THE EFFECTS OF ORAL COMMUNICATIVE ACTIVITY AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE ANXIETY ON WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE IN ENGLISH IN MALAYSIAN BASED LIBYAN SCHOOLS

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CA	Communicative Anxiety
CL	Cooperative Learning
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
CSs	Communication strategies
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ESL	English as a Second Language
FL	Foreign Language
FLA	Foreign Language Anxiety
FLCAS	Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale
FLE	Foreign Language Enjoyment
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
LP	Language Performance
OCA	Oral Communicative Activity
TEFL	Teaching English as a Foreign Language
WTC	Willingness to Communicate
ZPD	Zone of Proximal Development

LIST OF APPENDICES

KESAN AKITIVITI KOMUNIKASI LISAN DAN KEBIMBANGAN PADA BAHASA ASING KEATAS KEINGINAN UNTUK BERKOMUNIKASI DALAM BAHASA INGGERIS SEKOLAH LIBYA DI MALAYSIA

ABSTRAK

Kajian ini mengkaji kesan aktiviti komunikasi lisan, kebimbangan bahasa asing dan keseronokan terhadap kemahuan untuk berkomunikasi dalam Bahasa Inggeris dalam kalangan 68 pelajar tahun sembilan di sekolah-sekolah Libya di Malaysia. Kajian ini bertujuan untuk menentukan korelasi antara pemboleh ubah ini dan membandingkan perbezaan dalam prestasi perbualan sebelum dan selepas pelaksanaan aktiviti komunikasi lisan. Selain itu, persepsi guru terhadap intervensi juga dianalisis. Kajian ini menggunakan pendekatan campuran (mixed-methods) yang termasuk ujian pra, ujian pasca, survei, pengamatan kelas, dan temubual. Fasa kuantitatif dianalisis menggunakan arahan bootstrap dalam amos, korelasi pangkat Spearman, dan ujian Kruskal-Wallis; data kualitatif dianalisis menggunakan pendekatan analisis bertema. Hasil kajian menunjukkan bahawa aktiviti komunikasi lisan meramalkan keinginan pelajar untuk berkomunikasi dalam Bahasa Inggeris secara positif, dan keseronokan bahasa asing memainkan peranan yang signifikan dalam hubungan ini. Sebaliknya, perasaan cemas untuk menggunakan bahasa asing tidak memaparkan pengaruh yang ketara terhadap pelajar yang mengambil bahagian. Selain itu, kumpulan intervensi menunjukkan peningkatan yang ketara dalam penguasaan kosa kata. Penemuan kualitatif menunjukkan keberkesanan perbincangan kumpulan kecil, maklum balas pembetulan ralat, latihan bahasa, permainan, persekitaran positif, pemberian dorongan, dan kelimpahan kosa kata dalam meningkatkan prestasi ucap. Hasil kajian juga menunjukkan bahawa guru-guru di

sekolah-sekolah Libya berminat dalam pengajaran kosa kata. Tiga aspek pembelajaran dan penggunaan kosa kata dalam aktiviti bertutur telah diperhatikan, iaitu: pendedahan kepada kata-kata baru, kontekstualisasi kosa kata, dan amalan dalam menggunakan kosa kata yang telah dipelajari. Hasil kajian memberi kesa yang menggalakkan bagi kepelbagaian budaya dan bahasa dalam komunikasi serta menekankan peranan teori sosio-budaya Vygotsky (1978) dan teori pengembangan psikologi Fredrickson (1998) dalam pembelajaran bahasa. Kajian ini menitikberatkan hubungan yang kompleks antara faktor budaya, sosial, dan bahasa dalam pembelajaran dan komunikasi bahasa. Penglibatan dalam aktiviti komunikatif dapat membawa lebih keseronokan dan kemahuan untuk berkomunikasi dalam Bahasa Inggeris, yang menyumbang kepada pertumbuhan dan perkembangan kognitif secara peribadi.

THE EFFECTS OF ORAL COMMUNICATIVE ACTIVITY AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE ANXIETY ON WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE IN ENGLISH IN MALAYSIAN BASED LIBYAN SCHOOLS

ABSTRACT

The present study investigates the effects of oral communicative activity, foreign language anxiety and enjoyment on willingness to communicate in English among 68 Grade Nine students in Malaysian-based Libyan schools. The study seeks to determine the correlations between these variables and compare the differences in speaking performance before and after implementing the oral communicative activity. Moreover, the teachers' perceptions of the intervention were analyzed. The study used a mixed-methods approach that included pre-tests, post-tests, surveys, classroom observations, and interviews. The quantitative phase was analyzed using the bootstrap command in AMOS, Spearman's rank correlation and the Kruskal-Wallis test; the qualitative data were analyzed using a thematic analysis approach. The results of the study indicated that oral communicative activity positively predicted students' willingness to communicate in English, and foreign language enjoyment played a significant role in mediating this relationship. In contrast, foreign language anxiety did not display any notable influence on participating students. Additionally, the intervention group showed significant improvement in vocabulary acquisition. The qualitative findings showed the effectiveness of small group discussions, error correction feedback, language practice, games, positive environments, reinforcement, and vocabulary abundance in enhancing speaking performance. The results also revealed that teachers in Libyan schools are keen on vocabulary teaching. Three pillars

of vocabulary learning and use in speaking activities were observed, namely: exposure to new words, contextualization of vocabulary, and practice using learned vocabulary. The findings of this study highlighted the potential impact of cultural and linguistic diversity on communication and the role of Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory and Fredrickson's (1998) broaden-and-build theory in language learning. The study provides valuable insights into the complex interplay among cultural, social, and linguistic factors in language learning and communication. Engagements in communicative activities can lead to greater enjoyment and willingness to communicate in English, contributing to personal growth and cognitive development.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overview

English language teachers use a wide range of teaching methods to help students improve their spoken language. Among them the grammar-translation method, audio-lingual and communicative language teaching (Orafi, 2015). The communicative language teaching approach derives from theory of language as communication and its goal is ‘communicative competence’. Brown (2001) defined CLT as a unified but broad and theoretically informed set of principles on the nature of language learning and teaching. According to Spada (2007), CLT is a meaning-based, learner-centered approach to L2 teaching where fluency is prioritized over accuracy, focusing on understanding, and producing messages. It is an approach that includes several methods based on communicative activities that need to be applied in a stress-free environment: for instance, oral communicative activities. Students' participation in communicative interaction is at the center of these teaching methods which improves communication skills. Considering the possible benefits of participation for students, the target language education should concentrate on enhancing students' willingness to communicate (WTC) so that they would maximize the value of genuine language interactive activities (MacIntyre, Dörnyei, Clément & Noels, 1998). Language learners in real-world contexts display varying levels of WTC. The ways in which instructors contribute to student reluctance or WTC in English within the restrictions of the school system (e.g., curriculum, time, and policy) is a critical subject that demands further attention.

The English curriculum in Libya was intended to enhance the EFL teaching status involving communicative language teaching (CLT) However, concerns regarding CLT practices remain despite over years of implementation. The English language curriculum included activities to encourage student to practice the target language; however, the implementation of these activities is challenging to teachers (Orafi, 2015). Arguably, the allotted time did not help students develop English speaking performance in the classroom (Aloreibi & Carey, 2017). The researcher concentrated on the student as the primary concern in the learning process, focusing on the role of the instructor and the technique of teaching the materials during the treatment. The methods used in the Libyan classroom were based on grammar translation method (GTM) and Audiolingual Method (ALM) and did not meet requirements for learning the language for communication (Orafi & Borg, 2009; Aloreibi & Carey, 2017; Owen & Razali, 2018).

1.2 Study Background

Facilitating foreign language (FL) learners' Willingness to Communicate (WTC) in English within classrooms denoted one of the primary FL teaching targets (MacIntyre, Burns & Jessome, 2011; Yashima, MacIntyre & Ikeda, 2018; Wang, et al., 2019). Despite multiple studies on the different variables impacting language learners' WTC in FL within classrooms (MacIntyre, Burns, & Jessome, 2011; Yashima, MacIntyre & Ikeda, 2018), research concerning Oral Communicative Activity (OCA) effects on WTC remained scarce. Studies on how the aforementioned variable [Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA) and Foreign Language Enjoyment (FLE)] simultaneously impacted WTC in actual classroom interactions also remained lacking. As studies on the simultaneous impacts of FLA and FLE on FL learners were relatively

recent study areas following (Dewaele, Witney, Saito & Dewaele, 2018). This research aimed to examine the impact of OCA and emotions on WTC in English within the Libyan schools in Malaysia.

Incongruencies involving OCA implementations in classrooms were also identified. Aomr, Seng and Kapol (2020a) asserted that Libyan school teachers failed to apply OCA following multiple reasons, mainly large class size. Aloreibi and Carey (2017) further contended that insufficient time and the prevalence of the Arabic language in English classes among students and teachers were the primary reasons. The lack of OCA implementations in classrooms will have significant impact on the oral language communication and influence students' WTC. The key factor underlying OCA implementation within the Libyan setting serve to elevate WTC in English to enhance speaking performance among Libyan students and improve teachers' optimization of relevant class activities. In this vein, this study significantly contributes to Libyan schools in Malaysia in examining the effects of OCA and emotions on WTC in English.

1.2.1 The Libyan Education System

Initially, EFL began in 1946 during the British administration, it was taught as one of the main school subjects in the fifth and sixth year of primary school (between 1954 and 1973). Although EFL was confined to preparatory and secondary schools from 1954, preparatory schools with students from age 12 were re-introduced in 1973. Notably, a new policy banning English teaching between 1985 and 1986 following political concerns and frictions between Gaddafi (the Libyan president) and Western nations adversely influenced the Libyan education sector. The decade-long

discontinuation of English teaching across all sectors (following the ban) (Aloreibi & Carey, 2017) created a major gap involving English language teaching in Libya. Although many students' academic progress was negatively affected, another policy reintroduced the English curriculum in the 1990s across all educational sectors (from preparatory schools) following improved Libya-Western nations rapport (Imssalem, 2001).

Following a policy review by the Libyan Committee for Higher Education on teaching the English language in schools, a novel English language curriculum was presented for basic and intermediate stages. Another shift involving English teaching policies occurred in the 2000s where the English language curriculum was introduced in Grades Five and Six (without any alterations to the curriculum from Grades Seven to Nine). As English was introduced to primary school (grade five and six) between 2006 and 2007, the introduction proved advantageous for Grade Nine students with an established curriculum while most lower levels could be regarded for beginners. In this vein, that English curriculum was introduced without professional development programs (for school-teachers) or training courses (for university lecturers) (Aloreibi & Carey, 2017).

The General Peoples' Committees of Education (2008) denoted that English teaching quality was questionable following vulnerabilities (teaching approaches, teacher qualifications, and insufficient access to pedagogical and teaching and learning methods) in essential educational system factors. As many teachers remained reliant on conventional approaches that emphasized rote learning (Alhmali, 2007), governmental aid was offered to teachers without relevant professional qualifications. Despite the termination of scholarship programs between the mid-1980s and 2008 that

disrupted the development of Libyan universities, 4,800 Libyan students were awarded scholarships to pursue further studies abroad in 2008.

Currently, most English teachers at primary, preparatory, and secondary Libyan schools graduated from Libyan universities or higher institutes. Although graduates between the 1970s and early 1980s were trained for four years in training institutions (AboFarwa, 1987), teacher training began in educational colleges from 1995 (Ahmad, 2012). Additionally, many teachers faced different complexities in English language teaching and learning. Given that Libya encompassed an Arabic-speaking society, the medium of education (even in some English classes) potentially induced intricacies from Arabic language impacts. The lack of highly qualified English language teachers in Libyan schools also caused multiple concerns (Ahmad, 2012). In Ali (2008), English language teachers in Libya were inadequately exposed to the target language for communication reasons. Furthermore, training and supporting programs were typically organized in inconducive environments.

Many Libyan classroom were poorly equipped without overhead projectors, computers, televisions, charts, maps, or even lighting. For classrooms with lighting, the hours-long power cut could adversely impact educational contexts. As the education sector was badly affected by the Libyan war (school damages and corruption), such inconducive contexts adversely influenced both students and teachers. Emotionally, students required more psychological support from teachers and families who needed to cautiously manage conditions resembling anxiety. In this vein, conducive atmospheres and efficient method utilization were deemed necessary. Following Muijs and Reynolds (2011), positive teacher-student rapport, conducive settings, and "specific approaches to creating a classroom environment that fosters the learning for all pupils" (p. 204) denoted conducive environments. As a whole, society

requires time and effort to minimize the implications of both war and terror for a safer and more secure feeling within and outside classrooms. In Blackburn (2015), teachers needed to “encourage positive social and emotional skills” (p. 128) as previously disappointing experiences could be indefinitely perpetuated. For example, student profiles could be established for both teaching and learning aids.

Given that Libyan parents were legally required to register the children in school, Libyan education was mandatory for both genders. The present Libyan education system encompassed three stages: 1) primary and preparatory levels from grades one to six (six to 12 years old) and seven to nine (13 to 15 years old). 2) secondary level from grades 10 to 12 (16 to 18 years old), and 3) higher education or tertiary-level encompassing undergraduate and postgraduate students. Although Libyan education is free for Libyan citizens in the public sector, enrolment fees were required for private school students.

In the United Nations General Assembly (2015), “Libya has kept education compulsory and free for boys and girls alike” (p.6). The Libyan education system encompassed five essential stages: kindergarten, primary, preparatory, secondary, and university. Kindergarten involved students between four and five years old. The nationwide establishment of primary, preparatory, and secondary schools led to the steady increase of Libyan schools (Elabbar, 2011). The first nine-years stage encompassed students from six years old (six years at primary level and three years at preparatory level). Students progressed to secondary schooling (divided into vocational and secondary education) following basic education. Essentially, three years of study must be completed in both education types. Students must also pass the national examination for a secondary school certificate to pursue tertiary education. The next stage (undergraduate education) encompassed two primary phases: university

(a minimum of four years) and higher technical training and vocational institutions (a minimum of three years) (Rhema & Miliszewska, 2010). Notably, Libyan undergraduate education received government funding. The Libyan educational system continuously encountered incompetent teachers, a limited curriculum, and evident propensities to comply with conventional rote learning (Elabbar, 2011). The reliance on foreign Arab professionals and teachers to bridge the teaching gaps was also undeniable.

1.2.1(a) The Libyan Education Policy Objectives

As most Libyans were not educated between the 1960s and 1970s, specific measures were taken by the Libyan government to enhance the education sector. For example, the General People's Committee of Education (GPCE, 2008) issued general objectives for Libyan education in schools, such as emphasis on language learning (see GPCE General People's Committee of Education 2008: pp.4-5). Some of the aforementioned aims facilitated local students' English learning for communication with foreigners. The Libyan educational policy specified mandatory and free education for all Libyan citizens, thus leading to more Libyan students attending school (particularly at primary and preparatory levels).

English teaching in Libya began in 1942 during the British administration. As the L2 in Libya was Italian at the time, the British attempted to substitute English with Italian. The attempt failed as the English teaching policy by the British differed from the Italian counterpart. Thus, Libyans continued employing Italian despite many efforts from the British governance to teach English by engaging Libyans in British military bases for work. The British governance succeeded in substituting Italian with English by presenting English as an FL within the Libyan school curriculum in 1952.

Although English was acknowledged as a FL by the Libyan public education for preparatory and secondary levels, Italian was still utilised by Libyans. Notably, English was introduced from grade five in 1966 when the United States of America (USA) and the United Kingdom (UK) provided native English teachers following insufficient English language teachers in Libya. Notwithstanding, the programme was discontinued in 1969.

Barton (1968) denoted that although the Libyan government reflected a substantial interest in English teaching and educational enhancement, the interest decreased in 1969 with emphasis on Arabic teaching standards in schools. More measures were taken against English language utilisation. For example, shopkeepers were forbidden by the authorities to even use English signage. Although English teaching resumed in the 1970s at middle and high levels until 1986, the language was taught by unqualified Libyan staff (History, Geography, or Social Sciences teachers). When English teaching and learning were forbidden by the Libyan Ministry of Education in 1986, English books in all Libyan schools were gathered and burned in squares and streets. English language teachers in Libya were then made to teach other subjects, perform office work, stay at home, or retire.

Although English was introduced to both preparatory and secondary schools following the ban, individuals without an English major were recruited following insufficient English teachers (one of the intricacies of teaching English in Libya). English textbooks were also too simplified and outdated. As English-major teachers had not been teaching English for a decade, the teaching approaches and linguistic knowledge were outdated and limited. Another complexity for teachers involved the change in English textbooks that confused English language teachers. In response to some of the aforementioned intricacies, various English language centers were

established in 1996 to train teachers. Notably, the program trainers were neither native speakers nor reputable professors. Contracts were signed with Arabic teachers of English although some did not major in English education. Despite the limited progress observed from such training programs, Aloreibi and Carey (2017) asserted that "Libya is not the poorest performing Arabic country in terms of its English performance; it is intermediate in the fifth position out of ten Arabic countries for both speaking and overall competence." (p.100).

As the Libyan educational system followed a highly standardized and centralized top-down style, the Ministry of Education in Tripoli (the capital city of Libya) was the main education authority nationwide. Regardless, the ministry has now been divided into two areas: Tripoli and eastern Libya. Each ministry was responsible for decisions and policies on funding, establishment of educational institutions across specific areas, educational and cultural foundations, curriculum development, school admission regulations, teacher employment, teacher training and development, monitoring systems, and scholarship offers (Orafi & Borg, 2009).

Specifically, the Curriculum Department in the Ministry of Education was required to manage curricular-oriented decisions and produce student textbooks and teacher guides. Notably, teachers were confined by guides and regulations from the Ministry of Education to teach the textbooks (Altaieb, 2013). Hamdy (2007) denoted that some of the curricular-oriented decisions issued by the ministry were "unplanned changes of curricula and structures" (pp.55-59) as the curricula were altered four times within a decade. Furthermore, most of the alterations disregarded training programs and pertinent teacher preparations. Elabbar (2011) affirmed that the multiple unplanned shifts (curricula adjustments and specializations) performed between 2000 and 2010 instigated multiple complexities for students and teachers. The government

established many Libyan-curriculum schools abroad for the enrolment of Libyan children. The school staff were mostly Libyans with Arabic as the instruction medium. In 2018, The Tripoli Ministry of Education (responsible for scholarships and studying abroad) issued a list of approximately 40 recognized Libyan schools worldwide for the study year 2018-2019. Specifically, 15 schools were located in England, 16 were in various European nations, seven were in Africa, one in North America, one in South America, and six in Malaysia.

1.2.1(b) EFL in The Libyan Schools Worldwide

Teaching and learning EFL in Libya and in Libyan schools worldwide is not a new phenomenon as English was incorporated as a compulsory school subject into different grades or levels at various periods. In the 1990s, students were required to study English from grade seven at Libyan preparatory schools. In the 2000s, EFL teaching was taught from grade five at primary schools. Then, the Ministry of Education has presented English from grade one (six years old) since the 2018 / 2019 study year. Given that "Libyan English teachers have not been able to help their students of English to achieve the objectives of the new curricula" (Aloreibi & Carey, 2017: p.14), English language learners and teachers faced multiple concerns in EFL teaching and learning. Harmer (2007) claimed that Arabic speakers encountered complexities in both written and spoken English. Although communication denoted an essential skill, it was empirically stated that most Libyan students struggled to interact following low self-confidence and engagement in English language classrooms (Ahmad, 2012; Tantani, 2012; Dalala, 2014). Likewise, Ahmad (2012) maintained that communicative competence enhancement and progress among secondary school students remained lacking. Ineffective teaching and assessment

could induce low student performance albeit with the presence of English textbooks with communication enhancement activities.

Most Libyan English language teachers adopted a conventional teacher-centered approach. Following Dalala, (2014), teacher-centered methods in EFL teaching implied teachers as controllers instead of facilitators. Regardless, English textbooks encompassed pair and group work and problem-solving activities that required a notable shift from teacher-centered to student-centered learning techniques. In Jones (2007), a classroom is "a place where we [teachers] consider the needs of the students, as a group and as individuals, and encourage them to participate in the learning process all the time" (p.2). Although EFL was taught at an early age, Libyan students' speaking skills (emphasized in this research) required more mastery. As textbook activity implementations required more student-centeredness for engagement and assessment, most students found it challenging to interact freely in English. The concern was attributable to inconducive EFL teaching and learning atmospheres that potentially instigated ineffective communication among students. As speaking denoted a vital skill and language-learning component, teachers (as frontliners) needed to catalyze improved speaking among students. Brown (2007a) indicated that appropriate teaching method adoptions could support learners to attain target language competency.

Although Libyan education and learning materials are free for public school students, English textbooks have constantly undergone alterations since 1998. The English language textbook series before 1986 (English for Libya) encompassed six complementary textbooks from grades seven to 12 that developed English language knowledge with an emphasis on basic sentence structures (Barton, 1986). For example, teachers introduced novel vocabulary and grammar at the start of each unit. As the

units were interrelated, teaching the series was not difficult. Three textbooks from the previous series were initially taught in the late 1980s and in the mid and late 1990s failed to fulfil learners' communicative requirements with more focus on reading. In this vein, the Ministry of Education attempted to develop other English textbook versions.

Following much emphasis on the old version in line with vocabulary, grammatical structures, and translations, the Grammar Translation Method was employed by teachers. As the aforementioned teaching strategy did not reflect substantial progress in teaching English within the Libyan context, a new textbook version was produced in the 2000s for students from grades five to 12 in the Libyan schools worldwide to enhance communicative English learning and teaching. The textbooks series were collaboratively developed by an English publishing company in the UK and the Libyan representatives of the National Education and Research Centre. Given that English was introduced as fragmented activities in that English textbooks compared to the past series, vocabulary and grammatical structures were isolated and distinct from one another. Following the substantial changes (teaching approaches, curriculum materials, and language theories on teaching and learning) reflected by novel curriculum principals, teachers were required to alter teaching-oriented thoughts and underlying beliefs. In line with previous literature, several curriculum implementation issues were still raised albeit being introduced over the past years (Embark, 2015; Najeeb, 2013) due to curriculum complexities and inappropriate atmospheres or teaching approaches. In Orafi and Borg's (2009), new textbooks required students to memorize vocabulary and grammatical structures, read the texts, and translate the text into Arabic for comprehension. Markee (1997) proposed that curriculum planners and educational policymakers should emphasize planning and

initiation concerns and teachers' implementation challenges. Likewise, Carless (2004) urged for more emphasis on teachers' incorporation of pedagogical shifts in the education system.

Each class in every grade in Libya and in the Libyan schools worldwide consisted of three-four English language periods (between 30 to 45 minutes per session). The English language curriculum in Libyan schools inside and outside Libya involved course books, workbooks, and audio recordings for listening activities. Typically, students utilized the course books in the classroom under teachers' guidance while workbooks were employed for further practice following the lesson. For example, the Grade Nine course book encompassed 10 units to be completed within the academic year. Every unit entailed a particular topic that was categorized into eight lessons. Every theme was subsequently constructed based on vocabulary, grammar, reading, speaking, and writing. Particularly, the speaking lessons incorporated into each unit required students to employ recently learned novel words and expressions in actualizing the known language.

The speaking activities in the Libyan curriculum could be integrated with role-playing, reading sample conversations, topic discussions, or problem-solving. The curriculum emphasized teachers' and students' functional language utilization where multiple English communicative activities (pair work) were highly suggested. On another note, the teacher guide encompassed detailed lesson plans, additional teaching recommendations, and answer keys for exercises. Although English for Libya was published by Garnet Publishing Ltd., the Ministry of Education in Libya undertook innovation matters and curriculum alterations that impacted teachers, parents, and students (Aldabbus, 2008). As this research aimed to investigate Grade Nine students

(specifically on communicative skills), teacher guide prerequisites required a further introduction that will be discussed below.

Teachers were required to employ CLT strategies in line with communication as the new version focus. Low proficiency and insufficient qualification among English language teachers in Libya induced complexities in teaching novel communicative materials (Orafi & Borg, 2009). Perceivably, the new versions corresponded to English cultures that most Libyan teachers had little or no awareness of. The new textbook also required teachers to use English in classrooms and engage students in communication (English dialogues) involving different functional circumstances. The activities contained in the current textbook involved pair and peer work and problem-solving tasks that needed various teaching methods. Given the teacher-centered teaching technique in Libya, students were mostly controlled by teachers. Contrarily, the new textbook emphasized student-centeredness. Such a context is "a place where we [teachers] consider the needs of the students, as a group and as individuals, and encourage them to participate in the learning process all the time" (Jones, 2007: p.2). As Saleh (2002) indicated that Libyan classrooms were only controllable through teacher-centeredness, the student-centered approach was deemed inappropriate and challenging in the Libyan context.

The English language teachers sent by the publishing company provided a week-long session training on the English curriculum for local counterparts. Specifically, the teachers were required to comply with instructions in the teacher guide and curriculum for accurate teaching. Nevertheless, the sessions proved insufficient for teachers' preparation towards the recommended changes (Lamb, 1996). Observably, "if teachers are to implement an innovation, it is essential that they have a thorough understanding of the principles and practices of the proposed change"

(Carless, 1998: p.355). As such, investigations on the systematic principles of English language curriculum implementations within public Libyan schools proved vital. Macfarlane (2000) noted that textbooks were "designed to consolidate and further develop an understanding of the grammatical system, to increase the students' range of active vocabulary and to extend their ability in the four language skills of reading, listening, speaking, and writing" (p.1). As teachers monitored and managed the classroom, the individuals were required to facilitate, assist, and offer explanations and feedback to learners towards task attainment. The aforementioned roles resembled educators' responsibilities in CLT utilization as "the role of the teacher in the classroom is to facilitate the communicative process between all participants in the classroom and between these participants and various activities and texts" (Breen & Candlin, 1980: p.99). The curriculum principles were intricate for EFL Libyan teachers in terms of teaching approaches, resources, and EFL learning and teaching theories (Orafi, 2008). Various concerns regarding CLT practices remain despite approximately two decades of implementation (Embark, 2015, Najeeb, 2013, Orafi & Borg, 2009).

Teachers were frequently blamed for inefficient communicative teaching (regarded as an optimal teaching strategy). Notably, teachers continued encountering obstacles during implementation (Orafi, 2015). The education-based parties involved in curriculum planning and policymaking were also reminded not to merely emphasize planning and initiation issues, but the individuals were urged to consider the potential conundrums and obstacles during curriculum implementation (Carless, 2004; Markee, 1997; Orafi, 2015). Arguably, the assigned duration failed to facilitate English oral communication practices in classrooms (Aloreibi & Carey, 2017). In the research context, the preparatory education level was emphasized, specifically Grade Nine

students who were transitioning from the preparatory stage to the secondary counterpart.

Past works of literature demonstrated low engagement with English in classrooms among Libyan EFL learners (Ahmad, 2012; Aloreibi & Carey, 2017; Aomr, Seng & Kapol, 2020a; Dalala, 2014; Tantani, 2012). Ringbom (1987) identified insufficient possibilities of employing the language in authentic circumstances among learners despite several years of exposure to English learning. Additionally, studies were conducted on students who failed to utilize the target language following anxiety and other negative emotions while disregarding positive emotions. Ahmad (2012) contended that communicative improvement and progress among Libyan students were disappointing. Diaab (2016) outlined oral communication as a conundrum encountered by Libyan students following linguistic and psychological obstacles. For example, Diaab's (2016) study demonstrated that frequent L1 utilization and inadequate exposure to the English language across various study levels substantially impacted Libyan EFL students' oral communication complexities. As such, discussion on alternate EFL implementations, learning English, and similar settings albeit environmental elements proved necessary. Diaab (2016) also stated other influencing factors (insufficient speaking activity implementations and teachers' oblivion towards fluency while over emphasizing precision). Conventional approaches in teaching English within the Libyan context were also highlighted by Diaab (2016) where teachers' dependence on conservative teaching led to linguistic input instead of communicative output. In this vein, Wolff (2010) described individuals "who can only read and write but are unable to speak" as 'mute English learners' (p. 338). Meanwhile, Orafi (2008) mentioned that oral communication was neglected as vocabulary and grammar teaching was significantly emphasized by EFL teachers in Libya.

1.2.1(c) Libyan schools in Malaysia

The government of Libya has established several foreign schools around the world, called Libyan Schools. These schools provide education for Libyan students who are living abroad, as well as children of Libyan diplomats and expatriates. The Libyan Schools in Malaysia are some of these schools. According to the Libyan School KL website (https://www.libyanschoolkl.com/), these schools follow the Libyan curriculum and cater to students from kindergarten to grade 12 and provide a wide range of academic programs, including science, mathematics, social studies, and languages. Libyan schools abroad usually follow the curriculum set by the Libyan Ministry of Education. The curriculum is designed to help Libyan students maintain their cultural and educational ties to Libya while living abroad. The first Libyan school in Malaysia has been introduced for three decades (Libyan School KL website). It is located in Klang Valley, and it follows the Libyan Ministry of education and teaches the Libyan curriculum for the primary, preparatory, and secondary levels (starts from kindergarten to grade 12) (Libyan School KL website). It is similar as in actual Libyan school in Libya. Based on the need for more schools because of the increase of Libyans in Malaysia. Currently, there are six Libyan schools in Malaysia five of them located in Klang Valley area (three in Ampang and two in Kajang) and only one is located in the southern area of Malaysia in the state of Johor Bahru. The total number of students in these six schools is 632. The language used to teach in the schools is Arabic except for the English subject, teachers use English in the class. Teaching English in the Libyan schools in Malaysia is similar to counterpart in Libya following the same curriculum and using the same books and instructions. The syllabus is based on English subject in Libya and the activities and texts, and the materials are exactly what they have been doing in Libya (Libyan School KL website). On the other hand, there

are other factors because the two contexts may differ (Libya and Malaysia) which pick up the uniqueness of the study because the study has been done in the Malaysian context.

1.3 Problem Statement

One of the most substantial complexities that academicians and scholars attempted to examine was EFL learners' WTC in English within classrooms, emphasizing influencing factors (Khajavy, Macintyre & Barabadi, 2017). Nevertheless, literature shows that most Libyan EFL students face obstacles in communicating in the English language despite spending several years learning the language (Hamuda, 2016; Aomr & Kapol, 2020). This problem is testified to the idea that Arabic is the students' native language and English is used as a foreign language, therefore, many Libyan students are unable to converse in the target language. Although the students' first language is a factor that cannot be changed since the native first language is acquired from childhood, the classroom environment, however, is a factor that can be enhanced to increase WTC in English among Libyan learners in a foreign language context (Khajavy's et al., 2017; Hamuda, 2016; Aomr & Kapol, 2020).

The difficulty of English language speaking is also evident in the Libyan schools located in Malaysia (Owen & Razali, 2018). This problem has been highlighted by previous studies, however, literature revealed gaps in studies related to this issue, inspiring the researcher to pursue this research to encourage further investigation and enhance curricula design and teacher training. Libyan students studying in Malaysia continue to struggle with speaking the English language effectively, due to the lack of OCA application as part of the curriculum (Owen &

Razali, 2018; Halai et al., 2022). The lack of OCA in EFL Libyan classrooms can be identified as a contributory factor to poor speaking skills (Aloreibi & Carey, 2017). Additionally, certain research conducted in Malaysia and Libya suggests that Libyan students need to strengthen their English-speaking skills (Halali, et, al., 2022). Due to inadequate English language teaching and learning in Libyan education, Libyan students in Malaysia encountered difficulties engaging in effective academic discussions (Halali, et, al., 2022). Yet, little research on speaking among Libyan students in the Malaysian context has been conducted, including those by Owen & Razali (2018) and Halali et al. (2022).

The study of Khajavy's et al. (2017) on WTC in English involved variables such as enjoyment, anxiety, and WTC in English. The classroom environment was the fourth variable which was summarized in three elements (teacher support, students' cohesiveness, and task orientation). Despite the groundbreaking contribution of Khajavy's et al. (2017) study on the relationship between FLA, FLE, and WTC in English, and classroom environment, several research gaps still exist. Firstly, there is a lack of studies that utilize qualitative research methods to explore the subjective experiences of learners in the classroom. Secondly, previous studies have mostly focused on the role of the teacher and classroom activities in promoting language learning, ignoring the potential impact of training programs for adequate OCA implementation. Thirdly, the context of the study may also play a crucial role in influencing the relationship between the variables. For instance, learners in different cultural and linguistic backgrounds may perceive enjoyment, anxiety, and WTC differently, affecting their overall speaking outcomes.

Therefore, further research is needed to explore these research gaps and provide a more comprehensive understanding of the complex relationship between

enjoyment, anxiety, WTC, and implementation of OCA. The interplay between these factors is essential and can influence each other. For example, engaging in oral communicative activities can reduce anxiety and enhance learning enjoyment, leading to an increased willingness to communicate. Conversely, high levels of anxiety or a lack of enjoyment in language learning can inhibit learners' willingness to engage in communication. The current study, therefore, takes into account the three variables to foster a positive learning environment and promote willingness to communicate in English. Similarly, it is also important to gain insight into evidence-based strategies that is practical in the Malaysian setting.

As such, this study aimed to examine the impact of OCA and emotions on WTC in English among Grade Nine students in Malaysian-based Libyan schools. While previous studies suggest that oral communication activities and enjoyment of language learning can boost willingness to communicate in English (Khajavy, Macintyre & Barabadi, 2017), there is lacked research on how these factors impact Libyan students' WTC in English in Malaysian-based Libyan schools. The study investigates the impact of OCA, FLA, and FLE on the WTC in English among Grade Nine students in Malaysian-based Libyan schools and examines the correlations between variables. The study also analyzes the difference in speaking before and after the OCA implementation and analyzes teachers' perceptions of OCA impact on student speaking performance.

Only one Libyan study indicates that communication activities implementation could improve vocabulary acquisition among Libyan students in Malaysia (Owen & Razali, 2018). Their finding is consistent with (Dewi et al, 2016; Efrizal, 2012; Jue, 2010; Utomo, 2016). This can be attributed to the fact that such activities require the use of diverse terminologies to accomplish the assigned tasks (Owen & razali 2018).

There is a need for further investigation into the causes of increased vocabulary, which has been acknowledged by scholars above. The study suggests that classroom observations and teacher perceptions can aid in determining the factors that contribute to improved vocabulary. However, it also acknowledges that there is a void in research on this topic, and deeper analysis is needed to understand the root cause of the issue. Previous research on Libyan English learners in Malaysia has primarily examined undergraduate and graduate students (e.g., Halali, et al., 2022), with some focus on secondary school levels (e.g., Owen & Razali, 2018). However, the preparatory school level (e.g., Grade Nine) concern has not been discussed yet, so there is a need to explore the preparatory school level. This research gap is the lack of studies on the effectiveness of OCA implementation in improving vocabulary acquisition among Libyan students. Therefore, there is a need for additional research to explore and validate the impact of OCA implementation on the vocabulary acquisition of Libyan students in Malaysia.

In the Malaysian context, the two early studies that have concentrated on Libyan students' speaking abilities are Owen and Razali (2018) and Halali et al. (2022). They demonstrated that Libyan students in Malaysia encountered communication barriers primarily attributed to insufficient English language practice and teachers' reluctance to employ communicative activities during lessons. This setback had a direct impact on Libyan students' speaking skills. As such, this research emphasized OCA implementation as the current gap in Libyan classrooms following past studies (Aloreibi & Carey, 2017; Diaab, 2016). Following students improved speaking skills through communicative activities in vocabulary (Owen and Razali, 2018). This research employed a mixed-method approach as recommended by Owen and Razali (2018). Further investigation is required to determine the factors that contribute to

improved vocabulary and speaking skills, with a particular emphasis on the implementation of OCA in the classroom. Thus, this study aims to fill the gap by examining the difference in speaking performance upon the implementation of OCA among Grade Nine Libyan students in Malaysian-based schools and what could be the root cause behind the significant increase in vocabulary.

Another research gap suggested by Aomr et al. (2020a) that consistent English language usage in class increased WTC, but not all students reflected WTC in English. Most EFL Libyan students encountered complexities in EFL interactions, with task orientation and student cohesion positively impacting WTC. However, Libyan EFL teachers played a passive role in promoting communication due to large classroom sizes. The study recommended a program to methodically support teacher improvement for high student WTC in English. The current study highlighted the execution of OCA and the active involvement of teachers in practical programs after receiving training based on applications. Another study by Aomr et al., (2020b) investigated the relationship between motivation, anxiety, and WTC and discovered that the correlation between speaking anxiety and WTC was insignificant. The research identified a gap in the literature, and further analysis is recommended on the connection between speaking anxiety and WTC while considering additional variables to achieve significant outcomes. The present study introduced the OCA through teacher training. Moreover, the study included two new variables, namely FLE and OCA, in order to investigate the mediational role enjoyment, play between OCA and WTC in English among Grade Nine students in Malaysian-based Libyan schools, as advised by previous studies.

This research aimed to investigate the issues encountered by Grade Nine students who have been learning English as a school subject for five years. The study

is particularly significant because there has been no research conducted on this particular group of students neither in Libya nor in Malaysia. Notably, this research was performed in Malaysian-based Libyan schools. The study simultaneously considers four variables (OCA, FLA, FLE and WTC), this is yet to be studied at any level in the Libyan schools neither in Libyan nor Malaysian context. Two theories were employed in this research: Vygotsky's (1978) Sociocultural theory and Fredrickson's (1998) Broaden and Build theory. The research aims to provide insight for educators and policymakers in improving speaking performance among Libyan students.

1.4 Research Objectives

This research examined the impact of OCA and emotions on WTC in English within the Libyan schools in Malaysia. The research objectives are listed as follows:

1.4.1 To examine the impact of OCA, FLA and FLE, on WTC in English among Grade Nine students in Malaysian-based Libyan schools.

1.4.2 To determine the correlations between OCA, FLA, FLE and WTC in English among Grade Nine students in Malaysian-based Libyan schools.

1.4.3 To investigate the difference between students' WTC in English before and upon OCA implementation among Grade Nine students in Malaysian-based Libyan schools.

1.4.4 To analyze the teachers' perceptions on the strategies used in the OCA intervention among the Grade Nine students' performance in Malaysian-based Libyan schools.

1.5 Research Questions

This research intended to examine the impact of OCA and emotions on WTC in English for high WTC in English among Grade Nine students in Malaysian-based Libyan schools. The study questions are listed as follows:

1.5.1: To what extent do OCA and emotions impact WTC in English among Grade Nine students in Malaysian-based Libyan schools?

1.5.2: What is the relationship between OCA, FLA, FLE, and WTC in English among Grade Nine students in Malaysian-based Libyan schools?

1.5.3: Is there a significant difference between students' speaking performance before and upon OCA implementation in class among Grade Nine students in Malaysian-based Libyan schools?

1.5.4: What are the teachers' perceptions on the OCA intervention strategies used for the Grade Nine students' performance in Malaysian-based Libyan schools?

1.6 Scope of Study

Similar to other studies, this research reflected specific delimitations. First, the study sample (Grade Nine students in Malaysian-based Libyan preparatory schools) was limited with approximately five schools across Malaysia. The sixth school was excluded because it has only one student in Grade Nine. Therefore, this research examined OCA and emotions (anxiety and enjoyment) impacts on WTC in English with certain restrictions (only Grade Nine students in Malaysian-based Libyan schools were involved). So, foreign language enjoyment is considered as part of my study as well and one of four variables of this research.