80%)
Very good (70- 80%)	Excellent (90- 95%)	Average (50- 60%)
Average (50- 60%)	Average (50- 60%)	Average (50- 60%)
Average (50- 60%)	Average (50- 60%)	Average (50- 60%)
Very good (70- 80%)	Very good (70- 80%)	Very good (70- 80%)
Very good (70- 80%)	Very good (70- 80%)	Very good (70- 80%)
Very good (70- 80%)	Very good (70- 80%)	Average (50- 60%)
Excellent (90- 95%)	Excellent (90- 95%)	Excellent (90- 95%)
Very good (70- 80%)	Very good (70- 80%)	Very good (70- 80%)
Average (50- 60%)	Below average (20- 40%)	Below average (20- 40%)
Average (50- 60%)	Average (50- 60%)	Below average (20- 40%)
Average (50- 60%)	Average (50- 60%)	Average (50- 60%)

Quest. (10)	Quest. (11)	Quest. (12)
Sometimes (50- 60%)	Rarely (5- 10%)	Occasionally (30%)
Occasionally (30%)	Occasionally (30%)	Rarely (5- 10%)
Sometimes (50- 60%)	Rarely (5- 10%)	Occasionally (30%)
Rarely (5- 10%)	Often (70- 80%)	Rarely (5- 10%)
Rarely (5- 10%)	Rarely (5- 10%)	Rarely (5- 10%)
Often (70- 80%)	Often (70- 80%)	Usually (90%)
Sometimes (50- 60%)	Occasionally (30%)	Usually (90%)
Sometimes (50- 60%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Often (70- 80%)
Sometimes (50- 60%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)
Sometimes (50- 60%)	Usually (90%)	Often (70- 80%)
Usually (90%)	Often (70- 80%)	Often (70- 80%)
Occasionally (30%)	Occasionally (30%)	Often (70- 80%)
Often (70- 80%)	Usually (90%)	Rarely (5- 10%)
Sometimes (50- 60%)	Often (70- 80%)	Usually (90%)
Sometimes (50- 60%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Often (70- 80%)
Occasionally (30%)	Often (70- 80%)	Often (70- 80%)
Often (70- 80%)	Often (70- 80%)	Often (70- 80%)
Often (70- 80%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Often (70- 80%)
Sometimes (50- 60%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Often (70- 80%)
Sometimes (50- 60%)	Occasionally (30%)	Often (70- 80%)
Often (70- 80%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)
Sometimes (50- 60%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Often (70- 80%)
Occasionally (30%)	Rarely (5- 10%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)
Sometimes (50- 60%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Rarely (5- 10%)
Occasionally (30%)	Rarely (5- 10%)	Rarely (5- 10%)
Often (70- 80%)	Often (70- 80%)	Often (70- 80%)
Often (70- 80%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Often (70- 80%)
Often (70- 80%)	Often (70- 80%)	Often (70- 80%)
Sometimes (50- 60%)	Occasionally (30%)	Occasionally (30%)

Quest. (13)	Quest. (14)	Quest. (15)
(70-80%)	Often (70- 80%)	Often (70-80%)
(70-80%)	Often (70- 80%)	Ocassionally (30%)
(70-80%)	Often (70- 80%)	Sometimes (50-60%)
(90-100%)	Occasionally (30%)	Usually (90%)
(50-60%)	Usually (90%)	Sometimes (50-60%)
(70-80%)	Often (70- 80%)	Sometimes (50-60%)
(60- 70%)	Occasionally (30%)	Ocassionally (30%)
(60- 70%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Sometimes (50-60%)
(60- 70%)	Often (70- 80%)	Sometimes (50-60%)
(50-60%)	Occasionally (30%)	Rarely (5-10%)
(50-60%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Sometimes (50-60%)
(50-60%)	Occasionally (30%)	Ocassionally (30%)
(30-40%)	Often (70- 80%)	Usually (90%)
(50-60%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Rarely (5-10%)
(60- 70%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Ocassionally (30%)
(70-80%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Often (70-80%)
(50-60%)	Occasionally (30%)	Ocassionally (30%)
(30-40%)	Occasionally (30%)	Ocassionally (30%)
(50-60%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Ocassionally (30%)
(50-60%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Usually (90%)
(70-80%)	Occasionally (30%)	Ocassionally (30%)
(70-80%)	Often (70- 80%)	Often (70-80%)
(50-60%)	Often (70- 80%)	Usually (90%)
(50-60%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Usually (90%)
(30-40%)	Usually (90%)	Usually (90%)
(70-80%)	Often (70- 80%)	Often (70-80%)
(50-60%)	Often (70- 80%)	Sometimes (50-60%)
(50-60%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Ocassionally (30%)
(30-40%)	Occasionally (30%)	Usually (90%)

Quest. (16)	Quest. (17)	Quest. (18)
Yes	5 hours or more	Often (70- 80%)
Yes	3-4 hours	Often (70- 80%)
Yes	3-4 hours	Occasionally (30%)
Yes	3-4 hours	Usually (90%)
Yes	5 hours or more	Often (70- 80%)
Yes	5 hours or more	Sometimes (50- 60%)
Yes	3-4 hours	Sometimes (50- 60%)
Yes	1-2 hours	Occasionally (30%)
Yes	5 hours or more	Usually (90%)
Yes	1-2 hours	Occasionally (30%)
Yes	1-2 hours	Sometimes (50- 60%)
Yes	1-2 hours	Sometimes (50- 60%)
Yes	3-4 hours	Often (70- 80%)
No	less than one hour	Rarely (5- 10%)
Yes	1-2 hours	Occasionally (30%)
Yes	3-4 hours	Often (70- 80%)
Yes	1-2 hours	Occasionally (30%)
Yes	3-4 hours	Often (70- 80%)
No	1-2 hours	Often (70- 80%)
Yes	less than one hour	Sometimes (50- 60%)
Yes	1-2 hours	Often (70- 80%)
Yes	1-2 hours	Often (70- 80%)
Yes	3-4 hours	Often (70- 80%)
Yes	1-2 hours	Rarely (5- 10%)
Yes	5 hours or more	Usually (90%)
Yes	1-2 hours	Often (70- 80%)
Yes	1-2 hours	Occasionally (30%)
No	less than one hour	Occasionally (30%)
Yes	5 hours or more	Often (70- 80%)

Quest. (19)	Quest. (20)	Quest. (21)
Often (70- 80%)	Usually (90%)	Often (70- 80%)
Often (70- 80%)	Usually (90%)	Occasionally (30%)
Usually (90%)	Usually (90%)	Often (70- 80%)
Usually (90%)	Often (70- 80%)	Usually (90%)
Often (70- 80%)	Often (70- 80%)	Often (70- 80%)
Often (70- 80%)	Often (70- 80%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)
Often (70- 80%)	Usually (90%)	Often (70- 80%)
Occasionally (30%)	Occasionally (30%)	Occasionally (30%)
Usually (90%)	Often (70- 80%)	Usually (90%)
Often (70- 80%)	Occasionally (30%)	Rarely (5- 10%)
Usually (90%)	Usually (90%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)
Occasionally (30%)	Occasionally (30%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)
Often (70- 80%)	Often (70- 80%)	Often (70- 80%)
Rarely (5- 10%)	Rarely (5- 10%)	Rarely (5- 10%)
Often (70- 80%)	Often (70- 80%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)
Usually (90%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Often (70- 80%)
Occasionally (30%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Occasionally (30%)
Sometimes (50- 60%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)
Often (70- 80%)	Usually (90%)	Usually (90%)
Sometimes (50- 60%)	Often (70- 80%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)
Often (70- 80%)	Usually (90%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)
Sometimes (50- 60%)	Often (70- 80%)	Often (70- 80%)
Often (70- 80%)	Usually (90%)	Often (70- 80%)
Usually (90%)	Often (70- 80%)	Occasionally (30%)
Usually (90%)	Usually (90%)	Usually (90%)
Often (70- 80%)	Often (70- 80%)	Often (70- 80%)
Occasionally (30%)	Occasionally (30%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)
Sometimes (50- 60%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)	Occasionally (30%)
Usually (90%)	Usually (90%)	Sometimes (50- 60%)