

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

This chapter discusses the theoretical underpinnings of the HPBL model. It also presents various definitions of PBL and empirical studies conducted using PBL. The chapter also discusses motivation in relation to speaking a foreign language and some empirical studies on motivation. Finally, the chapter highlights speaking in a foreign language classroom and empirical studies on speaking English.

#### **2.2 Theoretical Underpinnings of Problem Based Learning Approach**

The present study explores the speaking course of Libyan EFL undergraduates through a HPBL model based on the theoretical foundation of the constructivist theory of learning. The following sections elaborate the theory in detail.

##### **Constructivist Theory of Learning**

From the perspectives of the constructivist theory, knowledge and learning are based on connecting new information/experience to previously acquired information/experience and on interacting with others in the learning process. Therefore, the implication of the theory is that instructional design should be changed in the teaching environment itself, such as to create an environment, a context that put together these necessary conditions. In addition, teachers should facilitate students' learning by guiding them to construct their own interpretations of the world rather than by putting knowledge into their minds (Martins, Jean-Sigur & Schmidt, 2005). In the learning process, students are encouraged to work collaboratively among themselves (Alzahrani & Woollard, 2013). While interacting with peers, they argue, reason, question, probe and debate with one another. Their interactions and tutors' facilitation serve as stimuli that contribute to the development of their reasoning,

critical thinking and eventually their speaking skills (Savery & Duffy, 2001; Wee, 2004). The use of PBL in a speaking classroom is also supported by two other theories: cognitive constructivism and social constructivism. The cognitive constructivism theory focuses on learners as cognitive beings while the social constructivist theory was developed by Vygotsky and views learners as social beings. The integration of these two theories forms the foundation of the constructivist theory which informs the use of the PBL approach.

In cognitive constructivist theory, learning is viewed as a refinement of students' cognitive skills that have already emerged. Emphasis is placed on the students' cognitive development in the theory because it helps the students to construct meaning by relating their new knowledge to the previous one. The cognitive constructivist theory rejects teaching methods that treat students as passive receptacles (Byrnes, 2003) and views the teacher as a facilitator and guide who provides support for learners to explore their world and discover knowledge (Fatade, 2012; Santrock, 2005). Some of the principles of the cognitive constructivist theory which guide the PBL approach prescribe that the teacher becomes a facilitator instead of a distributor of knowledge, while the learners will be given the opportunity to interact with peers and explore the world around them in order to make meaningful contributions to their own learning.

The instructional implication of the cognitive constructivist classroom is that students learn best by making discoveries, reflecting on their own previous experiences and discussing them, rather than blindly imitating the teacher or doing things by rote (Talja et al., 2005). Thus, it suggested that curriculum content should be organised in such a way that it provides the background knowledge which, in turn, allows learners to continue to construct new knowledge from the previous knowledge set (Aida Azlina, 2011). In the PBL approach, the ill-structured problems given to the students serve as the background knowledge that helps them to provide experiences and allows them to construct new ideas or concepts that are beyond their current knowledge. It also allows discovery learning to occur as it is related to the students' prior knowledge.

On the other hand, the social constructivist theory also supports the students' cognitive development. From the perspectives of the theory, social interactions play a vital role in the students' cognitive development. Therefore, students construct new

knowledge through social interaction and collaboration with others. They construct their new knowledge with the help of their peers, other learners, and the learning context (Santrock, 2005).

Vygotsky (1986) explains the social constructivist theory as the cultural and social influences on cognitive development. According to him, cognitive development is a process where learners can develop more systematic, logical and rational concepts from their dialogues with the help of a teacher or a peer who is more skilled in the subject (Santrock, 2009). The assistance is provided to help the learners to get into their zone of proximal development for learning (ZPD) which is described as the range of tasks that are too difficult for a learner to master alone and they require guidance and assistance of a teacher or a more able peer. The theory describes two levels of learning: the actual development level and the potential development level. The actual development level is the one already reached by a learner. At this level, a learner is capable of learning independently. The potential development level is the one yet to be attained by a learner. It is known as the ZPD level which a learner can only reach with the support of a teacher or a more able peer (Vygotsky, 1978).

Various methods and techniques based on constructivist approach have been proposed and employed in different educational contexts such as Cooperative Learning, Project-Based Learning, Task-Based Learning, Concept Cartoons, Concept Maps and Mind Maps, and Problem-Based Learning approach. These methods were developed as a reaction to Teacher-Centred Learning (TCL) that focused on the transmission of knowledge and meaning from the teacher to students (Ammar, 2005). Problem-Based Learning (PBL) being the parent approach for the HPBL model, is one of these methods that have been described as suitable methods for constructivist approach since it allows students to combine their previous knowledge with newly acquired knowledge while working in cooperative groups to solve a daily life problem (Tseng, Chiang & Hsu, 2008).

From the theoretical discussions so far, it could be seen that the HPBL environment provides a context which allows learners to work with peers who may be of different skill levels in order to solve a problem. Through solving the problems, there will be negotiation, argument and exchange of ideas which eventually develop the students' speaking skills. In the event when a learner faces a difficulty with any aspect of the problem, other students would be there to assist if needed. If none of the

students could assist, the teacher would facilitate the students. Through this, the students can work towards their zone of proximal development.

In conclusion, the HPBL model (as a variant of the PBL approach) is explained by the instructional principles of the constructivist learning theory. Scholars such as Hmelo-Silver (2004), Hmelo-Silver, Duncan and Chinn (2007), and Savery and Duffy (2001) have explained the relationship between the principles of the Constructivist Learning theory and the HPBL context. The use of HPBL in a speaking classroom is also supported by the cognitive constructivism founded by Piaget and social constructivism theory founded by Vygotsky. The cognitive constructivism theory focuses on learners as cognitive beings while the social constructivist theory views learners as social beings. From the constructivist perspectives, there are some principles of HPBL for teachers to follow which include: (a) making the subject realistic and interesting, (b) considering students' prior knowledge, (c) making the subject curriculum socially interactive, and (d) allowing students to interact in the learning process (Winstone & Millward, 2012).

The main aim of education is to help students learn better and acquire higher order thinking skills that are going to be used throughout their lives (Savery & Duffy, 2001). These skills include inquiry-learning skills, critical and creative thinking, language skills which include speaking skills. Therefore, it is of great importance to establish a learning environment based on the constructivist approach where students can play an active role in their own learning process and access knowledge through investigation and questioning (Juniu, 2006).

### **Schema Based Theory**

Another theory related to the HPBL is Schema Theory. The theory also points out that prior knowledge is packaged into organized structure but it is not only a storage unit for data, it is also a dynamic, flexible, and ever-changing resource of prior knowledge and experiences. For instance, in class, the teacher provides many fixed phrases and uses semantic mapping to enrich students' vocabulary, which enlarges students' linguistic schema. The schema refers to a collection of knowledge related to a concept and it contains background knowledge of content, text structure and hierarchical organization of the text. In a HPBL speaking classroom, What the

students have learned (previous schemata) in the lecture-based teaching stored in their long-term memory and they also have to obtain new knowledge which helps them to propose possible solutions to the ill-structured problems presented in the HPBL model.

### **2.3 Definition of the PBL Approach**

Various scholars have defined the term ‘problem-based learning’ in different ways. Some scholars put more emphasis on different aspects of PBL in their definitions. Others emphasise on the context in which the approach is employed; that is, the student-centeredness of the approach, while yet others emphasise on the skills acquired in the process among others. Albanese and Mitchell (1993) for example, provide a definition of PBL that is more specific to a medical context, as an instructional method where patient problems are used as a context for students to learn problem-solving skills and acquire knowledge about the basic and clinical sciences.

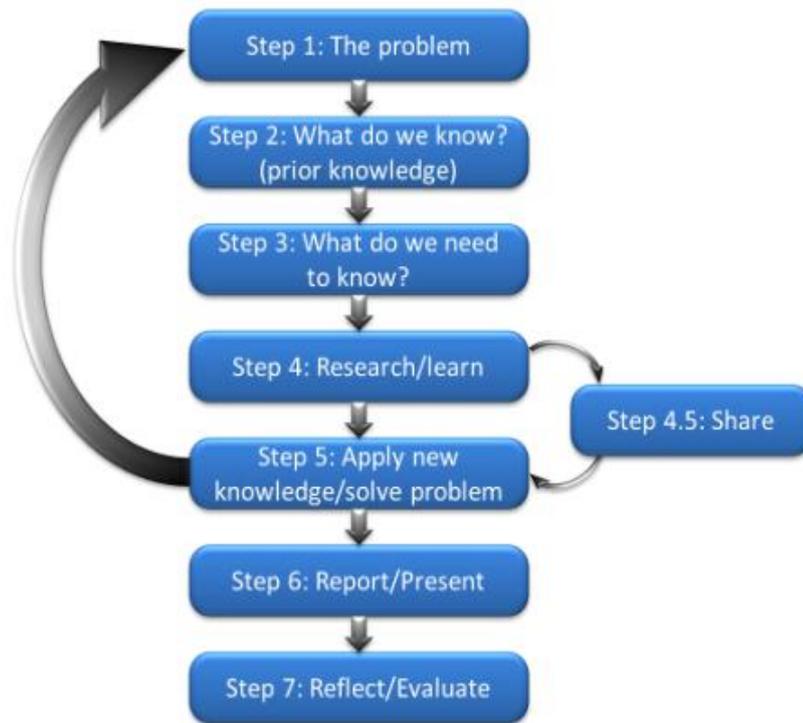
Duch, Groh and Allen (2001) define PBL by giving more emphasis on the skills students could acquire while going through the PBL processes. They describe it as an instructional method used to develop students’ abilities to think critically, analyse and solve complex real-world problems, evaluate and use appropriate learning resources. It also enables students to work cooperatively to demonstrate effective communication skills and to use content knowledge and intellectual skills to become life-long learners.

The definition does not mention the features of PBL or detail descriptions on how the approach should be conducted. Torp and Sage (2002) on the other hand, offer a definition which provides a description of how the PBL process is carried out. They describe it as a focused and experiential learning approach organised around investigation and resolution of confused real-world problems, where students are engaged as problem-solvers seeking to identify the root of the problem and the conditions needed for a good solution, and in turn, they become self-directed learners. Similarly, Hmelo-Silver (2004) provides more descriptions of how the PBL process is conducted. PBL is an instructional method in which students learn through facilitated problem-solving that centres on complex problems, which do not have a single correct solution. Students work in collaborative groups to identify what they need to learn in

order to solve the problem. They also engage in self-directed learning, apply their new knowledge to the problem, and reflect on what they learned and the effectiveness of the strategies employed. During the processes, teachers facilitate the learning process instead of providing knowledge. In the same vein, Hung, Jonassen, and Liu (2008) offer a definition of PBL as an instructional method that initiates students' learning by creating a need to solve an authentic problem. During the problem-solving process, students construct content knowledge and develop problem-solving skills as well as self-directed learning skills while working towards a solution to the problem.

Despite the various definitions of PBL, the goals remain the same. The main goal of PBL approach is to structure new knowledge through creating an environment where students can employ their previous knowledge with the one acquired during their problem solving sessions. Barrows (1986) points out other five goals of PBL approach, namely (I) help students to develop a flexible and extensive knowledge base, (II) effective collaboration skills and (III) problem-solving or clinical reasoning skills. Moreover, PBL is designed (IV) to promote students' intrinsic motivation and (V) help them become autonomous and self-directed learners (Barrows, 1986; Hmelo-Silver, 2004; Norman & Schmidt, 1992).

A PBL cycle generally consists of 7 steps, namely the problem, what do we know, what do we need, research/learn, apply new knowledge/solve problem, report/present, and reflect/ evaluate (Schmidt, Van der Molen, TeWinkel, & Wijnen, 2009). That is, in initial problem discussion, students will be presented with the description of the problem (i.e. phenomenon that can be observed in real life), before they receive any other curriculum input (Schmidt & Moust, 2000). For instance, students in the medical field, may be given a problem in the form of a case; this problem can be a case description of patient in which students need to come up with a diagnostic and a subsequent treatment. Students will read and discuss the problem by using their existing knowledge and common sense and eventually formulate learning issues for further self-study. Afterwards, an individually conducted self-study period will take place when students select and study their own literature resources to answer the learning issues. After a few days (i.e. two to three days), students will meet again in their tutorial groups to discuss their findings. Figure 2.1 explains the PBL cycle:



**Figure 2.1:** PBL cycle adopted from Schmidt and Moust (2000)

From the definitions reeled off above, it could be concluded that the PBL approach has some specific features which include the students, the tutors/facilitators and the learning content, which is given as a real life scenario in the form of an ill-structured problem. It could also be concluded that the approach could be used to develop students' learning skills. Thus, using the approach in a speaking classroom is not out of place, the interactions involved in the process enable the students to develop their speaking skills. This is especially when under the PBL approach, the HPBL model is implemented to reap the advantages PBL while not completely forsaking some of the benefits of traditional method

#### **2.4 Features of the PBL Approach**

The PBL approach typically involves three main features: students as active learners, ill-structured problem as the learning content and lecturers as facilitators (Tan, 2004). First, students shoulder the major responsibility for their own learning, unlike in the traditional methods where they are just receptors of knowledge. They determine what they need to learn to have a better understanding of the problem and

propose viable solutions. They also determine where and how to find the appropriate resources for the information needed, for example, textbooks, libraries, online materials and interviews, among others. In addition, they have the responsibility to monitor and assess their own performance and that of their peers.

Second, the course contents are presented to learners as ill-structured problems in the way they would occur in the real world. This stimulates the learners to generate multiple hypotheses about possible causes and solutions of the problems. It also allows learners to gather more information in their attempt to achieve understanding and propose solutions to the problem. This would also lead them to perfect their problem-solving skills (Barrows, 2002). Studies have shown how ill-structured problems can be constructed to suit language classrooms. For instance, Suraini, et al. (2017a) studied the feasibility of using the 3C3R Case-Design Model (Hung, 2015) in terms of ‘case ill-structuredness’ in crafting PBL cases for a General English Proficiency (GEP). They revealed some significant themes pertaining to the need for adaptation and inclusion of other components in the model to craft PBL cases for language courses, such as ‘ill-structuredness’ as a component to be included in the 3C3R model.

Third, the teacher, instead of being the source of knowledge as in the teacher-centred approach, only guides or facilitates the students’ learning by providing scaffolding throughout the processes. In the PBL approach, the teacher is commonly referred to as a tutor/facilitator who serves as a cognitive coach (Mardziah Hayati Abdullah & Tan, 2008) who models the students’ higher-order thinking through questioning. The facilitator guides the students at different stages of the PBL process. For instance, he/she guides the students through questioning in order to identify what needs to be learned, and the appropriate learning resources to be used in the process.

## **2.5 Historical Background of PBL Approach**

The PBL approach was first implemented at McMaster University in Canada in the 1960s. The approach developed as a response to teacher-centred and discipline-based pre-clinical medical education which was the norm at that time (Lim, 2012; Savery & Duffy, 2006). After its introduction in the 1960s and 1970s, different other universities adopted PBL as their method of teaching. For example, in the early 1970s,

Maastricht (Netherlands) and Newcastle (Australia) implemented PBL at their new medical schools (Barrows, 2012; Lim, 2012). In 1979, The University of New Mexico medical school offered a PBL curriculum as an alternative one. Other medical schools like Harvard, Sherbrooke (Canada), Manchester and Liverpool (U.K.) incorporated the PBL approach into their curriculum from 1989-1999 (Lim, 2012). By the year 2003, it was estimated that, to some extent, up to 70% of U.S. medical schools used PBL in the pre-clinical years.

Many other schools apart from medical schools adopt the PBL approach (Savery, 2006). The adoption has extended into elementary schools, middle schools, high schools, universities, and professional schools (Torp & Sage, 2002). For instance, The University of Delaware has an active PBL programme and conducts annual training institutes for instructors who want to become tutors.

## **2.6 Hybrid PBL (HPBL)**

After the first introduction of the PBL from the medical school, many universities have adopted the PBL approach. As a result, various models of PBL emerged based on the schools' and the staff's preferences, students' perceptions and local constraints (Lim, 2012). This has led to the categorisation of PBL into two types, namely, Pure and Hybrid PBL (Masek, 2012; Savin-Baden, 2007). The pure PBL model refers to the model that is implemented in a fully problem-based methodology based on the McMaster medical school PBL model. The implementation is generally without any lectures or tutorial sessions and students typically worked in small groups (Masek, 2012).

On the other hand, the term 'hybrid PBL (HPBL)' originates from Harvard's New Pathway curriculum and refers to the kind of PBL that effectively incorporates lectures, laboratory sessions, and other instructional activities into the active PBL discussions (Armstrong, 1997). HPBL, according to Lim (2012), is any curriculum which incorporates PBL-style tutorials. Due to the widespread and different models of PBL evolved, some scholars like Kwan and Tam (2009), in their review regarding HPBL, have suggested that a 'pure' form of PBL is now practically non-existent as other instructional processes such as lectures are included. Kwan and Tam, therefore, made their own classification of PBL. They classified PBL into four sub-types. In the

first type, only two to three problems are given to students per academic year. The problems are integrated into the conventional curriculum driven by teaching via didactic lectures. In the second type of PBL, problems are used to enhance students' understanding of the lecture content materials. In this type, PBL tutorials focus on the acquisition of knowledge content or factual materials. Thus, lecturers and content experts as tutors complement it. In the third type, lectures are used to enhance PBL performance among students. Teachers in this type, therefore, need to teach students the 'basics' prior to doing PBL. The fourth type uses PBL as the main learning platform. Hence, some "unconventional lectures" are added to enrich and to motivate the students' self-directed learning (Lim, 2012 p. 2).

Many other scholars have advocated that lectures and other instructional activities are essential in PBL. They refer to these as instructional scaffolding (Lim, 2012). Matthew (1989) summarises that activities such as lectures, seminars, laboratory demonstration, and exercises are considered essential and can be integrated into any PBL curriculum. Other researchers like Albanese and Mitchell (1993) also have the view that instructional methods such as lectures, labs, and clinical skills sessions should not be eliminated in PBL. In this study, the fourth type of PBL as itemized in the penultimate paragraph was adopted as the HPBL model. This is largely because though the lectures are retained, they are unconventional ones which motivate the students as against adopting the conventional lectures are authoritative which approach are mostly detested by students

Specifically, the study integrates Schmidt, Moust and Patel's (1989) model of PBL (Seven Jump Steps) in to the speaking classroom. According to Schmidt, Moust and Patel's (1989), learners in PBL approach progress through a series of steps and these steps include; clarifying unknown terms and concepts in the problem description, defining the problem, analysing the problem, formulating learning issues for self-directed learning, filling-in gaps in one's knowledge through self-directed learning, and finally sharing findings with group members. (The seven steps are further explained in Chapter 3).

This approach is believed to be suitable for my research context since Libyan EFL learners were found to be not motivated to English, and their language achievement in speaking course is below expectation (Orafi & Borg, 2009). In this approach, Libyan EFL students will work together to solve complicated and authentic

problems so they will be immersed in several tasks where they can try to practice discussing in English language to find solutions for such problems. This in turn is believed to motivate the students toward the learning process and thus improve their language achievement in the speaking course as offered by English Foundation Programme at this research's public university.

Additionally, Libyan students are not used to any student-centred learning approach. Most of the Libyan higher institutions adopt traditional method of teaching where teachers dominate the classrooms. Adopting the HPBL allows teachers to explain every step of the approach to students in a lecture way, which the students are more familiar with. In this regard, White (1996) argued that in PBL, students take charge of their education while emphasising critical thinking skills, understanding, learning how to learn, and working collaboratively. In this sense, the researcher argued that such approach is very suitable to the case of Libyan EFL students in English speaking classrooms at the university, who rely too much on being fed information by lecturers rather than being self-directed in their learning process.

Moreover, it is believed that such an approach is very suitable for Libyan EFL learners. This is because it involves discussions and collecting data to propose suitable solutions to problems. Learners in their speaking classrooms were required to conduct group problem solving discussion, huge amount of reading from every possible resource, and presenting their findings in form of oral presentation for the whole class. This is in line with Evensen and Hmelo's (2000) argument that PBL approach organises learners in group-work where they involve in various processes to collect data to solve the problem presented and therefore they will be exposed to huge amount of reading, arguing and finally presenting their solutions in the form of report and presentation. This vast exposure to knowledge and source of data is believed to enhance students' speaking achievements in English course. In this regard, Tan (2004) argued that, the availability of data nowadays makes the application of PBL approach far possible especially since we live in computing technology era where students can find different information from different resources. Tan (2004) further argued that such exposure to different sources of data would inevitably enhance students' language skills at different levels.

## **2.7 HPBL vs PBL**

## **2.8 Strengths of the HPBL Model**

Research carried out at the Harvard University showed that PBL students believed that the HPBL method helped them to develop social and humanistic skills, and that the programme influenced their thinking about professional issues. In 2004 according to Carrión, Larramona, Baños and Pérez (2011), their school commenced a pilot test on exploring how to adapt the bachelor of biology to the Bologna Declaration. And the cornerstone of the study was the introduction of PBL activities into the traditional curriculum (just as is the case in the present study) to explore the possibility of coming up with a hybrid model of teaching with PBL problems that were in due course used in PBL tutorials were built with the use of the educational objectives of the subjects of each term. HPBL was embedded into the traditional curriculum it apparently resulted in requiring less stringent preparations as obtained in purely traditional approach on the side of the teacher, but principally requires minimal changes in syllabus amendments, instead of drastic ones.

Christensen (2004) cited in Armstrong (1997) identified some strengths of HPBL for both lecturers and students. In Harvard business school for example, he identified that students got from the new curriculum the opportunity to discover in their own ways and build frameworks of their knowledge. But for lecturers HPBL provides opportunity for intellectual stimulation. Lecturers deliver lectures in the approach, as well as give students ample opportunity to approach learning collaboratively and independently. For example faculty members who integrate between traditional teaching and PBL frequently report new learning and a refreshing sense of adventure while not completely forsaking the hallmark of traditional approach.

HPBL has also been found to be suitable for low proficiency levels. According to O'Kelly et al., (2007) cited in Doody (2015) the approach helps weaker students as they get to see how stronger students address problems, while both categories of students have the basic platform of receiving clarifications and new dimensions of real life situations and clear meanings of new vocabulary and often confused expressions.

In a large classroom setting according to Lian and He (2013), the HPBL model has strengths on students' problem-solving skills and basic knowledge. As measured by the authors through students' written examination at the end of the semester, the findings of their study supported earlier findings that HPBL is not only superior to LBL at students' basic knowledge level but also at problem-solving skills. The HPBL students performed better in their results in the short-essay questions and case-analysis questions. This result indicates that examination testing more advanced knowledge, i.e. on the comprehension or analysis level is more appropriate for testing the outcome of HPBL. An intra-group comparison of the two classes of questions further supported the hypothesis, uncovering that students who underwent the lecture-based course scored significantly lower in the short-essay part and case-analysis part, whereas their HPBL counterparts scored significantly higher.

According to Ellis, Creswell and Bernet (1998), and Bueno, Rivas and Saiz, (2015), when students, such as first year students, make transition from teacher-centred school environment to a more self-directed university environment, a well-defined problem with considerable scaffolding should be given to them. This is our case in Libya. EFL students who are currently engaged in speaking skills made the transition from school environment to university levels where they had schooled for 12 years based on traditional teaching approach and they have never been exposed to PBL approach entire of their lives. Therefore, the researcher implemented the HPBL model in the teaching of speaking course to Libyan EFL learners instead of the full PBL model. According to Wu (2006), the major differences between full PBL and HPBL are the duration of the problems, the continued inclusion at least one lecture every week, and the methods of assessment. In this study, the problems were presented to the students by the lecturers in the PBL format, after which the students were asked to discuss the problems in groups.

## **2.9 Empirical Studies on PBL**

Scholars have discovered the effectiveness of the PBL approach in developing students' learning skills in various disciplines in different continents of the world. In the medical sciences, where PBL was first introduced, several studies have confirmed its effectiveness in developing learners' acquisition of knowledge, critical thinking

skills, problem-solving skills and students' attitude to learning. For instance, in relation to critical thinking skills, Du, Emmersen, Toft and Sun (2013) revealed that PBL improved the critical thinking skills of Chinese medical students. It was further shown that the PBL students performed better than the non-PBL students in six of the seven subscales of critical thinking. Similar findings were observed by Yuan, Kunaviktikul, Klunklin and Williams (2008) that PBL was effective in promoting the critical thinking skills of second-year students in nursing in China. They revealed that encouraging the students to share their opinions with their peers, to analyse situations in different ways and to think of more possibilities for solving problems helped to develop their critical thinking. Therefore, the active discussion, group interaction, and inductive and reflective thinking involved in PBL play a role in developing students' critical thinking.

Another study was conducted among 464 undergraduate medical students in four consecutive batches (two in the first year and two in the second year of the medicine programme) at Melaka Manipal Medical College. The study was conducted by Hande et al. (2015) to investigate the effect of PBL on students' acquisition of knowledge, generic skills and attitudes. A questionnaire was used to collect data on the acquisition of knowledge, generic skills and attitudes of the students. The findings showed that PBL positively affected the students' acquisition of knowledge, generic skills and study attitudes.

Relating to students' perceptions of PBL, Murray (2003) examined students' experiences of a PBL nursing curriculum in Scotland and outlined the experience of the curriculum from the students' perspective. His findings indicated the students' positive experiences of using the PBL approach in nursing. The findings further showed that PBL helped the students to develop their learning skills, such as the ability to analyse problems, work in teams, think critically, seek out information, and prioritise work. In general, the students had positive perceptions of the PBL learning environment as they perceived it as an environment which enhances learning (Dochy et al., 2005).

In other science related fields, various scholars in different countries have also discovered the positive effects of PBL on students' learning skills. For example, in relation to academic performance, Iji, Emiakwu, and Utubaku (2015) reveal that PBL improves students' achievement in learning Trigonometry. Similarly, Fatade, David

and Abayomi (2013) discovered the positive effects of PBL on Nigerian secondary school students' performance in Further Mathematics. Furthermore, in learning genetics, Araz and Sungur (2007) conclude that PBL is an effective method to be used. They observed that the PBL students in their study had higher academic achievements and performance when compared with those in traditional classes. The same positive result was found by Celik, Onder and Silay (2011) in their study on undergraduate students' success in learning physics using PBL.

On the relationship between PBL and students' motivation, Jones, Epler, Mokri, Bryant, and Paretto (2013) investigated the effects of a collaborative PBL experience on students' motivation in learning engineering capstone courses at a university in the United States. They identified several instructional elements that affected the students' motivation to engage in the courses such as the design of the project, group experience, and advice of facilitators. In relation to group interaction experience, Nowrouzian and Farewell (2013) had similar findings. They revealed that PBL was effective for improving team-working skills among biomedical and natural science students.

Another learning skill that is developed using PBL is self-regulation. Sungur and Tekkaya (2006) found that the PBL approach had positive effects on students' self-regulated learning skills in learning Biology. The study involved high school students of both genders in Turkey. The findings showed that PBL students had higher levels of intrinsic goal orientation, task value, and use of elaboration learning strategies. They also had higher levels of critical thinking, metacognitive self-regulation, effort regulation, and peer learning when compared with control-group students.

In language learning, many studies have been conducted using the PBL method. For example, Suraini Mohd-Ali, et al. (2017) describe a new PBL case design model for language practitioners that emerged from an action research project. They showed that there is need for modification on PBL case-design models to suit language classrooms. In another study, Suraini Mohd-Ali et al. (2016) trained English language practitioners to craft their own PBL cases for a General English Course using 3C3R Case-Design Model (Hung, 2006) as the basis.

Concerning students speaking skills, various studies have established that PBL approach provides effective learning context that develops students' speaking skills as

well as other language skills. For example, a study conducted by Norzaini Azman and Shin (2012) showed that the students had positive perceptions of problem-based language learning and PBL had a positive impact on the students' language skills, particularly their speaking skills. The study was carried out among 57 pre-university students enrolled in an English classroom to explore their perceptions of PBL and to find out the impact of PBL on the development of their language skills. A quasi-experimental design using control and experimental groups was used in the study. A self-assessment test and programme evaluation questionnaire were used as the instruments of the study. The results further showed that PBL had increased the students' motivation and self-confidence in language learning.

Mardziah H. Abdullah and Tan (2016) also found that PBL activities offered both linguistic and affective benefits in the ESL class. It stimulated communication and allowed the students to generate substantial discussion on a variety of topics. It provided a meaningful context for language learning, including exploration of grammatical rules. The findings also showed that the PBL activity had promoted self-directed learning and a sense of ownership of the learning activities, which are important to the development of learner autonomy. They conducted their study using the PBL approach in a language classroom. The study describes the use of language among ESL undergraduates taking a course in Language and Information Technology. The students engaged in a collaborative PBL activity through an asynchronous online conferencing forum.

Similarly, Othman and Ismail Ahmad Shah (2013) conducted another study using PBL in an L2 classroom. It was carried out among 128 undergraduate students in Malaysia. The findings showed that PBL had positive effects on the acquisition of the course content and language development of the students in that study. The results specifically showed that the PBL groups were able to present critical arguments, to buttress and to illustrate their arguments with sufficient materials in their post-tests.

Lin (2015) examined the impact of PBL on English vocabulary learning and use by the students, using elementary students in a language classroom in Taiwan. The findings revealed that the PBL group performed better than the non-PBL group in using the off-list level of vocabulary in the writing task. The PBL group also used a significantly higher proportion of vocabulary and wrote significantly longer compositions compared to the non-PBL group. The findings further showed that PBL

provided sufficient English conversation practice for the students. Thus, Lin concludes that it can be used to foster elementary school students' ability to learn and use vocabulary in context.

Recently, a study was conducted by Aliyu, Yong, Mardziah H. Abdullah and Tan (2016) to investigate the effects of PBL approach on the awareness of metacognitive knowledge in the writing of Nigerian undergraduates. They found that PBL approach significantly affects the students' awareness of metacognitive knowledge of task requirements, personal learning process, strategy use, text and accuracy, problem solving and discourse features.

From the previous studies reviewed so far, it is evident that the PBL is not conducted in the Libyan context and particularly in a speaking classroom. Therefore, this study may be significant in providing a better approach that would develop students' speaking skills.

## **2.10 Definition of Motivation**

Various definitions of motivation could be identified in the literature (Murphy & Alexander, 2000). For instance, Loewen and Reinders (2011) define motivation as “a psychological construct that refers to the desire and incentive that an individual has to engage in a specific activity” (p.119). Dweck and Elliott (1986) define motivation as a process involving different factors, such as goals, self-efficacy, and perceived values that instigate “the magnitude, persistence, and quality of goal-directed behaviours”. In language learning, Dornyei (2007) defines motivation as one of the significant aspects that affect language learning processes because “it provides the primary impetus to initiate L2 learning and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process” (p. 65). From the various definitions given in the literature, motivation can be defined as either a conceptual object, such as drive, goals, engagement, will, commitment, interest, effort, and concern, or a process.

Gardner and Lambert (1972) proposed two types of motivation namely instrumental motivation and integrative motivation. Instrumental motivation is the individuals' desire to gain social recognition or economic advantages through knowledge of foreign language. For instance, one may desire to attain a PhD degree or get a better job. Integrative motivation is when a person desires to be a representative

member of the other language community. For example, one may wish to be a citizen of a particular country. These two types of motivation are argued to affect and control the procedures and outcome of teaching (Cook, 2000). Gardner and Lambert (1972) found that learners with integrative motivation were more successful in learning a second or foreign language than those with instrumental motivation.

Ryan and Deci (2008) proposed two types of motivation namely intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation is the eagerness and interest to do and take part in certain activities because a person feels that they are attractive and pleasant. Extrinsic motivation on the other hand, is the tendency of taking in activities because of the reasons that are not connected to the activity. These reasons can be anticipated of either reward or punishment. For example, one may desire to be successful in exams and get good mark. Intrinsic motivation is linked to Self-Determination Theory, which integrates multiple personal and social factors that shape and encourage student engagement. According to the theory, people are intrinsically motivated when they are self-determined. Teachers can either support or undermine student's fundamental needs that shape the theory. Students need to feel a sense of relatedness in the classroom. They also need to feel a sense of competence in the content and environment of learning. Lastly, students need to experience a sense of autonomy or self-directed learning in the classroom. Teachers who promote all three factors in their teaching encourage students to stay motivated in the classroom (Connell & Wellborn, 1991; Deci & Ryan, 1985; 2000).

PBL environments promote all personal and social factors. Through solving problems in the PBL environment, students' interest may be stimulated thereby encouraging them to participate actively in the learning process, which results in the development of their learning skills. Students are given autonomy to decide what to learn and how to learn. They are also encouraged to conduct self-directed learning.

PBL environments fit into the four conditions of motivational framework proposed by Wlodkowski and Ginsberg (1995) (a) "Establishing inclusion" (b) "developing attitude" (c) "enhancing meaning" and (d) "engendering competence". For instance, in PBL, the relationship between students and teachers is a collaborative one based on mutual respect instead of authoritative respect in which knowledge is passed down from teachers to students. Students are given power to choose their own learning issues related to their own needs in PBL so that they can develop a

favourable disposition toward such learning experience. The approach also provides a learning experience that challenges students to incorporate different perspectives and values to pursue the understanding of concepts and rules by engaging in problem solving. Finally, students are valued as they construct their own knowledge.

### **2.11 Motivation and PBL Approach**

One of the major aims of PBL is to motivate students to participate in the learning process so that they are able to achieve their learning goals such as improving their problem-solving skills, integrating basic concepts, fostering self-directed learning and higher-order thinking skills (Murphy & Alexander, 2000).

In the PBL process, engaging the students in the learning process is very important as it determines the successes of PBL. Therefore, one of the important tasks of a tutor is to motivate the students and make them fully engaged in the learning process. Various scholars identify the factors that motivate students to participate in a learning process. For instance, Biggs and Tang (2007) opined that task and students' expectation of success are the two primary factors that can make students learn. Students will immerse in tasks that are interesting and seem worthwhile for them and promise them the possibility of success. Students would not like to participate in an activity that would eventually lead to their failure. The more an activity promises success, the more students are inclined to participate in such an activity just as the processes of attitude formation and change or functions of attitude explain.

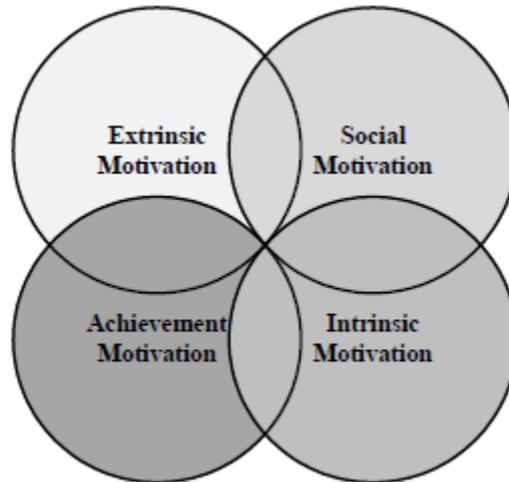
Similarly, Pintrich (2000) also points out some factors that motivate students to participate in a learning process:

- Students' beliefs about the importance and value of the task.
- Students' beliefs about the ability to perform the task.
- Students' feelings about themselves or their emotional reactions to the task.

These perspectives relate directly to the cause of students' resistance during the initial period of PBL implementation. It is a norm if students resist when they feel unsecure with the PBL approach, as they do not possess any prior experience about PBL. In contrast, if students realise that the task fits these two sets of criteria, students are more likely to adopt mastery orientation. Therefore, the role of facilitators here is to motivate the students through designing a problem based on the students' interests

and prior knowledge. They should also encourage the students and assure them success. Students value and are motivated by some tasks due to many factors.

Biggs and Tang (2007) referred to extrinsic, social, achievement and intrinsic motivation as the factors affecting students to engage in tasks as shown in Figure 2. 2.



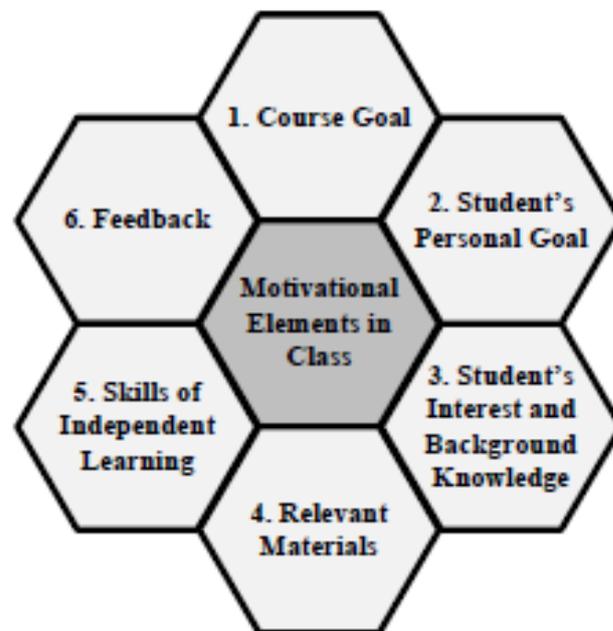
**Figure 2.2:** Motivational factors affecting task engagement

Extrinsic, social and achievement motivation is the result of traditional teaching modes and conventional assessment methods. These motivations can kill life-long learning, deep learning and cooperative learning because it drives students for the wrong reasons. Intrinsic motivation is the academic ideal. Intrinsically motivated students are interested in the course content itself, persist in facing the difficulty and willing to seek out new ideas, keep asking questions and their learning progress is strongly affected by curiosity, thus it is constructed on the pre-existing knowledge base (Loewenstein, 2001). The more curious a student is; the more knowledge he/she acquires. Thus, students with intrinsic motivation tend to adopt a learning style like PBL. When they realize the existence of gap between the current knowledge they have and the desired knowledge they expect, they put a lot of effort to understand what they learn and explore the reasons behind the assignments without having any prior experience in the task. Meanwhile, extrinsically motivated students are referred to as surface learners, who are strongly attached to the outcomes of the task. They focus only on the topics that they will be tested on (Savage, & Birch, 2008).

Intrinsically motivated students are much less than those who are extrinsically motivated. Expectation of success at PBL implementation primarily lies in the

students' motivation to persist during the learning processes. It is a vital role of facilitators to stimulate students to be motivated, help them to adopt mastery orientation and develop intrinsic motivation. Hence, it enables students to find the fun in learning using PBL teaching methods and to discover and reap its benefits. It is the role of instructors and facilitators to transform the students from spoon-fed learners to the self-directed learners throughout the PBL process.

To motivate students to participate actively in the PBL process, Barbara's (1993) six criteria which teachers should take into consideration come to relevance as in Figure 2.3. In order to motivate students and stimulate their interest, these elements should be taken into consideration. This is because class instructors in conventional curriculum are only able to deliver the first element of motivation, by highlighting the expected course outcomes at the beginning of the semester. They are more likely to neglect other motivation elements. On the other hand, PBL environment permits all six elements to be tackled. Thus, facilitators need to properly conduct the class based on the criteria in order to promote better learning.



**Figure 2.3:** Key elements of motivation in a PBL classroom (**Barbara 1993**)

The present study which explores the use of HPBL in a speaking classroom in a Libyan university, will take all the six elements into consideration. For example, two

major aspects of motivation in the PBL implementation; fourth and fifth element, which are rarely addressed in conventional teaching and learning environment, are addressed. Students' interests are considered while formulating the problems. This would help in stimulating their interest. This is also to ensure that students are able to achieve their goals in the course. In addition, during the PBL process, students were encouraged to participate actively.

## **2.12 Research on Motivation in PBL Environments**

Several studies were carried out to examine the motivational aspects under the PBL environment (e.g, Bas, 2011; Huang & Wang, 2012; Liu, Cho, & Schallert, 2006; Pagander & Read, 2014; Sim, Lian, Kanthimathi, Thong and Tan, 2011; Yousof, Jamaludin, Harun & Hassan, 2012). For example, Yousof et al. (2012) implemented the PBL approach in one of the undergraduate chemical engineering courses at one of the public universities in Malaysia. The main objective of the study was to stimulate students' motivation. Results from the study stated that the PBL approach had stimulated students' motivation and students became more self-directed learners.

Furthermore, Liu, Olmanson, Horton, Toprac, (2011) investigated the effect of the PBL approach on students' motivation toward learning sciences in one of the South-western schools in Texas. Results revealed that students' motivation toward the learning process had significantly increased. PBL model was found to be a suitable teaching techniques for teaching science and thus motivates students toward these classes.

Huang and Wang (2012) experimented the feasibility of utilizing PBL approach English interpretation classes in one of the universities in Taiwan by examining four variables of students' attitude, students' satisfaction, students' motivation, and students' self-achievement through qualitative oriented analysis. The major findings indicate that students' attitudes toward PBL are positive which influences their motivation in learning and that ultimately elevates their English interpreting skills.

In Arab countries, the PBL approach was also experimented in the context of education in different fields of study. For example, Razak (2008) introduced the PBL approach to educational psychology course in one of the public universities in Bahrain

in an attempt to address the lack of motivation toward learning in that particular context. Data were collected by several methods of observation, monitoring of students' performance, and students' personal reflections and group presentations. Findings indicated a high satisfaction rate with PBL, as well as improved learning outcomes in the educational psychology classroom, with motivation enhancement. The results also suggested interesting implications related to teacher preparatory colleges and educational reform.

Although this path of literature continues, very limited studies were found in the Libyan context and most of these studies were conducted in the medical field (e.g. Ambarek, Mohammed, Al-tawaty & Naser, 2010). Therefore, this research will fill the gap that still exists in literature by implementing the HPBL model as a variant of PBL in the Libyan context particularly in speaking classroom. This study will investigate how far the HPBL model can motivate Libyan EFL learners toward speaking English.

### **2.13 Motivation in Second and Foreign Language Learning**

In the field of second/foreign language acquisition, many researchers investigated the nature of and role of motivation in language learning process in the last three decades. They wanted to discover the relationship between motivation and language achievement (Dörnyei, 2008). It has been argued that learning a second language differs from learning other school subjects because of its social nature (Dörnyei, 2003). Most of these researches were inspired by the work of two Canadian psychologists, namely Gardner and Wallace Lambert (1972) who were the spark of motivation research in second language acquisition (SLA). According to Gardner and Lambert (1972) in their Socio-Educational Model, motivation in second language acquisition field is defined as the learners' overall goal, orientation, and attitude as they strive to attain the goal.

Orientation is seen to be the most important aspect of the theory. It includes integrative orientation and instrumental orientation. Integrative orientation occurs when learners hold favourable attitude to the language or culture, and wish to identify with the culture or the speakers of that language. An instrumental orientation refers to the utility value of learning a second/foreign language, such as passing examinations and financial rewards. Noels et al. (2001) found that

external regulation strongly correlated with instrumental orientation. They identified regulation and intrinsic motivation correlated with travel, friendship and knowledge orientation in second language learning. Noels (2003) also suggested that integrativeness is an intergroup substrate and intrinsic/extrinsic motivation is an interpersonal motivational substrate.

Although GARDEN and Lambert theory continue to be the most influential theory of motivation in second language context, many criticisms were apportioned to the theory. The theory's main hindrance is that the research was only tested on second language learners where there is a crucial difference in foreign language contexts. That is, learning in second language context involves having some contact with the L2 community, whereas for learning in foreign language contexts there is less contact and exposure to L2 speakers (Dornyei, 2002). As a result, different theories with different perspectives were proposed regarding learners' motivation. Tae-II Pae (2008) found that instrumental orientation and external regulation are basically the same, whereas integrative orientation and intrinsic motivation are different. The former concerns not only intrinsic motivation (e.g. the favourable attitude toward the language), but extrinsic motivation as well.

Research has shown that instructional context strongly affects students' motivation. Instructional materials that are challenging, give students choices, and promote perceived autonomy and self-determination can have a positive effect on students' motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Hidi & Harackiewicz, 2000). Li (2003) argued that there are several strategies that teachers can employ to enhance autonomy, competence and relatedness in the classroom. One of these strategies is PBL approach. Mossuto (2009) argued that PBL is an instructional approach where students work in small collaborative groups when learning is driven by open-ended and authentic tasks that encourage students to be involved in thinking.

Wang (2008) conducted a related study to the present study in which he sought to explore the relationship between intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation and English achievement. He constructed a scale of English learning motivation (particular Chinese context) called the Intrinsic/Extrinsic Motivation Scale of English Learning (I/EMSEL). The scale was administered to two samples of first-year non-English-majors. Factor analysis of the results revealed a multidimensional construct composed of motivation for knowledge, motivation

for challenge, internal fulfilment regulation and external utility regulation, together explaining 53.3% of the variance. Pearson correlations and multiple regression were then performed between different kinds of motivation and English achievement. The finding showed that autonomous extrinsic motivation correlated positively with intrinsic motivation and achievement, while controlled extrinsic motivation correlated negatively with them.

Dornyei (2008) argued that motivation is responsible for achievement in language learning and without adequate motivation, learners even with brilliant talent will not be able to fulfil this process of language acquisition even if they have good curriculum and teachers as well. Moreover, Hall (2011) argued that motivation is a key factor in order to establish a particular activity, where he states, “it is difficult to imagine anyone learning a language without some degree of motivation” (p.134).

Literature on motivation and classroom learning has shown that motivation plays an important role in influencing learning and achievement (Ames, 1990; Dweck, 1986).

Studies have also shown a positive relationship between motivation and students' learning outcome, grades, achievement, retention, and graduation (Mossuto, 2009). In this regard, Li (2013) argued that the more students are motivated toward their learning, the better they will succeed. For instance, Erdogan, Bayram and Deniz (2008) investigated the factors that affect 127 MBA Master's degree students enrolled in a web-based instruction program in Bilgi University. A survey method was employed through demographic information questionnaire and Web-Based Education Attitudes scale. Findings revealed that the more students are motivated, the more they better their degree course average grades points (GPA).

As discussed previously, language achievement particularly in a speaking course was found to be below expectation in Libya. As a result, majority of Libyan EFL students tend to change their major to other majors where they can study in Arabic language (Orafi & Borg, 2009). Alhmali (2007) argued that Libyan EFL learners, after the completion of their English courses in four years, are not able to speak even in simple English. He linked this weakness and failure to the teaching technique used in Libyan EFL classrooms (i.e. lecture-based learning approach), where students are seldom engaged in real tasks to speak due to the lack of motivation. In general, current motivational theories of SLA have been developed from the Western perspective and most data that have been collected are based

on learners who are from Western cultures. Thus, different findings may be obtained in this study, which is conducted in an Arab country.

#### **2.14 Speaking Skills**

Speech is defined as the universal means of oral communication that distinguishes humans from the rest of the animal kingdom, and is considered by linguists as the primary material for study, especially in oral communication situations. Therefore, a spoken language is a human language in which the words are uttered through the mouth. The success of any spoken communication is based on the simple process of listen, understand, and speak (Iyere, 2006).

Speaking is a very important skill in communication. It is the next logical step to listening in any language acquisition process. Effective speaking is the key to success in life. In other words, an effective speaker triumphs in other communication skills. It is, however, saddening that this all-important skill has not received adequate interest and attention in the teaching of English language from students, school authorities, and the government.

Speaking is one of the four-macro skills necessary for effective communication in any language, particularly when speakers are not using their mother tongue. As English is universally used as a means of communication, especially in the Internet world, English speaking skills should be developed along with other skills so that these integrated skills will enhance communication achievement both with native speakers of English and other members of the international community. Because of the significant role of speaking, Bailey (2005) and Goh (2007) detailed on how to enhance the development of speaking by the means of syllabus design, principles of teaching, types of tasks and materials, and speaking assessment. But from the experience of teaching in Libya, there is neglect of the speaking skill in many universities. In turn, this affects the students such that after having spent four or five years in the university, little or no impact is made on their spoken English. This is worse in non-conventional universities where the students see no need for the Use of English course.

Currently, the key factor in the area of second language is being able to use it and to communicate through it. The use of modern communicative language teaching

approaches in the language classrooms and the widespread use of English language, have increased the demands to have good communication skills, but the existence of some feelings in the learners may prevent them from achieving the desired goal (Tanveer, 2007). They take oral communication courses, and they are expected to perform well and develop their communication skills by the means of these courses. However, it has been observed that in EFL classrooms, especially in speaking courses, students are reluctant to use the foreign language (hereinafter referred to as L2) they have been learning. This has been a great challenge for EFL teachers for years and the teachers complain about their students' silence during oral communication courses, not only in the Libyan EFL setting.

Students do not adopt active speech roles in the classroom and these unwilling students are generally resistant to participate in speaking activities where they should be more talkative in order to develop their communication and speaking skills. The proficiency level of the students is not an affective factor either; and the problem exists among EFL learners from beginning to more advanced levels. There may be many factors preventing students from playing active roles in the classroom. The effect of reluctance has been the subject of a growing body of research which were mainly conducted among EFL contexts.

For instance, in 1992 Gaudart claimed that some teachers attribute learners' passiveness in the classroom discussions to lack of motivation. Gaudart (1992) further related low participation to learners' inability to function in oral communication. In as much as the students are living in a country where English is not an everyday language, they lack the practice for developing their communicative skills because the classroom is the only place where L2 students could practice the language they are learning; so, they need lots of practice. Liu and Littlewood (1997) found out that the more speaking activities in which students engaged, the higher they rate their ability to speak and vice versa; which indicates that students feel confident about their oral proficiency simply because they have had a lot of practice in speaking.

## **2.15 Speaking Skills among Libyan EFL Learners**

Arab EFLs are particularly identified as notorious in learning speaking English. Giving an assessment, Diaab (2016) reported that a body of research indicated that

Arab EFLs are incompetent in oral communication. The autor went on to assert that this is particularly the case with Libyan EFL learners that they encounter a lot of difficulty in speaking English According to him, in many instances In spite of long years of in learning English and in some cases building good linguistic knowledge, they fail to acquire oral communicative ability used in real life situations. Diaab attributed the negative situation to ineffectual teaching approaches in the Libyan classroom of speaking English. This problem manifests itself in teachers' overdependence on the traditional teaching approach which emphasizes volumes of linguistic input rather than oral communicative output. This is what led to what Malt and Wolff (2010) referred to as mute English learners, who can only read and write, but unable to speak. Accounting for the participants speaking difficulty, the results of his study show that the participants had insufficient exposure to the target language (i.e. English). And the frequent use of Arabic inside and outside classroom and lack of speaking activities.

Pathan, Aldersi and Alsout (2014) pointed out that of the four language skills name listening, speaking, reading and writing, speaking is the most crucial. This is because it enables the leaner to successfully establish communication in the target language, and that is why speaking is the focus of attention in teaching and learning a foreign language. But regrettably this skill according to the authors, is not easy with Arab EFL learners, and the Libyan EFL learners speak English with “ flavor of mother tongue”. And according to Pathan and Marayi (2016) most Libyan EFL students are not motivated to speak in English.

## **2.16 Techniques of Teaching Spoken English**

In the past, the focus in English as a second language (ESL) and English as foreign language (EFL) contexts used to be on methods such as grammar, translation, audio-lingual and more. For instance, the audio-lingual method which was developed around World War II, when governments realized that they needed more people who could conduct conversations fluently in a variety of languages, to work as interpreters, court-room assistants, and translators.

Another method used for teaching spoken language is Michael Thomas Method. This method is an audio-based teaching system developed by Michael

Thomas, a language teacher in the USA (Iyere, 2006). It was originally done in person, although since his death, it is done via recorded lessons. The instruction is done entirely in the student's own language, although the student's responses are always expected to be in the target language. The method focuses on constructing long sentences with correct grammar and building student confidence. There is no listening practice, and there is no reading or writing. The syllabus is ordered around the easiest and most useful features of the language, and as such is different for each language.

In addition, Contrastive Analysis method was also used in teaching spoken language. Linguists have tried to identify potential pronunciation difficulties of non-native speakers of a language by using contrastive analysis, which was popular in the 1950s and 1960s. The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis posits that by contrasting the features of two languages, the difficulties that a language learner might encounter can be anticipated (Crystal, 2003). Features of many languages were catalogued by linguists, but it was not possible to systematically predict which areas of English would be difficult for speakers of particular native languages. A less predictive version of the hypothesis was eventually put forth, which focused on cross-linguistic influence. Cross-linguistic influence claims that prior language experiences have an impact on the way a language is learned, but these experiences do not consistently have predictive value (Brown, 2000; Wardhaugh, 1970).

This period lasted for a very long time. Within the period, different methods and techniques were used. However, focus has recently shifted from those methods to communicative methods. The Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), also known as the Communicative Approach, emphasises interaction as both the means and the ultimate goal of learning a language. Despite a number of criticisms, it continues to be popular, particularly in Europe, where constructivists' views on language learning and education in general dominate academic discourse. Hymes (1971) defined communicative competence as a term in linguistics which refers to a language user's grammatical knowledge of syntax, morphology, phonology and the like, as well as social knowledge about how and when to use utterances appropriately. Within this process, communicative competence is a way of describing what a language speaker knows which enables him or her to interact effectively with others. Therefore, teachers should give more importance to teaching of the skills in integration in order to encourage the individuals become communicatively competent.

With the advancement of Communicative Language Teaching in foreign language, teaching the significance of speaking has been emphasized in ELT, where the goal of teaching is defined as developing communicative competence of learners by acquiring the linguistic means to accomplish the language through several functions. There are a number of factors relating to speaking skills to be considered for effective English speaking performance. Pronunciation, vocabulary, and collocations are singled out as important factors to be emphasized in building fluency for EFL speakers. Providing students with a variety of situations and frequent speaking tasks plays a significant role in the improvement of students' fluency when speaking (Kwan & Tam 2009). The communicative language teaching approach suits the different varieties of the PBL learning environment because students are allowed to use the target language to develop communicative competence.

### **2.17 Speaking Skills and the PBL Approach**

Scholars addressed the effectiveness of PBL approach in enhancing speaking skills in EFL classroom context (Wang, 2008; Rosalina, 2013; Rohim, 2014; Permatasari, 2013; Ahlfeldt, 2003; Jogthing, 2009). For example, Rosalina (2013) implemented the PBL approach in the English classroom of seventh grade in one of the universities in Indonesia to find out whether the use of PBL can improve students' speaking skill and to describe the classroom situation when problem-based learning is applied to teach speaking in the English classroom. Results found that the implementation of problem-based learning had improved students' speaking skill in different aspects namely grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary aspects.

Moreover, Rohim (2014) implemented PBL approach to improve the speaking skill of tenth year students of MA Al – Ma'arif Singosari Malang that have difficulties to respond to questions which are given by the teacher. The research was a quantitative–qualitative research in the form of classroom action research. The classroom action research used two cycles that include planning, action, observation, and reflection in each cycle. The samples of the study were tenth year students of MA Al-Maarif Singosari Malang i.e. 46 students of 20 male and 26 female students. The researcher applied four instruments to assess the students: observation checklist, field note, questionnaire, and test. The test was taken by two scorers (researcher and

collaborator) to increase better validity of the data. The findings showed that the speaking skill improved 23.37 (based on researcher's assessment) and 22.94 (based on collaborator assessment).

Furthermore, Permatasari (2013) finds out how PBL approach could improve the speaking skill of second graders of SMPN 1 Kawedanan, Magetan. Data collection was done using questionnaire, interview guide, field notes or observation sheets and students' worksheets. Findings revealed that group discussions helped students to improve their speaking skill because the discussions encouraged them to interact with their friends in small groups before they began to speak in a big group. Results of the study concluded that PBL approach is a successful approach in improving the speaking skills of the students.

Ahlfeldt (2003) examined the use of PBL approach in public speaking course in one of the public universities in America and compared it with traditional based learning approach. Results of the study showed that PBL is an effective method of instruction in the public speaking fundamentals course. Students in PBL were found to do better in speaking than those students in traditional classrooms. Moreover, students in PBL were engaged more in the course material and experience decrease in speaking anxiety than students in traditional classrooms.

Although this path of literature continues, and as far as the researcher is aware, none of the studies found in literature implemented the HPBL model (being the broad framework of all the variants of PBL) in the context of Libyan EFL classroom. Therefore, this study will be conducted by implementing the HPBL model in a speaking course at a Libyan university to examine how far the HPBL model can improve Libyan EFL learners' achievement in a speaking course.

It is argued that Libyan EFL learners are less motivated to learning English (e.g. Mohamed, 2014; Alhmali, 2007; Abidin, Mohammadi and Alzwari, 2012; Al-Zahrani, 2008). For example, Ihmuda (2014) reported based on interview data collected from 20 students that one of the main reasons why Libyan EFL learners are not motivated toward learning English is the teaching technique utilized in Libyan EFL classroom. That is, lecturers in EFL classrooms in Libya, only prepare students for examination following Lecture-Based Learning (LBL) approach. This in turn makes the educational purpose in Libya a matter of test-driven rather than cognitive one. Lecturers usually do not think of switching their teaching approach to other

available approaches such as PBL approach that can take the teaching process to different path and different outcomes as argued by many researchers (Albanese and Mitchell, 1993; Hmelo, Gotter & Bransford, 1994; Newman, 2006; Norman & Schmidt, 1992; Vernon & Blake, 1993).

Abidin et al. (2012) investigated quantitatively the Libyan EFL learners' attitude toward learning English in terms of behavioural, cognitive and emotional aspects. Students of the study were purposely chosen to include 180 EFL learners in one of the universities in the division of Elmergib, Zilten in west of Libya. Results revealed that the students have a somewhat negative attitude toward learning English. In addition, the mean scores of the three aspects of attitudes toward English among the respondents differed in that the mean score of Behavioural Aspect of Attitude (BAA) was lower than that of the Cognitive Aspect of Attitude and the Emotional Aspect of Attitude (EAA).

Moreover, Al-Zahrani (2008) examined the attitude of EFL learners toward learning English in another university. Data were collected through mixed methods research including questionnaire survey that was distributed to 120 EFL learners and semi-structured interview. Findings from the questionnaire survey revealed that most of the students had a negative attitude toward learning English. Interview data analysis revealed that the reason of such a negative attitude was simply a reaction toward the instructional and traditional techniques employed by English language lecturers in EFL classrooms in Libya.

The effectiveness of PBL approach as a teaching technique to motivate students toward speaking English is well documented by several scholars (e.g. Bas, 2011; Westwood, 2008; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Hidi & Harackiewicz, 2000; Li, 2003). For example, Bas (2011) investigated the effects of PBL approach on students' attitude toward learning English in the 9<sup>th</sup> grade English classroom in one of the schools in Turkey. Bas (2011) had employed the pre-post research model where data were obtained from 60 students in two different classrooms: 30 students represented the experimental group and the rest represented the control group. Findings revealed that, students who were taught English under PBL approach were the most motivated toward learning English in that they engaged in every possible task offered by the classroom.

Albeit the above studies had reported the reasons why Libyan EFL learners are not motivated to speak English and why Libyan EFL learners' language achievement is below expectations, none of them had taken a research action to tackle these problems. This warrants further research since motivation aspects among Libyan EFL learners affect Libyan EFL learners' educational outcomes. Therefore, this research intends to fill the gap. It implements the Hybrid Problem-Based Learning (HPBL), being a framework under the PBL approach in the context of EFL classroom in Libya, in an attempt to examine how far HPBL motivates Libyan EFL learners toward learning English, how far HPBL enhances Libyan EFL learners' language achievements in speaking course, and how far lecturers affect the Libyan EFL learners' motivation and language achievement under HPBL context.

From the literature presented so far, the following gaps have been identified. Libyan EFL undergraduates face a lot of challenges in speaking English. One of the main challenges is lack of motivation mainly due to the poor teaching approaches adopted by their lecturers. On the other hand, most of the studies that implemented any of the varieties of PBL are in medical science, engineering and other related fields. Very few are in language studies. In addition, most of the studies conducted using HPBL are in America, East-Asia and Europe. Very few are conducted in the Arab world. Therefore, this research will fill the gap that still exists in literature by implementing the HPBL model in the field of education. It will investigate how the HPBL model motivates Libyan EFL learners to English language.

## **2.18 Summary**

In this chapter, literature related to the study was reviewed. First, the theoretical underpinning of the HPBL model is highlighted and discussed. Definition of PBL and its features are presented. The chapter also discusses motivation in relation to speaking in a foreign language and some empirical studies on motivation. Finally, the chapter closes by highlighting speaking in a foreign language classroom and empirical studies on speaking.