

How to teach speaking for university students

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ARTICLE INFO	ABSTRACT		
Keywords: <i>speech production, conceptualization and formulation, self-monitoring and repair, managing talk.</i>	<i>This paper examines various approaches to teaching speaking to university students. Teaching speaking is very challenging in university, as students often possess a wealth of knowledge and experience that significantly influences their ability and capability in speaking. In speaking, there are some essential things that speakers do, that is; speech production, conceptualization and formulation, articulation, self-monitoring and repair, automaticity, fluency and managing talk. To achieve any degree of fluency, some level of automaticity is necessary. Fluency covers speed, pausing, placement of pauses, and the length of run. Managing talk covers interaction, turn-taking, and paralinguistics. Speakers should possess knowledge of linguistic, psycholinguistic, sociolinguistic, and discourse knowledge, as well as strategic knowledge. This paper concludes that however, speakers sometimes find difficulties, which might be caused by clustering, redundancy, reduced form, performance variables, colloquial language, rate of delivery, stress, rhythm, and intonation, as well as interaction.</i>		
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1. Introduction

Speaking is very important in learning to teach English as one of the foreign languages. Talking about teaching speaking, it is very challenging since in teaching speaking, the teacher does not only teach about English as the target language but he or she also teaches how to use it. It means the teacher trains the students to use English as the target language in daily life, in real communication. It is supported by Harmer (1998:96) saying that speaking activities perform an active rather than a study function. This quotation shows that using English as the target language in communicative activities is very important since the students are expected to be able to use English in communication. Therefore the students are not only taught about grammar or vocabulary, but they are also taught how to apply English as a means of communication. Harmer (1998:66) adds that students need to be exposed to language.

2. Research Methodology

The goal of teaching speaking in university is to develop the students' speaking ability to express ideas in English as the target language both in formal and informal situation. To reach

the objectives of teaching speaking, the teacher has to be able to teach well by using authentic interesting materials, appropriate techniques, and various methods.

3. Findings

Harmer (2005:1) states that in speaking, there are some important things that speakers do, that is; speech production, conceptualization and formulation, articulation, self-monitoring and repair, automaticity, fluency and managing talk. Furthermore, he (2005:1) explains that speaking is so integral to daily life that we often take it for granted. The average person produces tens of thousands of words a day, although some people, like auctioneers or politicians, may produce even more than that. So natural and integral is speaking that we forget how we once struggled to achieve this ability - until, that is, we have to learn how to do it all over again in a foreign language. A similar statement is stated by Shekan in Ellis (2031: 108) saying that speaking is possible because of the way language is represented. Learners can draw on an exemplar-based system in the formulation stage, thereby obtaining quick and easy access to the linguistic means necessary to construct a phonetic plan.

Harmer (2005:2) notes that several points are involved in speaking. The first point to emphasize is that speech production takes place in real time and is therefore essentially linear. Words follow words, and phrases follow phrases. Likewise, at the level of utterance, speech is produced utterance by-utterance, in response to the word-by-word and utterance-by-utterance productions of the person we are talking to (our interlocutor). This contingent nature of speech, whereby each utterance is dependent on a preceding one, accounts for its spontaneity. This is not to say that speech is unplanned, only that the planning time is severely limited.

Harmer (2005:3) explains that the second point involved in speaking is conceptualization and formulation. Conceptualization and formulation cover conceptualization, formulation, discourse script, syntax, topic, comment, and add-on strategy. Harmer (2005:3) adds that at the level of overall discourse, stories have typical structure, or script. At the very least, they have a beginning, a middle, and an end. This is where the specific syntax of each utterance needs to be chosen so that the content of the story is packaged in a way that is consistent with the speaker's intentions. Initially, it means deciding on what elements of utterance will go in what order.

In English, utterances tend to have a two-part structure: the first part is the topic, such as what we are talking about; the second part is the comment, for example, what we want to say about the topic. The topic is typically information that has already been mentioned (given information), while the comment is usually something new. Harmer (2005:4) explains that the grammar of each utterance is also constrained by how much data can be held in working memory at any one time.

One-way speakers can compensate for limited planning time is to use an add-on strategy. This is the chaining together of short phrases and clause-like chunks, which accumulate to form an extended turn. Furthermore, Harmer (2005:4) states that at the formulation stage, the words need to be assigned their pronunciation. This will include not only the individual sounds of the words but the appropriate placement of prominence (stress) and the meaningful use of intonation (pitch direction). Because sentence stress and intonation are

implicated in the way new or important information is signaled, it is likely that choices at this level have been made at the initial 'laying out' stage.

Closely related with the point involved in speaking, Harmer (2005:5) explains that what has been formulated needs to be articulated. Articulation involves the use of the speech organs of speech to produce sounds. A stream of air is produced in the lungs, driven through the vocal cords, and "shaped" by among other things, the position and movement of the tongue, teeth, and lips.

Furthermore, Harmer (2005:5) adds that when these articulatory processes are engaged, continual changes in loudness, pitch direction, tempo, and pausing serve to organize the sounds into meaningful word form and utterances. All this physical work happens/of course, at great speed. It is estimated that proficient speakers produce 15 phonemes a second. Sometimes, in the rush to speak, interference from neighboring words causes a pronunciation slip.

Then, Harmer (2005:6) states that self-monitoring happens concurrently with the stages of conceptualization, formulation, and articulation. A re-think at the planning stage may result in the abandonment of the message altogether, as when someone starts to gossip and then realizes that the subject of the gossip is within hearing distance. Self-monitoring at the formulation stage may result in a slowing down, or a pause, and the subsequent backtracking and rephrasing of an utterance. Self-monitoring of articulation results in the kind of corrections that even fluent speakers have to make when the wrong word pops out or the pronunciation goes awry. Hand in hand with monitoring is the ability to make running repairs, either in response to self-monitoring or to the message conveyed by one's interlocutors. Repair can take the form of an immediate correction.

To achieve any degree of fluency, some level of automaticity is necessary. Harmer (2005:6) states that it allows speakers to focus on their attention on the aspects of the speaking task that immediately requires it, whether it is planning or articulation. At the level of formulation, automaticity is partly achieved through the use of prefabricated chunks. At the discourse level, a degree of automaticity is possible too. Speaking is like any other skill, such as driving or playing a musical instrument: the more practice you get, the more likely it is you will be able to chunk small units into larger ones.

Fluency covers speed, pausing, placement of pauses, and the length of run. Closely related to fluency, Harmer (2005:6) states that speed is a factor, but it is by no means the only- or even the most important-one. Research into listeners' perceptions of a speaker's fluency suggests that pausing is equally important. All speakers pause- they have to, to draw breath. In addition, even proficient speakers need to stop from time to time to allow the formulation of an utterance to catch up with its conceptualization. Harmer (2005:7) adds that another significant factor in the perception of fluency is the length of run, for example, the number of syllables between pauses. The longer the runs, the more fluent the speaker sounds. In order to give at least the illusion of fluency and to compensate for the attentional demands involved in speech production, speakers use a number of 'tricks'- or production strategies. One of them is the ability to disguise pauses by filling them. Therefore, the features of fluency can be summarized into four, that is; pauses may be long but not frequent, pauses are usually filled,

pauses occur at meaningful transition points and there are long runs of syllables and words between pauses.

Managing talk covers interaction, turn-taking, and paralinguistic. Most speaking takes the form of face-to-face dialogue and therefore involves interaction. Even in monologue speaking, such as lectures, political speeches, and stand-up comedy, most speakers adjust their delivery to take into account to the response of their audience. Matthews (1994:102) states that one difficulty in taking turn is knowing when it is appropriate to interrupt. An interruption at the wrong moment can sound very rude. However, there are times in a discussion when interrupting maybe acceptable. Turn-taking delicate moment is successfully negotiated because the speakers are familiar with the rules and skills of turn-taking. The fundamental rule of turn-taking is that speakers should take turns to hold the floor. It means that listen when other speakers are speaking. Besides, recognizing the appropriate moment to get turn; signaling the fact that we want to speak; holding the floor while you have your turn; recognizing when other speakers are signaling their wish to speak; yielding the turn; and signaling the fact that we are listening. It is supported by Harmer (2007:45) saying that listeners in conversations are not just passive recipients of other words. We use interjections and other words to indicate support and to show that we are listening.

Furthermore, Harmer (2005:9) explains that negotiating of speaking turns does not rely on words alone. A sharp intake of breath and raising of the shoulders, for example, signal the wish to take a turn. During a speaking turn, little head nods from listeners tend to encourage speakers to speak faster. The interactional use of eye gaze and gesture are known as paralinguistics. These paralinguistic signals apply only in face-to-face conversation. Therefore, the speaker should know linguistic knowledge, psycholinguistic knowledge, sociolinguistic knowledge and discourse knowledge, as well as strategic knowledge. Brown (2001 :272) explains that in teaching speaking, the teacher should apply micro skills of speaking, as follows:

1. Produce chunks of language of different length
2. Orally produce differences among the English phonemes and allophonic variants.
3. Produce English stress patterns, words in stressed and unstressed positions, rhythmic structure, and intonational contours.
4. Produce reduced forms of words and phrases.
5. Use an adequate number of lexical English stress units in order to accomplish pragmatic purposes.
6. Produce fluent speech at different rates of delivery.
7. Monitor oral production and use various strategic devices-pauses, fillers, self-corrections, backtracking-to enhance the clarity of the message.
8. Use grammatical word classes (nouns, verbs, etc.), system (e.g., tenses, agreement, and pluralization), word order, patterns, rules, and elliptical forms.
9. Produce speech in natural constituents in appropriate phrases, pause, groups, and sentences.
10. Express a particular meaning in different grammatical forms.
11. Use cohesive devices in spoken discourse.
12. Accomplish appropriately communicative functions according to situations, participants, and goals.

13. Use appropriate registers, implicature, pragmatic, conventions, and other sociolinguistics features in face-to-face conversations.
14. Convey links and connections between events and communicate such relations as main idea, supporting idea, new information, given information, generalization, and exemplification.
15. Use facial features, kinesics, body language, and other nonverbal cues along with verbal language to convey meanings
16. Develop and use a battery of speaking strategies, such as emphasizing key words, rephrasing, providing a context for interpreting the meaning of words, appealing for help, and accurately assessing how well one interlocutor is understanding it.

4. Discussion

Related to the difficulties in speaking, Hughes (2011:153) states that when considering the complex nature of speech interaction, it is perhaps unsurprising that even the most advanced students still feel most at a loss when trying to participate in spontaneous, informal conversations in a new language. While the communicative classroom gives abundant opportunities for the students to interact, it is fruitful to raise awareness of the fundamentals of spoken discourse in order to provide students a better understanding of how very different speaking is from the stringing together of grammatically correct (or incorrect) sentences. The quotation shows that interaction is one of the difficulties usually occur in speaking English as the target language.

Shumin in Richard and Renandya (2002:205) states that there are some factors affecting EFL Learners' Oral Communication. They are age or maturational constraints, aural medium, sociocultural factors, and affective factors. A similar statement is made by Bloom et al. in Brown (2000:143), who note that some affective domains are still widely used today, including receiving, responding, valuing, organizing, and value system. Based on these two quotations, it is assumed that the success of speaking is influenced by many factors as mentioned above. Related to the difficulties of speaking, Shekan in Fulcher (2003:63) states that various categories affect speaking task difficulty, that is: familiar information, structured tasks, complex and numerous operations, complexity of knowledge base, and differentiated outcomes. Closely related to the challenges of speaking, Brown (2001 :270) explains there are some factors that make speaking difficult. Those are clustering, redundancy, reduced form, performance variables, colloquial language, rate of delivery, stress, rhythm, and intonation, as well as interaction.

5. Conclusion

In speaking, there are some important things that speakers do, that is; speech production, conceptualization and formulation, articulation, self-monitoring and repair, automaticity, fluency and managing talk. Speakers should know linguistic knowledge, psycholinguistic knowledge, sociolinguistic and discourse knowledge, as well as strategic knowledge. However, speakers sometimes find difficulties, which might be caused by clustering, redundancy, reduced form, performance variables, colloquial language, rate of delivery, stress, rhythm, intonation, and interaction.

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