

METHODOLOGY OF TEACHING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

- Vocabulary
- Grammar
- Pronunciation
- Language Skills



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PREFACE

All praise be to Almighty God for His blessings and guidance that have enabled the completion of this book entitled *“Methodology of Teaching English as a Foreign Language.”* This book is designed to provide a comprehensive understanding of various approaches, methods, and techniques used in teaching English as a foreign language. In the context of globalization, where cross-cultural communication skills are increasingly essential, mastering effective teaching methodology is a crucial foundation for educators to create engaging and meaningful learning experiences.

The author hopes that this book will serve as a valuable reference for students, pre-service teachers, and practitioners in the field of English language education. It not only discusses theoretical frameworks but also offers practical insights into classroom implementation. It is expected that this book will inspire readers to enhance their pedagogical competence, foster creativity in language teaching, and contribute to the development of professional, innovative, and globally minded English educators.

Bukittinggi, November 2025

Author

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CHAPTER 1: TEACHING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE



A. Introduction

In an era of rapidly growing globalization, English language proficiency is urgently needed in various areas of life, including education, business, and technology. As an international language, English plays an important role in bridging communication between nations. Therefore, teaching *English as a Foreign Language* (TEFL) is becoming increasingly relevant, especially in countries where English is not the primary language.

Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) is an approach and method aimed at non-native speakers living in countries where English is not the primary language. In contrast to TESL (Teaching English as a Second Language), which is usually applied in English-speaking countries, TEFL takes place in the student's home country, where interaction with native speakers is generally very limited or even non-existent. Therefore, learning in the context of TEFL requires strategies, approaches, and media that are carefully designed and innovative so that the learning process can take place effectively and enjoyably.

In TEFL teaching, the focus is not only limited to mastering language structures, but also includes cross-cultural understanding, communication skills, and the development of critical thinking skills. Students are expected to not only be able to use English technically, but also understand the context of its use in real life. By mastering the basic principles of TEFL and understanding the challenges that may arise during the teaching-learning process, teachers can create a learning environment conducive to learning. Conducive and able to foster students' motivation to continue developing their English language skills.

Since learners in this context generally do not have the opportunity to use English outside of the classroom, the learning process needs to be specifically designed. The strategy applied must overcome these limitations by creating an active and meaningful interaction space in the classroom, so that students can still experience authentic language even though they are far from the native speaker's environment.

Teaching activities in the context of TEFL are generally carried out in formal institutions such as schools, language training institutions, or through special programs in various countries. A TEFL teacher is not only required to have good English skills, but also to understand language teaching techniques, cultural backgrounds, and students' varied learning needs.

B. Common approaches

Some of the commonly used approaches in TEFL include:

- a. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT): Focus on using language for honest communication.
- b. Task-Based Learning (TBL): Using tasks as the core of learning activities.
- c. Grammar-Translation Method (GTM): Emphasis on translation and understanding of language structure.
- d. Total Physical Response (TPR): Combines language and physical movements for more natural learning.

The main challenges in TEFL include students' limited exposure to English outside of the classroom, differences in cultural and linguistic backgrounds, and varying learning motivations. Therefore, TEFL teachers must be creative in creating an interactive, fun, and contextual learning environment.

With the increasing need for English language skills globally, the role of teaching English as a foreign language is becoming increasingly important. Mastery of this language not only opens up educational and career opportunities for students but also broadens cultural insight and communication between nations.

Developed countries widely use English as an international language as a first or second language. Wikipedia (2023) states that as many as 61 countries on the six continents use English as an official language.

Some examples of countries that use English as a first language are South Africa, the Bahamas, Dominica, the Philippines, India, Ireland, Canada, Saint Lucia, New Zealand, Singapore, Australia, the United Kingdom, the United States, and many more (Wikipedia, 2023). Then, some examples of countries that use English as a second language are Brunei, Israel, Malaysia, Sri Lanka, and others (Wikipedia, 2023). However, even though English is used as a first and second language, many countries are still learning English as a foreign language, especially developing countries. Indonesia is one of the countries that learns English as a foreign language. EF Education First (on CNN Indonesia, 2022) ranks Indonesia in the 81st position as a country that is not fluent in English out of 111 countries. This is motivated by several things, such as 1) Lack of confidence. Some students may understand English grammar well, but their speaking skills are still poor. The main reason behind this problem is that Indonesians, or students in particular, are often too shy to start a conversation in English and are afraid of making mistakes; 2) Most Indonesians still do not have adequate English vocabulary. This is due to their little enthusiasm for reading; 3) Lack of exercise. People think their confidence in speaking English is low and their English vocabulary is inadequate. This makes them lose interest in practicing English (Khairunas, 2022).

From the previous description, it can be concluded that learning English in Indonesia is very important, mainly because it requires encouragement from within students and support from the educational environment. As a foreign language, English demands an attractive and appropriate teaching approach so that students at school and college can follow the learning process optimally.

According to Paragae (2023), teaching strategies include a variety of techniques and methods designed to help teachers guide students effectively toward their academic achievement and learning goals. In other words, this strategy is an essential tool for teachers to deliver material in a targeted and engaging manner, especially in teaching English as a foreign language.

For learning to be more effective, teachers need to adapt the strategies used to students' learning styles. An appropriate approach

makes it easier for students to understand the material and creates a more lively and less boring classroom atmosphere (Hayati et al., 2021).

However, not all teaching strategies have the same impact. For example, more traditional lecture-based strategies tend to make teachers the center of learning. In practice, this approach often makes students passive, only recording information without much active involvement (Fals, 2018; Tularam, 2018). Therefore, the selection of the right teaching strategy needs to consider the needs, lesson objectives, and characteristics of students (Kiftiah, 2019)

One of the important questions that needs to be answered in today's educational context is: how to effectively teach English as a foreign language? The answer to this question is very important to be found and applied in the world of education, so that the learning process becomes more relevant and has a real impact.

Paragae (2023) emphasizes the importance of using innovative learning strategies by teachers to answer the learning needs of today's students. In addition, Hidayah and Morganna (in Paragae, 2023) identify several strategies commonly applied in teaching English as a foreign language (EFL), such as active learning, peer mentoring, cooperative learning, and hands-on instruction. Taking these approaches into account, the researchers in this study seek to further explore teaching strategies that can be effectively applied in the context of learning English as a foreign language.



2

CHAPTER 2: HISTORY AND DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLISH TEACH- ING METHODOLOGY



English has become an international language that almost everyone in the world is required to learn it. Even though the English used today is the result of a fairly long period of language development, it continues to evolve as it absorbs influences from other languages, adapts to technological advancements, and reflects societal changes. English language development is divided into three periods, starting from Old English in AD 800 after England was conquered by France in 1066, continued to Middle English from 1066 to 1500 and the Modern English from 1500 to present day (Saepudin, 2014).

Since then, there are more than 60% of world population who speaks English as their first, second or foreign language. It makes English becomes the most widely spoken language beside Mandarin and Russian nowadays (Richards and Theodore, 2001:1), replacing Latin starting from 18th century. However, English language teaching method which entered European curriculum in 18th century along with other modern languages was taught in the same procedures with Latin (Saepudin, 2014). The main focus of the lesson was not speaking skill as textbooks being used mainly included grammar, vocabulary and sentences for translation purposes. Even so, the struggle in finding appropriate English teaching method as foreign language has become a long and winding history since there have been various ideas about the nature of language (referring to language as a system of human communication) and the nature of language learning (referring to how language is learned).

A. History of Teaching English as Foreign Language (TEFL) Method

Teaching English as foreign language (TEFL) refers to the practice of teaching English to learners whose first language is not English (usually called as non-native speakers), typically in countries where English is not the primary language spoken. The teaching method focuses on helping learners develop their English skills (reading, listening, speaking and writing) for academic, professional or everyday communication purposes. The usage of online platform nowadays adds another variety of methods and techniques to make language learning ef-

fective and engaging. Moreover, cultural awareness, clear communication, and adaptability are essential components of successful TEFL instruction. Thus, many educators pursue TEFL certifications to be equipped with the pedagogical skills needed to meet the diverse needs of their students.

Below is the evolution of TEFL summarized in rich historical journey from 19th century to present day.

1. Pre-19 Century: The Development of Language Learning

During the mid-1700s, Latin and Greek were still positioned as the lingua franca since they became common languages of the time. Proficiency in these classical languages represented a symbol of high intellect and class, not a language skill (Davie, 2024). This ‘Classical Method’ was also known as The Grammar Translation Method, which emphasized the grammar rules memorization for translation and Parts of Speech mastery (focusing in adjectives, prepositions and vocabulary memorization) to craft sentences with formal eloquence. The key characteristic of teaching procedures involved learner’s native language extensive usage, meticulous grammar explanations and regular translation practices from the target language to the native language and vice versa (EFL CAFÉ, 2024).

The Grammar-Translation Method was limited since the outcome was not for individual learners to be able to communicate in foreign language for effective and colloquial usage. Furthermore, it was lacking practicality in terms of not fully preparing students for real-life conversation skill as well as limiting student engagement and interaction in language learning (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). However, it became the standard method for foreign language teaching in schools (Howatt & Widdowson, 2004) as the linguistic competence being taught was measured by one’s understanding towards literary texts as well as the ability to translate them, fostering a more in-depth understanding of the written word (Richards & Rodgers, 2014).

This method had successfully laid the groundwork for later approaches and pedagogical reforms to be more interactive and communicative teaching approaches over the course of changes in English language teaching strategies.

2. 19th Century: Refining The Approach

A French linguist François Gouin discovered that a language skill could be acquired through natural conversation after he met his three-year-old nephew after returning from his German learning through pure grammar memorization (Davie, 2024). He came into a conclusion after observing the nephew that learning a language means turning what we perceive into ideas, and then using words to communicate those ideas (Thanasoulas, n.d.). His insight contributed to the formation of the Series Method, which focused on teaching learners through a “series” of related, easily understandable sentences.

This language approach did not last long but managed to pave a way for the Direct Method developed by Charles Berlitz, an American linguist, to flourish. The method had imitated first language acquisition in emphasizing oral interaction, spontaneous language use and minimal analysis of grammatical rules (Davie, 2024). Classes conducted in the Direct Method approach were consistently using the target language with the purpose of facilitating a direct connection between words or phrase and its meaning (EFL CAFÉ, 2024).

Moreover, the emerging of the Oral Approach in 1920s which focused on using everyday vocabulary and sentences for the purpose to enhance learners’ speaking (pronunciation) and listening (oral comprehension) skills as well as having interactive student-centered classes (which emphasized question-and-answer practices and student-teacher natural engagements) made significant impact in modern language teaching practice. A more engaging and dynamic classroom environment became a start of communicative approaches in language learning (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). At the same time, the International Phonetic Association made a consideration in language teaching approach, addressing the importance of teaching pronunciation and oral skills which was overlooked by the traditional Grammar-Translation Method.

The emerging of the Direct Method and the Oral Approach signified a pivotal historical shift in teaching English by highlighting the im-

portance of direct exposure as well as active usage of the target language. This became a solid evidence of a progression towards more interactive and communicative approaches in language teaching.

3. 1930s to 1950s: English & ESL Achieved Recognition

Since the 16th century, the glowing empire and trade expansion of England kingdoms made English became the only foreign language choice for communicating while trading with the British. However, the real transition of English teaching as Second Language (ESL) occurred around late 1800s to early 1900s as the effect of people migration to the United States in the process of pursuing happiness, life and liberty.

In the United States, Americans adopted the Reading Method to teach English to non-native speakers in early 20th century, which prevailed until World War II. Due to the war situation made attending classes for learning was difficult to do as well as the military need for language proficiency. This condition initiated the development of the Audio-Lingual Method (ALM), developed during the 1940s to 1950s, which placing importance on listening and speaking skills enhancement while preventing students' first language usage and at the same time prioritizing mechanical repetition and accuracy. Even though its emergence was heavily influenced by people urgent necessity for learning foreign languages during the war, this method was considered more systematic as a language teaching approach than the Direct Method since it focused on oral skills improvement with repetitive drills, sentences and phrases memorization, choral responses and constant pattern practice. However, the Audio-Lingual Method faced its decline after 1964 after its weakness was revealed by an Australian linguist, Wilga Rivers. She mentioned that this method emphasized more on the drilling or regular practices than the background knowledge and situation context in language learning.

In Britain, the Situational Approach was implemented since its main idea was to teach language based on functions in various situations. Thus, the method also encouraged ESL students to learn language chunks which were useful for everyday conversation together with vocabulary and grammar.

Two historical key events above underlined the progress of English language teaching methodologies evolution in response to societal changes and educational discernments.

4. 1960s to 1908s: Humanistic Approaches

Around 1970s to 1980s, a substantial shift happened with language teaching methods into a more humanistic approaches. Methods like the Silent Way, Suggestopedia and Community Language Learning (CLL) all emphasized the psychological needs and learners' personal development as well as improving learner-centered environment for language teaching advancement. Some of the key characteristics were holistic view of a learner as a whole person, active participation, customized learning experiences, aimed on communicative competence and integrated non-linguistic elements into learners' learning experience.

The Silent Way, created by Caleb Gattegno, highlighted aspects, such as learner autonomy and active learning involvement. Teacher's role was only to provide cues using sets of colored rods and a phonemic chart, other time was spent in silence. In a nutshell, encouragement of self-reliance and learning discovery was fully facilitated in this method (Stevick, 1976). Suggestopedia, initiated by Georgi Lozanov, a Bulgarian psychologist, using ideas that a comfortable and relaxed learning environment with music, art or drama could accelerate positive learning experience and lower learners' psychological barriers (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

Community Language Learning (CLL) developed by Charles A Curran in 1976 by taking several aspects from counseling techniques. Its key characteristic was the focus on building a sense of belonging in the classroom. Teachers acted as counselors and learners acted as clients working together in a collaborative learning process (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). The Natural Approach, disseminated by Tracy Terrel and Stephen Krashen in 1983, considered that language capabilities from learners would spontaneously came out once they had listened and seen a lot of content in the target language.

The creation of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) by UNICOM, University of Jyväskylä and the European Platform for

Dutch Education in the mid-90s made the English teaching method possible to be fully conducted in the target language. Even though it had become one of the most effective ways to teach second language, many schools found the criteria were difficult to complete.

By the 1960s, the development of TEFL field had made its way into a more formal profession with many specialized teacher training programs and certifications which were constantly adapting to new learning methodologies and technology development over the past decades. As for today, teaching English online and abroad has become incomparable opportunity to have real-world practice in engaging and meaningful ways.

5. 21st Century: the Emergence of TEFL & Certifications

Since the world had gained its peace and the business is growing, the demand for language teaching tailored to specific purposes. Demands for academic, engineering, or business language competence had made the Communicative Approach emerged to address the needs with its focus on real-world communication with on-site locations and authentic props over mechanical learning by memorization.

John Haycraft pioneered a learning system for English teachers in 1962. His work on assimilating all the approaches created a course which purpose was to equip teachers with basic teaching methodologies as well as theories to teach English as a foreign language (Davie, 2024). These led into certification programs which we know well today, such as TEFL and CELTA certifications.

Specific certifications appeared from the 1970s henceforth with the popular adoption of the acronym TEFL (Davie, 2024). Essentially, TEFL goal is to provide non-native speakers chances to enhance their skills and expertise as well as confidence when conducting communication act for any purposes. In order to provide more opportunities for both teachers and students, TEFL certification continues to increase its value by aligning with global teaching standards and incorporating the latest language acquisition methodologies (for teachers) as well as enhancing training quality, offering more practical teaching experience, and updating its curriculum to meet evolving learner needs.

6. Present-day towards the future: TEFL is Transforming in the Digital Age.

TEFL today is a convergence of linguistic proficiency, cultural exchange and technology development. Accelerated by the COVID-19 pandemic, the digitalization of education and the emerging of Artificial Intelligence have revolutionized TEFL since they have erased geographical barriers which made English language instructors inaccessible to anyone. Now, with a stable internet connection, English language instructors are accessible using virtual classroom facilitated with video conferencing tools. TEFL intends to globally reach all students from all cultural backgrounds to participate in language learning.

TEFL is now more than just a profession. It has become an identity as well as ideal means to travel while contributing to cross-cultural understanding. Apart from being a valuable skill, TEFL offers a global experience for adventurous people to form meaningful connections while relaying language skills to others.

B. History of English Language Teaching Method in Indonesia

In Indonesia, English is taught as a foreign language and becomes a compulsory subject in schools. Indonesia adopted English into school curricula in 1946 even though there were many revisions in Indonesia's education policy years later. Since 1967, the government has put English education from elementary to higher education level for the purpose of enabling students to master four language skills functionally and proportionally, which are listening, reading, speaking and writing (Saepudin, 2014). English language teaching programs change according to changes in the curriculum in order to answer the demands of educational developments in particular and society in general, but still refer to the objectives that have been set in the curriculum.

In relation to the curriculum changes, the teaching materials given to junior high and high school students from one curriculum to another are essentially the same, only the presentation (packaging) is different. In addition, the teaching methods used are mentioned that the change in methods starts from the Grammar-Translation Method, the

Direct Method, the Aural-Oral Approach, to the communicative approach (Komaria, 1998).

Below is the summary of English learning approach implemented for Indonesian schools (UNESA, 2024).

Table 2. 1 Summary of English Language Teaching Approaches in Indonesian School Curricula (1947–Present)

Curricula	Level	Material Design Approach	Description	Materials
Curriculum 1947 (Lesson Planning 1947)	SMP (Junior High School) & SMA (Senior High School)	Top-down	English learning materials were determined by the government, while teachers only followed the available guidance	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Learning focus was on grammar and basic vocabulary.• Teaching method was focused on sentence pattern and memorization.
Curriculum 1952	SMP SMA	Top-down	The learning materials and syllabus were dictated by the government.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Learning focus was on grammar, vocabulary and sentence patterns.• Teaching method was focused on texts translation and sentence

				pattern practice.
Curriculum 1964	SMP SMA	Top-down	The learning materials was dictated by the government with little access for teachers to make adjustment in the teaching method.	The learning focus was listening, grammar, listening and texts translation competence.
Curriculum 1968	SMP SMA	Top-down	The learning materials was dictated by the government and teachers strictly followed the guidelines which had been set out in the curriculum.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The priority goal was reading and grammar competence. • Teaching method used was structure approach.
Curriculum 1975	SMP SMA	Top-down	A more structured English materials which was set by the government but not limited to some adjustments done by teachers.	Implementing Audio-Lingual method which focused on memorization of dialogue and sentence patterns.
Curriculum 1984 (<i>Cara Belajar</i>)	SD (4 th to 6 th grade) SMP	Top-down with an	Teaching method was based on	Communicative approach

<i>Siswa Aktif or CBSA)</i>	SMA	influence of bottom-up	teacher competency with a given chance to select more active teaching method.	which emphasized on listening, reading, speaking and writing.
Curriculum 1994	SD (4 th grade above) SMP SMA	Top-down	Basic competency and syllabus were determined by the government and teachers were still able to choose appropriate learning materials.	Focusing in communication, cultural understanding and grammar through dialogue and story texts.
Curriculum 2004 (Competency-based Curricula)	SD SMP SMA SMK	Top-down	The government set competence and English materials while providing space for teachers to adjust learning materials.	Developing the listening, speaking, reading and writing skills with competence-based approach.
Curriculum 2006 (<i>Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan</i> - KTSP)	SD SMP SMA SMK	Bottom-up	Schools were given greater freedom to develop learning materials based on local context	Materials were planned using local context and communicative approach which consisted of conversations,

			and student needs.	descriptive texts, news and others.
Curriculum 2013 (K-13)	SD (4 th grade above) SMP SMA SMK	Top-down	The government set the standard and English materials while providing space for teachers to adjust learning approaches.	Integrated-thematic based approach with the focus on literacy, critical thinking and communication skills.
Curriculum 2022 to present (<i>Kurikulum Merdeka</i>)	SD SMP SMA SMK	Bottom-up	Teachers are given greater freedom to design teaching materials according to students' needs and interests, but still follow the goals and framework set by the government.	Flexible materials adjusted with students' needs and focus on 21 st century skills through project-based learning approach.

The history and development of English teaching methodology in Indonesia reflect a long and dynamic process of adaptation to educational needs, political contexts, and global trends. English language teaching in Indonesia initially emerged as part of the colonial legacy, where it was introduced primarily for administrative and elite purposes. In the early years after independence, English was positioned as a foreign language, and the teaching methodology was strongly influenced by national language policy that emphasized Bahasa Indonesia as

the unifying national language. Consequently, English education was often limited in scope and initially relied heavily on traditional approaches, particularly the Grammar-Translation Method, which focused on memorization, translation exercises, and structural accuracy.

As time progressed, Indonesia gradually adopted new teaching methodologies influenced by international pedagogical developments. During the 1970s and 1980s, the shift toward communicative approaches began to take place, in line with the global rise of the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) method. This marked a significant departure from purely grammar-based instruction toward methods that emphasized real-life communication, learner participation, and interaction in the classroom. The later emergence of Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) further enriched English teaching in Indonesia, promoting the use of authentic tasks and problem-solving activities to develop students' communicative competence.

The modernization of English teaching in Indonesia has also been driven by technological advances and globalization. Since the late 1990s, the integration of multimedia resources, digital platforms, and, more recently, mobile applications has reshaped the way English is taught and learned. These innovations allow teachers and learners to access a broader range of materials, engage in interactive learning, and connect with global communities. Particularly in the 21st century, the emphasis has been placed on preparing students with not only linguistic competence but also critical thinking, creativity, and intercultural awareness—skills deemed essential in the era of global competition.

Nevertheless, the development of English teaching in Indonesia continues to face various challenges. Disparities in educational resources between urban and rural areas, limited access to technology in certain schools, and variations in teacher qualifications and training remain significant barriers. Despite these challenges, the government, educational institutions, and professional organizations have consistently worked toward improving the quality of English education through curriculum reform, teacher development programs, and the adoption of international standards.

In conclusion, the history of English teaching methodology in Indonesia demonstrates a continual process of adaptation and innovation. From its colonial roots to the adoption of global communicative and technology-enhanced approaches, English education in Indonesia has evolved into a dynamic field that strives to balance local needs with international demands. Moving forward, the challenge lies in ensuring equal access, improving teacher competencies, and fostering learner autonomy so that English education, aiming to enhance global competitiveness and meet the demands of the 21st century.



3

CHAPTER 3: PRINCIPLES OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING



A. Major Theories in Foreign Language Learning

Understanding the foundational theories of language learning is essential in shaping effective foreign language teaching practices. One of the earliest and most influential perspectives is *Behaviorism*, which views learning as a result of habit formation through stimulus-response conditioning. In language learning, this theory emphasizes repetition, drilling, and reinforcement (Skinner, 1957). For example, in an English class for beginners, learners might repeatedly practice sentence structures like "*This is a pen*" through choral drills until automaticity is achieved. Although behaviorism has been criticized for neglecting mental processes, it remains useful in teaching pronunciation or vocabulary through imitation and memorization (Richards & Rodgers, 2014).

In contrast, *Cognitivism* focuses on the mental processes involved in learning. This theory posits that learners actively process information, form mental representations, and apply internal strategies to understand and produce language (Ausubel, 1968). Teachers applying a cognitive approach might introduce concept maps or pre-reading strategies that help learners link new language input with prior knowledge. Unlike behaviorism, cognitivism accounts for learners' internal processing, making it more suitable for tasks requiring understanding and problem-solving, such as reading comprehension or writing essays (Brown, 2007).

Another key development in language learning theory is *Constructivism*, particularly as it relates to social interaction. Rooted in Vygotsky's sociocultural theory, constructivism emphasizes the importance of interaction and collaboration in learning (Vygotsky, 1978). In a foreign language classroom, this might take the form of pair or group tasks, such as role plays or problem-solving activities, where learners co-construct meaning using the target language. The concept of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) is central here, highlighting how learners can achieve more with the support of teachers or peers than they can independently (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006).

Finally, Krashen's *Monitor Model* has had a significant impact on language education, particularly in the realm of second language acquisition. According to Krashen (1982), language acquisition occurs when

learners are exposed to "comprehensible input"—language slightly above their current level of competence, known as $i+1$. He distinguishes acquisition (subconscious learning) from learning (conscious knowledge of rules), advocating for natural exposure to language rather than explicit grammar instruction. This theory underpins methods like storytelling, extensive reading, or watching subtitled videos, all of which provide rich, understandable input in an engaging context.

B. Core Principles of Effective Foreign Language Learning

Building on the theoretical foundations, several core principles guide effective foreign language instruction. One of the most widely accepted is the importance of *interaction and communication*. Language is fundamentally a tool for communication, and thus, learners must use it meaningfully. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), for instance, prioritizes fluency and authentic use over mere accuracy (Savignon, 2002). A class that asks students to interview their peers about weekend activities not only provides speaking practice but also builds interpersonal skills in the target language.

Another essential principle is the role of *motivation* in language learning. Motivation influences how much effort learners invest, how persistent they are, and how much anxiety they experience. Deci and Ryan's Self-Determination Theory differentiates between intrinsic motivation (driven by interest or enjoyment) and extrinsic motivation (driven by external rewards or obligations) (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Teachers can support intrinsic motivation by creating meaningful tasks—such as writing letters to pen pals or composing songs in the target language—while also acknowledging learners' goals and challenges. The third principle concerns the importance of *meaningful input and output*. As Krashen (1982) argued, learners need access to input that is comprehensible and just above their level. Swain (1985), however, added that producing language—output—is equally important. When learners speak or write, they test hypotheses, notice gaps in their knowledge, and receive feedback. Activities such as presentations, peer editing, or writing reflections push students to produce language and refine it over time.

Another guiding principle is the *focus on form*, which refers to drawing learners' attention to language features within a meaningful context. Long (1991) proposed focus on form as an alternative to traditional grammar teaching. Rather than isolated grammar drills, the teacher might interrupt a communicative task to briefly highlight a grammatical error or model a correct form. For instance, while students describe past holidays, the teacher may correct verb tenses without derailling the flow of communication. This approach integrates accuracy within fluency practice. Finally, *learner-centeredness* has become a core tenet of modern language education. This principle shifts the focus from teacher-led instruction to learner autonomy, allowing students to take more responsibility for their learning. Activities like portfolios, learning journals, or project-based tasks encourage learners to set goals, reflect on progress, and make choices about their learning process (Nunan, 1999). A learner-centered classroom fosters confidence and personal investment, both critical for long-term language development.

C. Key Approaches to Foreign Language Teaching

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is a foundational approach that prioritizes learners' ability to communicate meaningfully in real-life contexts rather than merely mastering grammatical forms. Introduced in the late 1970s, CLT emphasizes communicative competence, which includes grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competence (Canale & Swain, 1980). The focus is on fluency and the use of authentic language through interaction. For example, students might participate in role-plays or interviews where the goal is to express opinions, ask for information, or solve problems. Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011) highlight that CLT promotes the use of language as a social tool, enabling learners to negotiate meaning rather than simply repeat pre-formed phrases.

Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT), a development of CLT, centers learning around the completion of meaningful tasks that simulate real-world goals. According to Ellis (2003), a "task" is an activity that requires learners to use the target language for a communicative purpose to achieve a specific outcome. TBLT promotes student auton-

omy and spontaneous language use, often through problem-solving, decision-making, or information-gap activities. For example, learners might plan a holiday itinerary together, requiring them to express preferences, negotiate costs, and sequence events using the target language. These activities mirror authentic communication and are evaluated based on task completion, not grammatical perfection (Nunan, 2004).

Content-Based Instruction (CBI) integrates subject matter content with language learning objectives. It supports the idea that language is best acquired when it is used as a tool to learn about something else (Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 2003). In a CBI setting, students might study environmental issues, historical events, or cultural practices, using the second language as the medium of instruction. For instance, a unit on "Ocean Pollution" could involve reading articles, discussing data, and writing summaries, thereby reinforcing vocabulary and grammar naturally within a thematic context. CBI is especially powerful because it increases motivation and contextualizes the language in meaningful and cognitively engaging tasks (Zhang, Li, & Liu, 2022).

Competency-Based Language Teaching (CBLT) focuses on functional language use by organizing instructions around clearly defined competencies or performance outcomes. It is particularly relevant for adult education, workplace English, and vocational training programs. According to Richards and Rodgers (2014), CBLT aims to equip learners with the specific skills they need to perform in real-life contexts, such as filling out forms, conducting basic transactions, or writing professional emails. The approach uses detailed performance-based objectives, and success is measured by learners demonstrated ability to apply what they have learned in real-world scenarios. This approach is practical, measurable, and especially suited for learners with specific occupational or life goals (Richards, 2013).

D. Practical Applications of Principles in the Classroom

The principles underlying these approaches are most effectively realized through thoughtful and context-sensitive classroom applications. In a CLT-oriented classroom, for example, students might engage in *information-gap activities* where each participant holds part of the

information needed to complete a task, such as assembling a travel itinerary. This type of task fosters authentic interaction and real-time negotiation of meaning (Littlewood, 2004). Teachers facilitate by pre-paring authentic materials (menus, maps, ads) and monitoring language use rather than directly instructing grammar rules.

In a TBLT lesson, a practical classroom task might involve students collaborating to solve a local environmental problem, such as drafting a proposal to reduce school plastic waste. This task would involve brainstorming ideas, presenting arguments, and writing a persuasive text—all within the communicative framework of the classroom. As Ellis (2003) asserts, tasks should have a clear outcome, a communicative purpose, and require learners to use language meaningfully to accomplish them. CBI lessons are often project-based. For example, in a secondary classroom, learners might conduct research on a historical figure and pre-prepare a short multimedia presentation in English. This task integrates reading comprehension, note-taking, vocabulary acquisition, and public speaking, all within the theme of world history. Brinton et al. (2003) advocate for this content-driven model as it supports both language acquisition and academic skill development.

CBLT, meanwhile, is best applied in training contexts. In a hospitality English class, students may practice greeting customers, taking reservations, and responding to complaints. These tasks are modeled on real-world job expectations and assessed through performance checklists. For example, learners might role-play a restaurant scenario where they take a guest's order, answer questions about the menu, and respond to feedback. Their performance can then be assessed based on clear, observable criteria such as clarity, politeness, and completeness (Richards, 2013).

These classroom practices illustrate how theoretical principles are operationalized through activity design, assessment methods, and teacher roles. The success of each approach lies not in rigid adherence to a method but in flexible application that meets learners' needs, contexts, and goals. As Lightbown and Spada (2013) argue, effective language instruction balances exposure, use, and feedback in ways that motivate and support learners.



4

CHAPTER 4: TEACHING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE: AP- PROACHES, METHODS, AND TECHNIQUES



A. Introduction

In the field of education, teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) has emerged as one of the most significant areas of research. Since English is still widely used for communication, there is a growing demand for efficient teaching strategies that can accommodate a wide variety of students. The status of English as an international language has raised the need for efficient teaching methods in situations where non-native speakers are present. Many nations teach English as a foreign language (EFL), and students are rarely exposed to the language outside of the classroom. This necessitates the use of methodical, planned instruction that is informed by good practices.

English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) instruction, on the other hand, has changed dramatically over time due to a variety of strategies, tactics, and approaches. The broad theoretical foundation that a teacher uses to guide their lesson is provided by language teaching approaches. Methods are how these strategies are put into practice, converting theory into particular educational exercises. In order to attain the intended learning objectives, techniques are the actual methods or approaches that are employed in the classroom.

B. Contents

The phrases strategy, method, and technique are fundamental to comprehending language instruction in the context of TEFL. Modern TEFL methods are based on ideas of language learning. According to Krashen's Input Hypothesis (Krashen, 2021), it is best for language learners to be exposed to "comprehensible input," which is a little bit above their current language proficiency. This approach suggests that educators should use language that challenges students' comprehension without becoming overbearing. A teacher may, for instance, employ texts, movies, or conversations in a TEFL lesson that include new language and structures while making sure the students can still comprehend the context.

A key component of TEFL is constructivism, which was prominently promoted by Vygotsky (1978). Vygotsky's focus on scaffolding,

or offering support that is gradually reduced as students become more independent, allows students to move from what they can do with assistance to what they can do on their own. For example, in a speaking exercise, the teacher may model the task first, then progressively let students complete it with less supervision, encouraging self-reliance.

Approach, method, and technique are all related. The methodology serves as the theoretical foundation, establishing the more general guidelines for teaching languages. These ideas are expressed in more tangible ways via methods, which provide educators with a particular framework for instruction. The smallest units in this hierarchy are techniques, which stand for the steps used in the classroom to implement methods.

For example, task-based learning, in which students engage in activities that mimic real-life scenarios, may be a component of the Communicative Language Teaching methodology. This approach may involve problem-solving exercises, role-playing, or simulations. Facilitating communication is the main goal of the CLT strategy, and each of these strategies aids in this process. Therefore, knowing how these elements relate to one another enables educators to design more efficient and contextually relevant lessons.

1. Approaches in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL)

a. Grammar-Translation Approach

This approach is one of the oldest and most traditional methods of language teaching. Its primary concentration is on reading and writing skills, with a particular emphasis on vocabulary and grammar memory, followed by translation tasks. Because of its systematic style and emphasis on accuracy, this strategy is still utilized in some academic environments despite receiving a lot of criticism for its lack of attention on communicative ability (Richards & Rodgers, 2023). In reality, this method can entail students learning verb conjugation by memory and then translating sentences from English to their mother tongue. Following grammar drill practice, learners may be asked to translate "I am going to the market" into their original tongue. Sentence structure and grammar may be better understood by students using this approach.

b. Direct Approach

The Direct Approach emphasizes inductive language learning, which introduces vocabulary and grammar in context as opposed to explicitly teaching it. This method places a strong emphasis on listening comprehension, oral communication, and inductive grammar instruction. In order to encourage students to think and communicate directly in English, teachers are expected to give them extensive language exposure (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2020).

In a classroom using the Direct Method, for example, the instructor would display an image of a dog and say, "This is a dog," followed by a statement such, "The dog is running." The instructor would then pose queries to the class, such as "What is the dog doing?" without providing a clear explanation of grammar principles. This method encourages learners to absorb the language through immersion and context, much like how children learn their first language. However, it can be challenging for beginners who have no prior knowledge of the language.

c. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

One learner-centered method that highlights communication as a key objective of language acquisition is called "communicative language teaching." Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) and Communicative Language Teaching (Harmer, 2020) are currently the most popular methods. Students are encouraged by Communicative Language Teaching to participate in role-playing, interviews, and conversations that simulate real-world scenarios. The method places more emphasis on fluency than accuracy, and teachers serve as facilitators rather than lecturers.

In a class that uses Communicative Language Teaching, students may solve problems, organize a vacation, or act out a meeting in pairs or small groups. Students might be given a situation, for example, in which they must organize a trip and must be able to negotiate, make decisions, and communicate clearly in English. The focus here is on using the language for real communication, rather than focusing on grammatical correctness. Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT).

d. Post method Approach

The post-method Approach encourages teachers to be adaptable and modify their methods according to the unique requirements of their students, the environment of the classroom, and the resources at their disposal. Based on the requirements of their students, the realities of the classroom, and their professional intuition, educators should create their own context-sensitive pedagogy, according to Kumaravadivelu (2006). Three criteria are highlighted by postmethod pedagogy: potential, practicality, and particularity. By utilizing a variety of tactics rather than rigidly following one, this strategy enables educators to innovate and adapt. The post-method approach's central tenet is that instruction ought to be flexible and sensitive to context, enabling educators to create and modify their curricula to meet the various requirements of their students.

2. Methods in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL)

a. The Audio-Lingual Method

The Audio-Lingual Method (ALM) draws from behaviourist psychology and structural linguistics, focusing on developing language skills through repeated practice and memorization of patterns. Instruction relies heavily on dialogues, imitation, and substitution drills, with the teacher serving as the primary model and correcting students immediately. This approach prioritizes oral skills, particularly listening and speaking, and minimizes the use of the learners' native language in class. Although ALM was widely used in the mid-20th century, it later faced criticism for stressing accuracy and form over meaningful communication (Richards & Rodgers, 2023).

b. The Silent Way

Learner autonomy and exploratory learning are promoted by the Silent Way. By speaking as little as possible, the teacher lets students experiment with language and use resources like charts and colored Cuisenaire rods to self-correct. This approach sees education as a process of creativity and problem-solving. Despite encouraging self-reli-

ance, it necessitates highly qualified instructors and might not be appropriate for novices or big classes (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2020).

c. Suggestopedia

The foundation of Suggestopedia is the notion that learning is improved in calm, emotionally supportive settings. In order to lower learners' affective filters and encourage subconscious language acquisition, it combines music, theater, and visualization. Lessons frequently involve role-playing and listening to conversations set to classical music. Suggestopedia has demonstrated advantages in raising learner motivation and lowering anxiety despite its unusual character (Harmer, 2020).

d. Total Physical Response (TPR)

One approach that connects language acquisition with movement is called Total Physical Response. It is predicated on the idea that language comprehension comes before production and that knowledge and retention can be enhanced by commands followed by actions. Students might react, for instance, to instructions such as "Touch your nose," "Open the book," or "Stand up." Because it encourages participation and lowers stress, TPR is particularly beneficial for novices and young students (Asher, 2021).

e. The Natural Method

The Natural Approach places a strong emphasis on low anxiety levels, understandable input, and meaningful communication. Similar to how children learn their first language, language learning is thought to be a subconscious process. The approach puts an emphasis on listening and understanding first and postpones speaking until students are ready. The Natural Method has impacted many contemporary teaching techniques and is consistent with Krashen's Input Hypothesis (Krashen & Terrell, 2020).

3. Techniques in Teaching English as a Foreign Language

a. Role Play

Role play is a communication technique in which students use the target language to act out hypothetical or real-life scenarios. It encourages spontaneous language use, improves fluency, and aids in the development of socio-linguistic competence. For example, students can make up scenarios like ordering food at a restaurant, complaining, or going to a job interview. Role play also helps students become more creative, empathetic, and confident when speaking (Harmer, 2020).

b. Information Gap

When each participant has distinct pieces of information, an information gap exercise needs students to communicate with one another in order to complete a task. This promotes sincere dialogue and meaning-based compromise. Making a schedule, solving a puzzle, or explaining a picture to a partner are a few examples. This method is popular in CLT and TBLT schools and helps with speaking and listening skills (Richards & Rodgers, 2023).

c. Dictogloss

Dictogloss is a method of writing and listening in collaboration. As the teacher reads a brief passage at a leisurely pace, the pupils listen and make notes. Next, utilizing their notes and linguistic skills, students work in groups or couples to rebuild the text. According to Wajnryb (2020), this method fosters the development of both receptive and productive abilities by fusing meaningful communication with grammar education.

d. Error Correction Strategies

One essential teaching strategy that promotes language development is error correction. Explicit correction, recasts, elicitation, and peer feedback are some examples of strategies. The teaching situation, the student's level of skill, and the class objectives all influence the strategy selection. Accuracy and learner confidence should be upheld by efficient error correction (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2020).

e. Using Authentic Materials

Real-world resources like newspapers, menus, podcasts, and movies that weren't created with education in mind are known as authentic materials. Teachers expose pupils to a variety of accents, cultural allusions, and natural language use. Learners are better able to connect classroom instruction with practical application when authentic resources are used. This method works well with task-based and communicative techniques (Nation & Macalister, 2021).

C. Conclusion

The various strategies, tactics, and approaches, in summary, provide a range of approaches to teaching English as a foreign language. The theoretical underpinnings of these approaches and strategies must be understood by teachers in order to modify them for their specific educational environments. By being adaptable and sensitive to the needs of students, teachers may design lively and captivating classrooms that support successful language learning.

Teachers are advised to engage in ongoing professional development and try out different approaches to teaching to see which ones suit their students the best. Teachers should receive continual training from institutions to keep them abreast of the most recent developments in TEFL, and researchers can investigate the effects of combining different teaching philosophies in a range of classroom settings. Finally, curriculum designers ought to create flexible curricula that promote both task-based and communicative learning, striking a balance between the requirements of regional educational systems and the requirement for practical language proficiency.



5

CHAPTER 5: THEORIES OF SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION AND THEIR PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

A. Introduction

In recent years, the landscape of language learning has undergone a significant transformation, driven largely by the rapid advancement of Artificial Intelligence (AI) technologies. Tools such as ChatGPT, AI-powered tutors, and adaptive language learning platforms have redefined how second languages are acquired and practiced. These innovations present both opportunities and challenges for long-standing theories of Second Language Acquisition (SLA), which were largely developed in pre-digital contexts. The increasing personalization of input, real-time feedback, and interactive learning environments offered by AI tools demand a critical re-evaluation of classical frameworks such as Krashen's Input Hypothesis, Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory, and other cognitive-interactionist models. This chapter explores how contemporary developments in AI-enhanced language learning intersect with, challenge, and potentially expand traditional SLA theories. By analyzing these intersections, this work aims to propose pedagogical insights and forward-looking perspectives for English language teaching in a technologically evolving, globally connected world.

B. Classical SLA Theories and Their Foundations

The field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) has been shaped by several foundational theories, each offering different perspectives on how individuals acquire additional languages. Among the most influential are Behaviorism, Nativism, the Input Hypothesis, the Interaction Hypothesis, and Sociocultural Theory.

B.F. Skinner's behaviorist approach, dominant in the mid-20th century, posited that language learning occurs through habit formation, reinforcement, and imitation. While this view has been largely criticized for its inability to explain the creative aspects of language use, it laid the groundwork for subsequent cognitive approaches.

Noam Chomsky's Nativist theory challenged behaviorism by introducing the concept of an innate "language acquisition device" (LAD) and Universal Grammar (UG), suggesting that humans are

biologically predisposed to learn language. This theory redirected focus from environmental stimuli to internal cognitive structures, sparking decades of debate and research.

Stephen Krashen's Input Hypothesis emphasized the importance of comprehensible input, positing that language acquisition occurs when learners are exposed to language slightly above their current proficiency level ($i+1$). Krashen further argued that acquisition is more effective than conscious learning and that affective factors such as motivation and anxiety play a crucial role.

Michael Long's Interaction Hypothesis and Merrill Swain's Output Hypothesis extended Krashen's ideas by stressing the importance of interaction and language production. Long maintained that negotiation of meaning in interaction facilitates acquisition, while Swain argued that producing language helps learners notice gaps in their knowledge.

Lev Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory brought a fundamentally different perspective, emphasizing the social and cultural context of language learning. Central to this theory is the concept of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), where learners can achieve higher levels of performance through mediated interaction with more knowledgeable others.

Each of these theories offers valuable insights into different dimensions of language acquisition. However, the emergence of AI-driven tools and environments prompts us to reconsider their applicability and adaptability in current educational contexts.

1. Recent Developments in AI and Language Learning

Artificial Intelligence has introduced dynamic changes to the practice of language education. AI-powered applications now provide learners with real-time feedback, error correction, pronunciation modeling, and adaptive content sequencing. Popular platforms such as Duolingo Max, ELSA Speak, and OpenAI's ChatGPT exemplify how intelligent systems can simulate conversational partners, personalize instruction, and provide abundant input tailored to individual learner needs.

One of the most transformative aspects of AI in language learning is its ability to offer comprehensible and contextualized input at scale. AI tools can analyze learner performance data and adjust difficulty levels accordingly, thereby operationalizing Krashen's notion of $i+1$ in a precise and individualized manner. Moreover, speech recognition and natural language processing (NLP) technologies enable learners to engage in interactive dialogues that mimic authentic communication, supporting principles from the Interaction and Output Hypotheses.

From a sociocultural perspective, AI tools also mediate new forms of social interaction. Learners can collaborate in virtual environments, receive guidance from intelligent tutors, and participate in global language communities through AI-enabled platforms. These practices reflect the concept of scaffolding within the ZPD, albeit in technologically mediated forms.

However, the integration of AI also raises concerns. There is ongoing debate about the authenticity of AI-generated interaction, the reduction of human agency in learning, and the ethical use of learner data. These challenges necessitate a balanced approach to integrating AI into pedagogical practice, ensuring that human-centered values remain at the core of language education.

2. Pedagogical Implications for English Language Teaching

The convergence of SLA theories and AI technologies carries significant implications for English language teaching (ELT). First, teachers must develop digital literacy skills to effectively leverage AI tools in the classroom. Understanding how AI can provide personalized input and feedback enables instructors to tailor learning experiences more effectively, aligning with Krashen's and Long's principles.

Second, AI should be viewed as a complement rather than a replacement for human interaction. Teachers play an irreplaceable role in fostering motivation, addressing affective factors, and guiding meaningful communication—as emphasized in Sociocultural Theory. AI tools can serve as supplementary resources that extend learning beyond the classroom and reinforce skills through continuous practice.

Third, language curricula must evolve to incorporate critical thinking about AI itself. Learners should be encouraged to reflect on the limitations of AI-generated language, engage critically with machine-produced content, and develop metalinguistic awareness. This approach not only aligns with Swain's focus on output and reflection but also prepares learners for real-world language use in a digital society.

Finally, teacher education programs should include training on integrating SLA theories with AI-enhanced pedagogies. By understanding both the theoretical and technological dimensions, educators can make informed decisions about instructional design, assessment, and learner support.

3. Challenges and Future Directions

Despite the promise of AI in reshaping language learning, several challenges persist. One critical issue is ensuring equitable access to AI tools, particularly in under-resourced educational settings. Without careful implementation, technological advancements may exacerbate existing inequalities in language education.

Another challenge is the potential overreliance on AI at the expense of human interaction. While AI can simulate conversation, it lacks the emotional intelligence and cultural nuance of human communication. Future research must explore how AI can augment, rather than replace, the rich interpersonal dimensions of language learning.

Moreover, there is a need for longitudinal studies on the effectiveness of AI-driven language instruction. While initial findings are promising, sustained evidence is required to validate the long-term impact of these tools on language proficiency, learner autonomy, and engagement.

Ethical considerations also warrant attention. The use of learner data for personalization must be transparent and safeguarded. Educators and developers must work together to establish ethical guidelines that prioritize privacy, consent, and responsible AI use.

Looking ahead, the intersection of SLA theory and AI invites continued interdisciplinary collaboration. Linguists, educators, technologists, and policymakers must engage in dialogue to shape the future of language education in ways that are inclusive, equitable, and pedagogically sound.

So, the rapid rise of AI in language education challenges us to rethink the theoretical foundations of second language acquisition. While classical SLA theories remain relevant, their application must be reinterpreted in light of technological innovation. AI offers powerful tools to personalize input, facilitate interaction, and support learner autonomy, aligning with and extending existing theoretical models. However, its integration must be critically examined to ensure that the humanistic values of education are preserved. By bridging traditional theories with emerging technologies, educators can craft pedagogical approaches that are both innovative and grounded, preparing learners for the linguistic demands of a digital, interconnected world.

C. Rethinking Second Language Acquisition Theories in the Age of Artificial Intelligence

1. Sociocultural Theory in SLA

Sociocultural Theory (SCT), rooted in the work of Lev Vygotsky, posits that human cognition and learning are fundamentally mediated through social interaction and cultural artifacts (Vygotsky, 1978). In the context of second language acquisition (SLA), this theory emphasizes the importance of collaborative dialogue, guided participation, and scaffolding within the learner's Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). Language learning, therefore, is not an isolated cognitive process but one deeply embedded in social contexts and mediated by tools, both linguistic and cultural (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006).

Central to SCT is the notion that learners internalize language through participation in socially meaningful activities with more knowledgeable others. Mediation whether by humans, texts, or tools plays a crucial role in shaping the trajectory of development. According to Donato (1994), scaffolding occurs when interlocutors provide

supportive interaction that enables learners to perform beyond their independent capacities. These principles have traditionally been observed in classroom interactions, peer collaborations, and teacher-guided instruction.

2. Virtual Interaction in Language Learning

With the proliferation of digital technologies, social interaction in language learning has extended beyond physical classrooms into virtual environments. Learners now participate in synchronous and asynchronous communication through platforms such as Zoom, Google Meet, Discord, and virtual worlds like Mozilla Hubs. These technologies provide novel contexts for interaction and co-construction of knowledge, where learners engage in joint meaning-making across time and space.

Research suggests that virtual environments can support the core tenets of SCT. For example, Thorne (2003) demonstrated how telecollaboration projects connect learners across different linguistic and cultural backgrounds, allowing them to engage in intercultural exchanges that foster both language development and cultural understanding. Moreover, online discussion forums and collaborative writing platforms (e.g., Google Docs, Padlet) enable sustained dialogue and peer scaffolding, closely mirroring face-to-face interaction patterns.

AI-powered language platforms further redefine interaction by acting as dialogic partners. Chatbots and intelligent tutoring systems (ITS) simulate responsive conversation, providing personalized feedback and modeling appropriate language use. While these agents lack human intentionality, they contribute to the mediation process by offering real-time support and extending the learner's communicative capabilities.

3. Reframing Sociocultural Concepts in the Digital Context

The digital era calls for a reconceptualization of traditional SCT constructs. The ZPD, for instance, is no longer confined to interactions with human interlocutors. AI tutors, virtual peers, and intelligent feedback systems now serve as mediators within a learner's ZPD,

offering adaptive support based on individual performance data. As Lantolf and Poehner (2011) argue, Dynamic Assessment—an SCT-informed practice—can be effectively implemented in digital settings to tailor feedback and monitor learner growth.

Scaffolding, once considered primarily a human endeavor, has been partially delegated to technology. Intelligent systems can guide learners through complex tasks, prompt metacognitive reflection, and even simulate collaborative problem-solving scenarios. However, as Warschauer (2005) cautions, the effectiveness of digital scaffolding depends on the design of the interaction and the learner's engagement with the tool.

Additionally, the concept of mediation must be expanded to include not just linguistic tools, but multimodal and algorithmic agents. Virtual avatars, AI chat partners, and digital annotations all act as mediational means that shape how language is processed, produced, and internalized. This shift underscores the hybridity of the digital learning space, where human and non-human agents jointly construct learning experiences.

4. Pedagogical Implications

For educators, integrating SCT with virtual interaction requires intentional instructional design. Teachers must leverage tools that facilitate meaningful social interaction, encourage collaboration, and support language-related thinking. Platforms like Flipgrid, VoiceThread, and collaborative LMS features can be used to engage students in dialogic tasks that promote language development within their ZPD.

Moreover, teacher presence remains vital. Instructors should provide explicit scaffolding, model communicative strategies, and mediate interaction between students and technology. The teacher's role as a cultural and linguistic mediator cannot be replaced by AI, but it can be amplified through thoughtful integration of digital tools.

Teacher education programs must also evolve to prepare educators for the demands of digitally mediated instruction. This includes developing technological pedagogical content knowledge

(TPACK), understanding how to facilitate synchronous and asynchronous interaction, and critically evaluating the affordances and limitations of virtual tools.

5. Challenges and Future Directions

Despite its potential, virtual interaction in SLA presents several challenges. One pressing issue is digital inequity: learners in under-resourced contexts may lack access to reliable internet, up-to-date devices, or technical support. This disparity can hinder participation in online interaction and exacerbate existing educational inequalities.

Another concern is the authenticity of interaction. AI agents, while useful, may not replicate the spontaneity, cultural richness, and emotional nuance of human conversation. Overreliance on machine-mediated dialogue could lead to formulaic or superficial language use. As Hampel and Stickler (2012) note, fostering genuine communicative competence requires tasks that go beyond mechanical interaction to promote critical thinking and intercultural awareness.

Finally, there is a need for more research on how SCT principles operate in virtual contexts. Longitudinal studies that examine learner development across digital platforms, as well as investigations into how different tools mediate scaffolding and ZPD, will be essential for theory refinement and pedagogical innovation.

In moving forward, educators and researchers must embrace a flexible and critical stance, recognizing both the affordances and constraints of digital interaction. By reframing sociocultural constructs within virtual spaces, SLA can continue to evolve in ways that are socially grounded, technologically informed, and pedagogically effective.

D. The Role of Interaction in the Age of AI: Reinterpreting Long's Interaction Hypothesis

1. Long's Interaction Hypothesis

Michael Long's Interaction Hypothesis (IH) has been a cornerstone in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research,

emphasizing the fundamental role of interaction and negotiation of meaning in facilitating language learning (Long, 1996). According to Long, conversational interaction provides learners with opportunities to receive comprehensible input, produce output, and engage in feedback loops that promote noticing linguistic forms and repairing misunderstandings. Interactional modifications—such as clarification requests, confirmation checks, and recasts—serve as mechanisms for making input more comprehensible and output more accurate, thereby enhancing acquisition (Long, 1983; 1996). The IH posits that through meaningful interaction, learners negotiate meaning collaboratively, which leads to internalizing linguistic forms in a socially situated context.

Beyond the fundamental emphasis on negotiation of meaning, Long (1996) also highlights the importance of interactional modifications in scaffolding learner understanding. These modifications do not only facilitate immediate comprehension but also contribute to the development of interlanguage by making explicit the implicit rules of language use. Importantly, Long situates interaction within a social context, asserting that the quality of interaction—including factors such as interlocutor roles, task type, and affective variables—influences the degree to which learners benefit from conversational exchanges. This nuanced view has paved the way for exploring interaction not simply as input-output transactions but as dynamic processes embedded in social relationships.

2. AI-Enhanced Interaction in SLA

The advent of Artificial Intelligence (AI) technologies introduces new dimensions to the interactional processes outlined in the IH. AI-powered tools—such as chatbots, virtual tutors, and conversational agents—can simulate conversational exchanges, providing learners with abundant opportunities for interaction beyond the constraints of human interlocutor availability. These systems utilize natural language processing (NLP) to detect learner errors, provide immediate feedback, and tailor interactional complexity to learner proficiency, effectively operationalizing Long's principles in a digital environment (Godwin-Jones, 2019).

Furthermore, AI-driven platforms are increasingly capable of incorporating learner modeling and predictive analytics, which enable the system to anticipate learner difficulties and proactively scaffold interaction (Heil, 2021). This level of adaptability represents an evolution from traditional computer-assisted language learning (CALL), where interactions were often linear and static. The dynamic responsiveness of AI creates opportunities for personalized negotiation of meaning that can be adjusted in real-time, thereby potentially increasing learner engagement and motivation. However, this also introduces new questions regarding the authenticity of AI-mediated interaction and the extent to which it can replicate the unpredictability and richness of human conversations.

Moreover, AI facilitates asynchronous and synchronous interaction in multimodal formats, including text, speech, and video, which diversify the channels through which negotiation of meaning occurs. For instance, intelligent tutoring systems can engage learners in scaffolded dialogues that prompt reflection and reformulation, echoing the output hypothesis proposed by Swain (1985) while aligning with Long's emphasis on interactive feedback.

3. Case Study: AI Chatbots in Indonesian EFL Classrooms

In Indonesia, a recent study conducted in several senior high schools in Jakarta explored the integration of AI chatbots in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms (Sari & Wahyuni, 2023). Students interacted with an AI chatbot designed to simulate natural conversation on daily topics, providing correctional feedback and prompting learners to clarify or elaborate their responses. The chatbot employed adaptive feedback techniques, including recasts and explicit prompts, consistent with IH principles.

The Indonesian context presents unique sociocultural and linguistic factors that impact AI interaction efficacy. For example, the study by Sari and Wahyuni (2023) noted that learners' politeness strategies and cultural norms influenced how they interacted with the chatbot, occasionally leading to unnatural responses from the AI system. This highlights a critical area for development in AI language learning tools: cultural sensitivity and pragmatic competence.

Integrating cultural and pragmatic dimensions into AI responses could enhance interaction authenticity and learner satisfaction, making these tools more effective within specific local contexts such as Indonesia's diverse linguistic landscape.

Results revealed that students exhibited increased willingness to engage in extended dialogues and demonstrated improved accuracy in grammatical structures and vocabulary use over a semester. Importantly, the study highlighted that AI-mediated interaction helped overcome affective barriers, such as anxiety and fear of negative evaluation, commonly experienced in face-to-face communication settings. This finding supports the notion that AI can create a low-stakes environment conducive to negotiation of meaning and language practice. However, the study also cautioned that AI chatbots could not fully replicate the nuanced socio-pragmatic cues present in human interaction, underscoring the complementary role of AI in supporting, rather than replacing, human interlocutors.

4. Pedagogical Implications

The integration of AI-enhanced interaction challenges educators to rethink the design of communicative language activities. Teachers can harness AI tools to supplement classroom interaction, providing learners with additional opportunities for meaningful practice and immediate feedback aligned with IH mechanisms. Importantly, AI tools can be particularly valuable in contexts with limited access to proficient interlocutors or in large classes where individualized interaction is difficult.

Incorporating AI-mediated interaction also invites educators to reconsider assessment practices. Traditional oral proficiency tests may not capture the range of learner competencies demonstrated through AI dialogues, which often include self-correction and iterative attempts at communication. Consequently, there is a growing need for formative assessment frameworks that recognize interactional processes facilitated by AI as valid indicators of language development. This may involve leveraging AI-generated data analytics to provide detailed insights into learner progress, thus enabling more targeted instructional interventions.

Educators should also consider blending AI interaction with human-mediated communication to address socio-pragmatic aspects and foster authentic negotiation of meaning. Training teachers to effectively integrate AI into pedagogy is crucial, including awareness of AI's capabilities and limitations in replicating human interactional subtleties.

Despite promising developments, challenges remain in fully leveraging AI for interaction-based SLA. Current AI systems often struggle with understanding and producing culturally and contextually appropriate responses, which may limit their effectiveness in promoting nuanced language use. Moreover, ethical considerations around data privacy and learner autonomy require careful attention.

Another pressing challenge involves the digital divide, which affects equitable access to AI-enhanced language learning, especially in rural or economically disadvantaged regions. Without deliberate policies and infrastructure investments, the benefits of AI-facilitated interaction may be limited to privileged learners, exacerbating educational inequalities (Kurniawan & Adnan, 2022). Addressing this issue requires collaboration among governments, educational institutions, and technology providers to ensure that AI tools are accessible, affordable, and culturally appropriate for diverse learner populations across Indonesia and beyond.

Future research should explore hybrid interaction models combining AI and human interlocutors, examine long-term effects of AI-mediated negotiation of meaning, and investigate contextual factors influencing AI interaction efficacy in diverse linguistic environments.

E. The Impact of Learner Agency and Autonomy in Second Language Acquisition in the Digital Era

Learner agency and autonomy are foundational constructs in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) theory, emphasizing the learner's proactive role in managing and directing their language learning processes (Benson, 2011). Autonomy refers to the ability to take responsibility for one's learning decisions, including setting goals,

selecting strategies, and self-monitoring progress (Little, 1991). Agency extends this by highlighting the capacity to act intentionally within social and cultural contexts (Mercer, 2019). Traditionally, these concepts underpin pedagogical approaches that empower learners to become self-regulated, motivated, and reflective participants in language learning.

The digital era, characterized by the proliferation of Artificial Intelligence (AI), mobile technologies, and online learning platforms, has transformed the landscape of SLA by providing learners with unprecedented access to diverse, flexible, and personalized learning resources (Reinders & White, 2016). AI-powered language learning applications, such as adaptive tutors and conversational agents, offer tailored feedback, scaffolded interactions, and rich multimodal input, theoretically enhancing learner autonomy by enabling learners to control pace, content, and practice opportunities. This aligns with Ushioda's (2013) dynamic conceptualization of autonomy as socially situated and technologically mediated.

However, the promise of enhanced agency through digital tools must be critically interrogated. AI systems often operate via opaque algorithms that govern content sequencing, feedback, and progression, potentially constraining genuine learner choice (Williamson, 2017). Learners may find themselves navigating within predetermined pathways that optimize engagement metrics rather than authentic learning goals, leading to a paradoxical reduction in agency under the guise of personalization. The so-called "black box" nature of AI decision-making can obscure learners' understanding of how their learning is shaped, undermining metacognitive awareness and critical reflection, which are central to autonomous learning.

Moreover, digital learning environments are socio-technical assemblages embedded in power relations and structural inequalities. Access to AI-enhanced tools is unevenly distributed, with learners in resource-poor contexts—such as rural areas in Indonesia—facing barriers due to limited infrastructure and digital literacy (Kirkpatrick, 2020). This inequity challenges simplistic narratives of technology-driven empowerment, necessitating a reconceptualization of agency

that incorporates structural affordances and constraints beyond individual capacities.

A case study from Indonesia illustrates this complexity. Pratama and Sari (2024) examined high school learners using AI language apps in urban versus rural settings. Urban learners reported increased motivation and perceived autonomy due to flexible access and personalized feedback, while rural learners experienced frustration stemming from unreliable internet and lack of digital skills. Notably, many users expressed dependence on AI prompts, questioning whether their actions were truly autonomous or shaped by system-driven guidance. This study underscores the importance of contextual factors in shaping the enactment of learner agency in digital SLA environments.

Furthermore, the social dimension of agency requires critical attention. While AI can simulate interaction, it cannot replicate the reciprocity, empathy, and cultural nuance of human communication, essential for meaningful language negotiation and identity development (Mercer, 2020). Overreliance on AI-mediated interactions risks isolating learners from collaborative and dialogic learning experiences that foster critical thinking and social agency.

From a pedagogical perspective, fostering learner agency in the digital era entails more than providing technology. It demands integrating critical digital literacy into curricula, equipping learners with skills to interrogate, critique, and shape their digital learning experiences (Pegrum, 2019). Educators must also remain vigilant to ensure technology supplements rather than supplants human mentorship, scaffolding learners' ability to make informed choices.

In sum, the impact of learner agency and autonomy in digital SLA contexts is multifaceted and ambivalent. Digital technologies hold transformative potential but simultaneously introduce new constraints and inequalities. Reconceptualizing agency requires acknowledging these tensions, adopting a critical lens that situates learner autonomy within broader socio-technical and political frameworks. This approach can guide more equitable, empowering SLA practices responsive to the realities of learners in diverse digital landscapes.

F. Integrating Multimodal and Multisensory Inputs in SLA: The Role of Technology and AI

In contemporary Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research, the integration of multimodal and multisensory inputs has emerged as a critical factor in enhancing language learning efficacy (Jewitt, 2013). Multimodality refers to the use of multiple modes of communication—such as visual, auditory, gestural, and textual inputs—while multisensory learning emphasizes engaging multiple sensory channels simultaneously to reinforce comprehension and retention (Shams & Seitz, 2008). This approach aligns with cognitive theories of embodied cognition, which posit that language understanding is deeply intertwined with sensory and motor experiences (Barsalou, 2008).

The advancement of digital technologies and Artificial Intelligence (AI) has vastly expanded opportunities for integrating multimodal and multisensory inputs into SLA contexts. AI-driven platforms can deliver interactive, richly layered learning experiences that combine text, speech, images, animations, and haptic feedback. For example, virtual reality (VR) and augmented reality (AR) applications immerse learners in simulated environments that require active language use embedded in contextualized sensory-rich settings (Godwin-Jones, 2019). These environments support deeper semantic encoding, foster experiential learning, and accommodate diverse learner preferences.

AI's capability to process and generate multimodal data also facilitates adaptive learning pathways, where sensory inputs are customized to individual learner profiles and needs (D'Mello & Graesser, 2015). Intelligent tutoring systems can detect learner engagement via facial expressions, voice intonation, or eye movement, dynamically adjusting task difficulty or modality emphasis to optimize learning outcomes. Such responsiveness represents a significant evolution beyond static textbook or audio-based materials traditionally used in SLA.

However, while technology offers these promising avenues, critical challenges and limitations warrant scrutiny. Firstly, the cognitive load imposed by multimodal inputs must be carefully

managed. Excessive or poorly integrated sensory stimuli risk overwhelming learners, impeding rather than aiding comprehension (Sweller, Ayres, & Kalyuga, 2011). Designing multimodal materials requires an evidence-based approach to balance richness with cognitive manageability.

Secondly, the equitable access to such advanced technologies remains problematic, especially in under-resourced educational contexts globally. In Indonesia, for instance, while urban universities and schools may experiment with VR language labs, many rural institutions lack basic digital infrastructure, perpetuating disparities in multimodal SLA opportunities (Halimah & Santosa, 2023). This technological divide challenges the universal applicability of multimodal approaches reliant on AI.

A pertinent Indonesian case involves the deployment of an AI-based language learning platform integrating video, audio, and interactive exercises in a senior high school in Jakarta (Sari & Nugroho, 2024). The platform allowed learners to practice conversational English in simulated real-life scenarios augmented by visual and auditory cues. Data showed improved engagement and oral proficiency compared to traditional methods. However, teachers reported initial difficulties in mediating multimodal content and ensuring learners did not become passive recipients, highlighting the need for pedagogical scaffolding.

Moreover, AI-generated multimodal inputs raise epistemological questions about authenticity and cultural relevance. Machine-generated visuals or dialogues may lack the nuanced cultural context and variability inherent in human language use, potentially leading to homogenized or stereotyped representations (Kumar & Rose, 2019). SLA educators must critically evaluate AI content to ensure it reflects authentic communicative practices and respects cultural diversity.

From a pedagogical standpoint, the integration of multimodal and multisensory inputs necessitates teacher professional development focused on multimodal literacy and technology integration skills (Jewitt & Kress, 2010). Teachers play a crucial role in mediating technology,

contextualizing inputs, and fostering learner critical engagement with multimodal materials.

In conclusion, integrating multimodal and multisensory inputs via technology and AI represents a significant frontier in SLA, promising enriched, personalized, and immersive language learning experiences. Nonetheless, success depends on careful instructional design, attention to cognitive load, equity of access, cultural authenticity, and the indispensable role of teacher mediation. Addressing these complexities is essential for leveraging multimodal SLA to its full potential in diverse educational contexts worldwide.



6

CHAPTER 6: METHODOLOGY OF TEACHING GRAMMAR



A. Introduction

The teaching of grammar has undergone significant changes over time, reflecting broader shifts in educational approaches and classroom practices. In earlier periods, grammar was typically taught through prescriptive methods that emphasized memorization of rigid rules, often with little connection to actual language use. This traditional approach, which prioritized rote learning, remained dominant until the late 20th century. However, language educators eventually began to move toward approaches that placed grammar within authentic contexts, highlighting its role in communication. Today, grammar is viewed not merely as a collection of rules but as a crucial element of communicative competence.

Grammar plays a central role in helping learners achieve language proficiency, as it provides the foundation for forming accurate and meaningful sentences. Mastery of grammatical structures enhances both written and spoken communication, contributing to fluency and clarity. Research emphasizes that grammar instruction, when effectively integrated, improves learners' ability to express ideas coherently. Myhill and Watson, for example, argue that incorporating grammar into writing instruction strengthens students' metalinguistic awareness and writing skills, demonstrating the importance of contextualized grammar teaching for language development.

The evolution from traditional to modern teaching methods highlights the changing nature of pedagogy in language classrooms. While traditional instruction often treated grammar as separate from language use, modern methodologies emphasize integration, allowing learners to see grammar functioning within real communication. Studies show that integrated grammar teaching leads to better outcomes in language acquisition compared to isolated rule-based lessons. This shift underscores the importance of presenting grammar in meaningful contexts that connect directly to learners' communicative needs.

Current approaches to grammar instruction stress the importance of balance, combining explicit explanations with opportunities for implicit learning. Different learners benefit from different modes of instruction; some need direct rule-focused guidance, while

others learn best through exposure and practice in authentic communication. Ellis and other scholars highlight that effective teaching involves blending formal instruction with communicative practice, supported by feedback and collaborative activities. This balance ensures that grammar is not only understood theoretically but also applied in practical language use.

In addition, contextualized and interactive methods have become increasingly valued for making grammar instruction more engaging. Activities such as grammar-based games, role-playing, and collaborative tasks, as suggested by Natolo and Matas, encourage learners to experiment with language in low-pressure environments. These interactive strategies not only boost motivation but also deepen understanding by placing grammar in meaningful contexts. Such participatory approaches foster a positive classroom atmosphere where students feel comfortable exploring language and refining their grammatical knowledge.

Finally, contemporary grammar teaching also reflects broader educational paradigms such as constructivism and inquiry-based learning. Teachers now often serve as facilitators who guide students in discovering grammatical patterns rather than simply transmitting rules. This learner-centered model contrasts with older, teacher-dominated approaches, encouraging students to think critically and engage actively with language. Alongside this pedagogical shift, the use of digital tools and online platforms has further transformed grammar instruction by offering interactive resources, immediate feedback, and flexible learning opportunities. Collectively, these developments demonstrate how grammar teaching has evolved into a dynamic, multifaceted field that continues to adapt to learners' needs and the changing educational landscape.

B. Theoretical Foundations of Grammar Teaching

1. Definitions of grammar

Grammar is a core component of language, but its interpretation differs depending on the perspective adopted. Broadly, grammar can be

viewed through three main approaches: descriptive, prescriptive, and pedagogical. Each perspective plays a distinct role, reflecting unique attitudes toward how language is structured, applied, and taught. Understanding these differences offers a more complete picture of grammar and its significance in both communication and education.

Descriptive grammar focuses on how language is naturally used by speakers in real-life situations, rather than dictating how it should be used. It examines patterns and rules that emerge organically in communication, recognizing language as dynamic and constantly evolving. While linguists often prioritize this descriptive view, the general public typically associates grammar with correctness, which aligns more closely with prescriptive norms (Myhill & Watson). By documenting authentic usage and acknowledging variation, descriptive grammar highlights the adaptability of language across different social and cultural settings, making it essential for understanding linguistic change.

On the other hand, prescriptive grammar establishes rules for how language ought to be used, stressing adherence to established norms and conventions. This perspective has traditionally been valued for maintaining clarity, precision, and standardization, though it is often criticized for limiting natural variation and creativity. Wyse (2001) notes that grammar debates frequently blur the boundary between stylistic preference and correctness, reflecting the tension between prescriptive and descriptive views. In contrast, pedagogical grammar acts as a bridge, adapting both descriptive and prescriptive insights for classroom practice. It aims not only to ensure accuracy but also to promote communicative competence by making grammar meaningful and applicable (Kifli & Nasution; Kusrini & Ummah). By integrating these three perspectives, teachers can design grammar instruction that is balanced, practical, and responsive to diverse learner needs.

2. Role of grammar in communicative competence

Grammar plays a central role in communicative competence, which is increasingly recognized as essential for successful language acquisition and effective interaction. Communicative competence, first introduced by Hymes and later expanded to include grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic dimensions, emphasizes not only

knowing the rules of a language but also understanding when, how, and where to use them appropriately. Grammatical knowledge forms the basis of this competence, enabling learners to construct accurate sentences and express nuanced meanings. Within the framework of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), grammar is no longer viewed as a rigid set of rules but as a tool embedded in meaningful contexts, allowing learners to apply structures naturally in communication. As Purpura notes, the ability to assess and use grammatical forms directly impacts one's capacity to communicate effectively in a second language.

Research consistently shows that grammar instruction, when integrated with communicative tasks, enhances both accuracy and fluency, supporting learners' ability to engage in real-world interactions with confidence. Unlike traditional rote learning methods, contextualized grammar teaching fosters negotiation of meaning, reformulation of speech, and adaptability in diverse communicative scenarios. Empirical studies highlight that focused grammar teaching leads to notable improvements in communicative skills, while neglecting it often limits learners' capacity to convey complex ideas clearly. Thus, grammar should not be seen merely as a set of structural rules but as a vital foundation for communicative competence. An integrated, contextualized approach ensures that learners develop the grammatical knowledge necessary to navigate varied social settings and communicate with precision and confidence.

3. Key linguistic and pedagogical theories influencing grammar teaching

The teaching of grammar in English Language Teaching (ELT) has been significantly influenced by various linguistic and pedagogical theories. Among these theories, Behaviorism, Cognitivism, Constructivism, and Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) are pivotal in shaping approaches toward grammar instruction. Each perspective offers unique insights into teaching methodologies and the necessary emphasis on different aspects of language acquisition, which fundamentally alter how grammar is presented and understood in a classroom context.

The key linguistic and pedagogical theories influencing grammar teaching as follows:

- a. Behaviorism emphasizes observable behaviors and the reinforcement of correct responses through repetition and drills, which historically dominated language teaching practices. In this context, grammar is taught through rote learning and mechanical drills, allowing students to internalize grammatical structures. Such practices align with the idea of habit formation suggested by behaviorists, indicating that consistent practice leads to the automation of language skills. However, critics argue that this approach overlooks the complexity of language use and the cognitive processes involved in genuine communication
- b. Cognitivism shifts the focus toward the mental processes behind language acquisition, asserting that understanding the rules governing grammar is crucial for effective communication. This perspective promotes explicit grammar instruction, where learners are encouraged to comprehend grammatical rules and structures rather than merely memorize them. Proponents argue that rule explanation can lead to a deeper understanding of grammatical concepts. Research indicates that this cognitive approach enhances learners' ability to employ grammatical structures creatively. While Cognitivism positively influences grammar teaching, it may neglect the contextual nuances of language use.
- c. Constructivism emphasizes a student-centered approach to learning, positing that knowledge is constructed through social interactions and personal experiences, thus advocating for discovery-based learning in grammar instruction. Within a Constructivist framework, students engage in collaborative activities that require them to negotiate meaning and apply grammatical knowledge in context. Such interactive environments encourage learners to assess their understanding, correct their mistakes, and develop their language skills through authentic communication, promoting learner autonomy and critical thinking.
- d. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) synthesizes multiple theories, placing communicative competence at the center of language instruction. Developed as a response to previous methods' shortcomings, CLT emphasizes meaningful communication over rote

memorization of language forms. This paradigm recognizes that grammatical competence is an essential component of communicative competence, suggesting that grammar should be taught in context and through active engagement in real-life communication scenarios. Research has shown that integrating grammar instruction within communicative tasks enhances language fluency and accuracy. Nonetheless, challenges remain in balancing grammatical accuracy with fluency, especially in EFL contexts where students may overly focus on grammar.

- e. Task-Based Learning (TBL), a subcategory of CLT, refines the approach to grammar teaching by structuring lessons around meaningful tasks that require using language as a tool for achieving specific outcomes. This method promotes experiential learning, encouraging students to apply grammatical structures in practical situations. By arranging activities that replicate real-life tasks, educators can foster an environment that emphasizes both fluency and accuracy in language use.

The integration of these theories underscores a trend toward a more holistic understanding of language teaching, where grammar is not viewed as an isolated subject but as a catalyst for communication. Teachers are encouraged to create learning experiences that blend drilling, cognitive engagement, cooperative learning, and task completion. This multi-faceted approach acknowledges the complexity of second language acquisition by accommodating diverse learning styles and needs. As globalization continues to influence language education, employing diverse pedagogical strategies that facilitate grammatical competence through varied methods ensures that students are better prepared for real-world communication challenges (Zhao, 2022).

In conclusion, understanding the theories influencing grammar instruction—such as Behaviorism, Cognitivism, Constructivism, CLT, and TBL—enables educators to design learning experiences that cater to learners' needs while equipping them with essential language skills. Each theory contributes valuable insights that inform grammar teaching practices, fostering a well-rounded approach that prioritizes com-

prehension, communication, and contextual learning. The ongoing evolution of language teaching methodologies will likely continue to adapt these theoretical foundations, paving the way for innovative practices in the ever-changing landscape of language education.

C. Approaches to Grammar Teaching

Approaches to grammar teaching have continually evolved, reflecting diverse perspectives on how learners best acquire grammatical knowledge and apply it effectively in communication. Some approaches were shown as follows,

1. Traditional approach

The traditional approaches to grammar teaching have primarily revolved around methods such as the Grammar-Translation Method, Structural Approach, and Audiolingual Method. These methods reflect the educational philosophies prevalent during their time, focusing primarily on the formal aspects of language learning.

a. Grammar-Translation Method

The Grammar-Translation Method (GTM) has long been a dominant approach in language instruction, especially in teaching classical languages such as Latin and Greek. This method emphasizes the direct teaching of grammatical rules, vocabulary lists, and translation exercises, where learners frequently translate between their native and target languages. While advocates argue that GTM helps learners build a strong theoretical grasp of grammar and syntax, critics highlight its shortcomings in preparing students for real-life communication since it places little emphasis on speaking and listening skills (Nishimuro & Borg, 2013; Yaşar et al., 2024). Instruction within GTM follows a deductive approach, presenting grammar rules first and requiring students to apply them in written exercises. As a result, the method relies heavily on memorization and rote learning, which, although fostering accuracy, often limits students' ability to use the language naturally in interactive contexts (Enesi et al., 2023).

Beyond its structural focus, GTM also tends to isolate language learning from cultural and practical contexts. By concentrating primarily on translation and formal exercises, it minimizes learners' opportunities to engage with the target culture or practice spontaneous communication. Research has shown that students taught through this method frequently encounter difficulties transferring classroom knowledge into authentic language use and often lack the confidence to participate in real conversations (Enesi et al., 2023). Consequently, while GTM can provide learners with a solid grammatical foundation, its rigid and academic nature makes it less effective for developing communicative competence, leading educators to explore more interactive and context-based alternatives (Borg & Burns, 2008).

b. Structural Approach

The Structural Approach developed in the mid-20th century as a response to the shortcomings of the Grammar-Translation Method (GTM), offering a more organized framework for language teaching. It is based on the principle that language functions as a system of interrelated structures, which can be systematically taught through repetition and practice (AlAbri et al., 2022). Within this method, instruction is typically centered on specific grammatical patterns, guiding learners to identify, practice, and produce sentences based on predetermined models to strengthen their accuracy in grammar use. In practical terms, this approach relies on well-sequenced syllabuses that highlight key linguistic features of the target language. Teachers may, for instance, introduce a tense or grammatical construction and provide extensive exercises that allow students to practice the form in controlled contexts. By prioritizing grammatical accuracy, the Structural Approach ensures learners build a strong foundation before moving on to more advanced language skills (Boroujeni, 2012).

However, despite its systematic nature, the Structural Approach has been criticized for limiting learners' communicative growth. Scholars argue that while the method goes beyond the GTM in analyzing language, it often reduces learning to mechanical drills without fostering meaningful interaction (Ismail et al., 2023). As a result, students may

perform well in structured tasks but encounter difficulties when engaging in spontaneous conversations that require fluency and adaptability. The emphasis on accuracy over fluency can also discourage learners from using the language freely, as they may fear making mistakes. Thus, although the Structural Approach has contributed valuable insights into grammar instruction, its lack of focus on real-life communication highlights the need for approaches that balance structural accuracy with practical language use.

c. Audiolingual Method

The Audiolingual Method, which emerged during World War II under the influence of behaviorist theory, emphasized learning through repetition and reinforcement. This method views language as a system of habits that can be developed through conditioned responses, focusing primarily on oral and aural skills before written forms (Ashirov & Аташова, 2023). In grammar instruction, students were trained through repetitive pattern drills, substitution exercises, and mimicry of native speaker models, allowing them to instinctively produce grammatically correct sentences. The goal was to promote automaticity and fluency, particularly in speaking and listening, by reinforcing accuracy in grammatical structures (Özkan, 2016).

Although this approach successfully highlighted the importance of practice and reinforced foundational speaking skills, it was criticized for neglecting meaning and communicative contexts (Liu & Dou, 2017). Learners often became proficient in drills but struggled to apply grammar effectively in real communication. Nevertheless, the Audiolingual Method contributed significantly to the evolution of language pedagogy by underscoring the value of repetition in acquiring fluency. Its limitations, however, paved the way for newer methodologies that integrate grammar instruction with meaningful communication. Current practices emphasize a more balanced approach, combining oral practice with contextualized, communicative tasks, thereby addressing both accuracy and competence in authentic language use (Tsapikidou, 2015).

Overall, these traditional approaches to grammar teaching, characterized by their emphasis on explicit instruction and mechanical practice, laid the groundwork for current educational practices while

simultaneously highlighting the limitations of focusing solely on grammatical form. As pedagogy evolved, newer methodologies such as Communicative Language Teaching recognized the importance of integrating grammar instruction within meaningful communication contexts, beginning the transition from form-focused to meaning-based approaches (Kiran, 2021). Teachers and educators continue to reflect on these foundational methods, adjusting their practices in response to student needs and the dynamic nature of language use (Phipps & Borg, 2009).

2. Modern approach

a. Communicative Grammar Teaching

Communicative Grammar Teaching (CGT) focuses on integrating grammar instruction within meaningful communication contexts. It emerges from the principles of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), which emphasizes interaction as the primary means of language acquisition. CGT encourages learners to use grammar structures actively in conversation rather than through rote memorization. In this regard, Richards and Rodgers elucidate that such methodologies prioritize communicative competence over mere grammatical accuracy, reflecting a paradigm shift in language education towards more pragmatic approaches (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). This has been supported by Baecher et al., who note that recent trends in language teaching underscore a lesser emphasis on traditional grammar instruction, instead advocating for grammar to be taught contextually as part of communicative tasks (Baecher et al., 2013).

In CGT, error correction techniques are typically embedded within interactive exercises, promoting a learning environment where students can explore grammar in context and receive feedback in real time. This shifts the role of the teacher from a traditional authoritarian figure to a facilitator who guides learners in discovering grammatical rules through usage in authentic communication scenarios (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). The efficacy of this approach can be observed in studies that link communicative practice with improved learner engagement and comprehension, as it enables learners to internalize language structures through practical applications rather than isolated drills (Baecher

et al., 2013). Thus, CGT aims to foster both grammatical competence and confidence in speech among learners.

Furthermore, CGT acknowledges the necessity of language co-construction among peers, valuing collaborative learning where students negotiate meaning. This participative method reflects the cognitive and affective dimensions of language learning, aligning with contemporary educational theory which posits that language learning is a social activity (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). The approach fosters a deeper understanding of grammar as a tool for navigation within social contexts, thereby preparing learners for real-world communication (Baecher et al., 2013). Ultimately, CGT serves as a bridge between form and function, ensuring learners develop both the structural knowledge of the language and the ability to use it effectively.

b. Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT)

Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) fundamentally revolves around the idea that tasks, which are defined as organized activities focused on achieving specific outcomes, serve as the core unit of planning and instruction in language learning (Lei, 2022). This approach emphasizes the completion of meaningful tasks as a means of promoting language development relevant to learners' lives. Johnson's exploration of task design suggests that TBLT strategies enhance students' linguistic capabilities through practical application within real-life scenarios, thereby fostering engagement and overall language proficiency (Johnson, 2003).

Moreover, TBLT encourages autonomy and motivation among learners. By allowing students to explore language through authentic tasks, it has been found to heighten their interest in learning. A study indicated that such tasks serve not only as a practical language application but also as a motivator that facilitates deeper learning and self-directed exploration (Lei, 2022). This aligns with the findings of Huang, who notes that TBLT can significantly foster higher-level thinking and problem-solving skills as students navigate challenges associated with completing tasks (Huang, 2024).

The effectiveness of TBLT is also tied to its adaptability across various educational contexts, highlighting its versatility in teaching

English for specific purposes or general proficiency (Jia, 2018). This adaptability underscores the framework's inherent flexibility, making it suitable for diverse learner populations with varying needs and goals. As such, TBLT promotes a learner-centered approach that places equal emphasis on form, function, and effectiveness in communication, ultimately leading to improved learning outcomes and fostering a more collaborative and inclusive language learning environment (Jia, 2018).

c. Content-Based Instruction (CBI)

Content-Based Instruction (CBI) aligns language teaching with subject matter content to facilitate dual language and content learning. This approach promotes the idea that language acquisition is most effective when learners engage with meaningful content, contextualizing language within functional tasks associated with real-world subjects (Villalobos, 2014). The integration of content in language instruction encourages second language learners to gain proficiency in both the target language and the thematic content, fostering cognitive engagement and practical application (Roodsari & Harrison, 2024). CBI is rooted in learner-centered principles, promoting participation and interest through topics that resonate with students' experiences and academic needs (Wang & Liu, 2017).

Notably, CBI encourages the use of authentic materials and assessments, facilitating a more immersive and relevant learning environment for students. Villalobos emphasizes that this method allows learners to use the language in context, enhancing their communicative ability while sparking interest in the subject matter being taught (Villalobos, 2014). As learners engage with content across various subject areas, they not only learn grammatical structures but also develop critical thinking and problem-solving skills necessary for academic success (Herrero, 2011). This underscores CBI's role in promoting comprehensive language skills while integrating substantive educational content.

Furthermore, CBI presents unique challenges and necessitates professional development for instructors to navigate effectively. Teachers must reconceptualize their pedagogical approaches to content and language integration, addressing common misconceptions about language instruction in the process (Cammarata, 2010). Research indicates

that effective CBI implementations require careful planning and consideration of learners' diverse linguistic backgrounds, echoing the necessity of tailored teaching strategies (Cammarata, 2009). Ultimately, CBI serves as a robust framework for educational practices, merging grammar instruction with authentic communication and content learning to achieve holistic educational outcomes.

d. Lexical Approach

The Lexical Approach is based on the idea that language is largely composed of multi-word units, or “chunks,” which learners must acquire to communicate effectively. Rather than focusing only on individual words or rigid grammatical patterns, this method highlights the importance of prefabricated phrases, collocations, and idiomatic expressions that dominate everyday language use. Wray (2002) emphasizes that teaching lexical phrases helps enhance both fluency and comprehension, while Yusuf (2020) notes that learners develop more authentic language skills when engaging with these chunks instead of relying solely on grammar rules. Research supports this perspective, showing that the use of lexical-based teaching improves learners' vocabulary acquisition and functional communication. For example, Krishenan and Kahar (2023) found that upper primary students significantly advanced their vocabulary abilities through exposure to lexical instruction, demonstrating the practical benefits of this approach.

In addition, the Lexical Approach aligns with modern linguistic theories that stress the central role of vocabulary in communication. It reinforces the concept of lexical complexity and encourages learners to notice and internalize vocabulary within meaningful contexts. Yeldham (2018) suggests that phrase-level instruction enhances learning by strengthening the connection between form and meaning, enabling students to use language more effectively in real-life situations. Furthermore, Indarti (2020) highlights that prioritizing vocabulary as the key unit of communication provides learners with a more holistic understanding of language, moving beyond traditional grammar-based methods. By bridging theory and practice, the Lexical Approach fosters deeper engagement and retention, offering a practical framework for developing communicative competence in language learners.

3. An Eclectic/Integrated Approach

An eclectic or integrated approach to grammar teaching draws from multiple methods rather than adhering to a single framework, allowing instruction to adapt to learners' needs, preferences, and classroom contexts. Teachers may, for example, begin with an inductive task that encourages students to infer rules from examples, clarify concepts through deductive explanation, and then consolidate learning with communicative activities. This flexibility avoids the shortcomings of relying solely on one method while keeping lessons systematic and meaningful. In practice, eclectic instruction combines accuracy-focused drills with fluency-based tasks such as role-plays, discussions, or writing activities, thereby linking grammatical knowledge with real-life use. By blending explicit rule teaching with contextualized communication, this approach promotes both accuracy and communicative competence, ensuring that learners not only understand grammar but can also apply it effectively in authentic situations.

Blended Grammar Instruction

Blended grammar instruction integrates multiple teaching approaches to effectively enhance students' understanding of grammatical forms, meaning, and usage. The approach combines face-to-face instruction with online elements, enabling a diverse array of teaching methodologies tailored to meet varied learning styles and needs. Research conducted by Li indicates that the incorporation of blended learning significantly increases language performance and engagement among English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners, emphasizing the advantages of connecting traditional classroom learning with digital resources for a more holistic educational experience Li (2022). This integration fosters a deeper understanding of grammatical concepts as learners engage with content in a multifaceted manner.

A crucial aspect of blended grammar instruction is its focus on not only the forms of language but also their contextual meanings and practical uses in real-life situations. This comprehensive approach cultivates learners' abilities across multiple dimensions of language—from recognizing grammatical structures to applying them meaningfully in communication. According to Wang et al., the blended learning

model aligns explicit grammar instruction with interactive face-to-face practices, thereby facilitating the transfer of complex grammatical concepts into everyday usage scenarios (Wang et al., 2024). Such a method highlights the synergy between engaging content and instructive clarity, allowing students to see the relevance of grammar within a broader linguistic framework.

Moreover, the impact of blended grammar instruction extends beyond mere grammatical competence; it also enhances students' motivation and engagement. A study by Sáenz and Pila-Requeiro emphasizes that learners in blended environments show increased interest and participation, attributing this to the varied instructional methods that blend individual learning with collaborative experiences (Sáenz & Pila-Requeiro, 2025). The blend of different modes of instruction creates a dynamic learning atmosphere that caters to diverse learner preferences and promotes a sense of agency among students, thereby fostering a more robust, integrated approach to language acquisition. Ultimately, an eclectic approach to grammar instruction aims to provide a well-rounded framework that equips learners with the necessary tools to navigate the complexities of language with both accuracy and confidence.

D. Methods in Grammar Teaching

1. Deductive: Rule-Driven Approaches

Deductive grammar instruction is characterized by a rule-driven methodology whereby grammatical concepts are explicitly presented to learners before they engage in practice activities. This traditional approach typically involves the teacher explaining specific grammatical rules, followed by examples and exercises designed to reinforce those rules Sujana et al. (2020). Research indicates that this method can be particularly effective for learners who thrive in structured environments and prefer clear guidelines. For instance, Rauf et al. found that students often respond positively to explicit teaching methods, which can lead to better initial comprehension of grammar (Ismail et al., 2023). The predictability of the deductive approach allows for con-

sistent classroom management and potentially faster mastery of grammatical rules because students understand expectations from the outset.

Moreover, deductive methods have a strong alignment with certain educational contexts, particularly those emphasizing examination and assessment, where knowledge of specific grammar rules is crucial. Studies have shown that this approach can yield immediate results in terms of learners' ability to recognize and apply rules during assessments (Huang, 2023). Furthermore, within environments where time constraints exist, such as intensive language courses, deductive grammar instruction can timely convey essential skills necessary for immediate application, as corroborated by Ismail et al., who observed improved grammar test scores in students taught with deductive methods (Ismail et al., 2023).

However, critics of deductive instruction argue that it may lead to surface-level understanding, with students memorizing rules without sufficient contextual application. In contrast, some educators advocate for a balance between inductive and deductive methods to foster deeper understanding and retention of grammatical structures. For example, Pittman highlights the disconnect between textbooks that often favor the deductive method while neglecting research supporting the benefits of discovery learning, suggesting a need for more blended approaches in grammar teaching (Pittman, 2021). Ultimately, while deductive methods have their place in grammar instruction, they may enhance learners' skills best when integrated with contextual and communicative practices to strengthen overall language proficiency.

2. Inductive: Discovery-Based Approaches

Inductive grammar instruction, in contrast to its deductive counterpart, uses a discovery-based approach where learners explore grammatical rules through observing language in context rather than receiving explicit explanations. This method promotes active engagement, encouraging students to draw conclusions about grammatical structures based on examples provided during lessons. Studies conducted by Gallardo highlight that inductive approaches can stimulate critical thinking

and enhance learner autonomy, as students are motivated to investigate language patterns themselves (Gallardo, 2023). By allowing learners to construct their understanding of grammatical rules, this technique leads to more personalized and meaningful language acquisition experiences.

Moreover, the significance of inductive instruction lies in its ability to promote long-term retention of grammatical knowledge. Research has indicated that students exposed to the inductive method might develop stronger analytical skills regarding language use. For instance, results from a comparison between deductive and inductive methods indicated that students taught through an inductive approach outperformed their deductive counterparts in applying grammatical structures in communicative tasks (Benitez-Correa et al., 2019). This aligns with the findings by Nešić and Hamidović, who noted that while preferences varied, many learners appreciated the opportunities provided by the inductive method to engage in more contextualized language practices (Nešić & Hamidović, 2015).

Despite its many benefits, the inductive approach is not without its challenges. Some students may struggle with self-directed learning or require more guidance to identify grammatical patterns effectively. This can be particularly true for learners in demanding educational contexts who may benefit from a more structured environment. Consequently, as critiques have surfaced regarding the effectiveness of purely inductive methods, it is suggested that a combined approach—integrating both inductive and deductive techniques—may be the most effective means of teaching grammar (Poudel, 2022). This hybrid model allows learners to benefit from explicit rule presentations while also engaging in the discovery process, fostering a deeper understanding of language use.

In grammar instruction, both deductive and inductive methods have their strengths and weaknesses. Deductive approaches offer clarity and structure, facilitating quicker rule acquisition, while inductive methods promote engagement and critical thinking through discovery. Given the varying preferences among learners and the changing dynamics of educational contexts, a blended approach that incorporates

elements from both deductive and inductive strategies seems to offer the most comprehensive framework for effective grammar teaching (Haight et al., 2007). This eclectic strategy not only addresses the diverse needs of learners but also reinforces grammar learning as a fundamental aspect of language competence

E. Techniques in Grammar Teaching

Teaching grammar effectively requires the use of varied techniques that balance accuracy, fluency, and meaningful communication. Over time, language educators have employed multiple approaches to ensure that grammar instruction supports learners' ability to use the language in real contexts.

1. Drills and Controlled Practice

Drills and controlled practice are foundational techniques in grammar instruction, emphasizing repetitive practice of specific grammatical structures in a highly structured manner. This method often involves mechanical drills where students are required to produce particular forms, such as filling in blanks or repeating patterns. According to Graham and Perin, such controlled practice can reinforce fluency and accuracy in language use, particularly in the early stages of language acquisition when learners are building fundamental vocabulary and grammatical understanding (Graham & Perin (2007)). When delivered effectively, these methods can help students internalize grammatical rules and recognize their correct usage in various contexts.

While drills can be useful for acquiring grammatical forms, the effectiveness of this approach has been debated among educators and researchers. Some studies, like those of Benitez-Correa et al., suggest that mechanical drills may lead to initial proficiency in grammar but can often result in superficial understanding, limiting students' ability to apply this knowledge in less structured, communicative contexts (Benitez-Correa et al., 2019). Furthermore, the monotonous nature of rote exercises may detract from student engagement and motivation, prompting the need for supplementary interactive activities that foster more meaningful learning experiences.

To maximize the benefits of drills and controlled practice, educators are now integrating them with contextualized and communicative approaches to grammar instruction. By placing grammar within meaningful contexts, as suggested by researchers like Mustafa and Bajalani, students can better understand how grammatical forms function within authentic language use, allowing for a more profound assimilation and application of language structures (Mustafa & Bajalani, 2024). Hence, while drills play a crucial role in foundational grammar learning, harmonizing them with contextualized practices can significantly enhance students' grammatical competence and overall engagement.

2. Contextualized Grammar Teaching

Contextualized Grammar Teaching (CGT) integrates grammar instruction with authentic situations and meaningful content, enabling learners to understand and apply language structures in relevant contexts. Studies show that when grammar is connected to real-life materials, it not only improves grammatical accuracy but also enhances students' ability to use grammar effectively in communication (Mart, 2013). For instance, Mustafa and Bajalani (2024) found that contextualized practices strengthened learners' writing skills by demonstrating grammar in use rather than in isolation. Rooted in constructivist theory, CGT encourages learners to build knowledge through interaction and reflection on language in context, leading to deeper engagement. Research by Nanyinza and Munsaka (2023) further indicates that pre-service teachers achieved better results when applying contextual strategies, as learners could relate grammar to their social and linguistic environments. While the success of CGT requires careful planning and the use of relevant, authentic materials, its benefits include fostering accuracy, motivation, and a stronger appreciation of grammar as part of real communication..

3. Using Texts, Songs, and Media for Grammar Learning

Incorporating texts, songs, and multimedia resources into grammar instruction provides an engaging and contextualized way for students to learn grammatical structures. By presenting grammar through literature, music, and videos, learners are exposed to authentic usage that highlights rhythm, tone, and context, making it easier to internalize

how forms operate in real communication (Syafryadin, 2021). This multi-sensory experience not only improves retention but also transforms grammar lessons into enjoyable and motivating activities, encouraging students to apply grammar meaningfully. Authentic resources like popular songs and literary texts also enhance cultural awareness by introducing idiomatic expressions and conversational grammar, enabling learners to see grammar as an active element of communication rather than a set of isolated rules (Walker, 2020).

Additionally, the integration of digital media and online platforms opens new opportunities for interactive grammar learning. Many technological tools now provide exercises based on authentic materials, offering learners immediate feedback while allowing them to practice grammar in varied contexts. Research shows that these digital approaches increase engagement, cater to diverse learning needs, and support flexible, student-centered instruction (Alamri, 2022). By blending texts, music, and digital resources, educators create rich and varied learning environments that not only strengthen students' grammatical competence but also connect grammar learning to real-world communication and cultural contexts.

4. Games and Interactive Activities

Games and interactive activities provide an effective means of teaching grammar by turning lessons into engaging, student-centered experiences that encourage participation and motivation. Incorporating elements such as role-plays, group discussions, peer teaching, and grammar-based games allows learners to apply rules in communicative contexts, fostering critical thinking and reinforcing accurate language use (Sun et al., 2023; Nanyinza & Munsaka, 2023). Research highlights that such approaches not only improve grammatical understanding and vocabulary acquisition but also boost learners' confidence and promote collaborative learning in supportive classroom settings. The flexibility of game-based methods makes them adaptable to diverse learning styles and contexts, while the integration of technology further extends opportunities for practice beyond the classroom. Overall, games and in-

teractive strategies make grammar instruction more enjoyable, meaningful, and effective by combining practice, creativity, and social interaction.

5. Technology-Enhanced Grammar Instruction

Technology-enhanced grammar instruction incorporates digital tools such as applications, artificial intelligence, and language corpora to create more engaging and personalized learning experiences. Grammar-based applications allow students to practice interactively while receiving immediate feedback, accommodating different learning speeds and challenges (Alamri, 2022). Artificial intelligence further supports individualized learning by tailoring exercises and pinpointing areas for improvement, thereby encouraging learner autonomy and active participation. The use of corpora also provides authentic language data, enabling students to examine how grammar operates across genres and contexts, which enhances both flexibility in language use and critical thinking skills (Liu & Jiang, 2009). Despite these advantages, successful implementation depends on teacher readiness and professional training to effectively integrate technology into instruction. With proper support, technology-enhanced grammar teaching can enrich learning, foster engagement, and better prepare learners to meet the demands of communication in a digital age.

The techniques and methods employed in grammar teaching play a crucial role in shaping learners' understanding and application of language rules. Approaches such as drills and contextualized teaching, along with engaging media, interactive activities, and technology-enhanced instruction, each contribute significantly to learners' grammar competence. By integrating these diverse methods effectively, educators can create dynamic and engaging learning environments that promote deep understanding, retention, and practical application of grammatical structures, ultimately enhancing overall language proficiency (Walker, 2020; Sun et al., 2023; Abdullah et al., 2021).

F. Challenges in Teaching Grammar

1. Learners' Negative Perceptions Toward Grammar Learning

One significant challenge in teaching grammar is learners' negative perceptions and attitudes toward the subject. Many students consider grammar as tedious, unimportant, and lacking relevance to creativity in language use. As highlighted in Watson's research, attitudes such as Clare's, who perceives grammar as secondary to creativity, affect pedagogy by leading to a minimized focus on grammar in writing instruction (Watson, 2015). This negative perception can hinder students' willingness to engage with grammatical concepts, resulting in avoidance behaviors and a lack of motivation to learn essential structures necessary for fluency in the target language. Consequently, teachers face the daunting task of changing these perceptions to facilitate an effective learning environment.

Moreover, the stigma attached to grammar as a purely rule-based system contributes significantly to students' dislike for the subject. Many students associate grammar instruction with memorization and drills, leading to disengagement from the learning process, viewing grammar as an abstract set of rules devoid of practical application (Valeo & Spada, 2015). Research indicates that such negative feelings can lead to anxiety and reduced confidence in language skills among learners. This challenge necessitates pedagogical strategies that present grammar in a more engaging and meaningful manner, particularly by connecting grammatical forms to interactive and communicative usages in real-life situations.

2. Balancing Form-Focused Instruction with Communication

A key difficulty in grammar teaching is finding the right balance between focusing on grammatical form and encouraging communication. Teachers often face the dilemma of ensuring accuracy without limiting students' ability to express themselves freely. Excessive emphasis on grammar rules can restrict natural communication and reduce learners' confidence in using the language (Hidayatulloh & Margana, 2022). Research highlights that students learn best when grammar instruction is connected to meaningful communication, as both elements support language development. To achieve this, integrated methods are

suggested, combining explicit instruction with communicative practice. Valeo and Spada (2015) stress that introducing form-focused explanations during communication tasks helps students grasp and apply rules more effectively, though this requires careful lesson planning and skilled teaching. Professional growth and collaboration among educators are essential in addressing this challenge, alongside creating a supportive classroom where learners feel safe to make mistakes and experiment with language use (Balushi, 2019).

3. L1 Interference and Fossilization of Errors

L1 interference poses a considerable obstacle in grammar teaching because the rules and patterns of a learner's first language often negatively influence their acquisition of English grammar. This results in transfer errors, where learners mistakenly apply their native language structures to the target language (Budiharto, 2019). For example, Indonesian learners frequently struggle with English articles, a feature absent in their first language, leading to frequent omission or incorrect usage (Nugraha et al., 2017). Such interference can significantly impact learners' grammatical accuracy and fluency. Over time, these recurring errors may become fossilized if not addressed properly, particularly when learners receive little or no corrective feedback. Fossilization occurs when incorrect forms are repeatedly produced and become embedded in learners' language use, making them resistant to change despite improvements in communicative ability (Jawad & Mansour, 2021; Pudín et al., 2015).

To minimize the effects of L1 interference and prevent fossilization, teachers need to adopt strategies that promote both awareness and correction of errors. Activities such as error analysis, contrastive grammar practice, and explicit explanations of differences between L1 and L2 structures can help learners recognize problematic areas (Jawad & Mansour, 2021). Providing timely corrective feedback also plays a crucial role in ensuring students internalize accurate forms and gradually enhance their proficiency (Budiharto, 2019). Furthermore, encouraging collaborative learning, where peers provide feedback and discuss grammatical issues, fosters active engagement and helps learners refine their language use in a supportive environment. By integrating

these approaches, teachers can guide students toward greater grammatical precision while reducing the long-term risks of fossilized errors.

4. Time Constraints in Classroom Settings

Time limitations in classroom settings create significant obstacles for effective grammar instruction, as the need to cover broad curricula within restricted schedules often reduces opportunities for in-depth teaching and practice (Watson, 2015). Teachers are frequently pressured to focus on specific grammar points—sometimes in oversimplified ways—to keep pace with standardized testing demands, which can result in learners developing only surface-level understanding without sufficient real-life application (Wach et al., 2021). This situation frustrates both instructors and students, as it undermines the establishment of a solid grammatical foundation essential for fluency and comprehension (Hidayatulloh & Margana, 2022). To address these challenges, educators are encouraged to streamline objectives by prioritizing high-frequency, context-relevant structures and embedding them in communicative tasks, thereby maximizing limited instructional time and fostering more meaningful grammar learning (Arifin, 2023).

5. Teacher Preparedness and Methodology Selection

Teacher preparedness is a key factor in effective grammar instruction, as educators' training, confidence, and beliefs strongly shape their classroom practices. Research indicates that many teachers lack confidence in both their grammatical knowledge and pedagogical skills, leading to inconsistent instruction or reliance on outdated methods, which restricts students' exposure to essential grammatical concepts and may foster negative attitudes toward grammar (Balushi, 2019). Choosing suitable methodologies further complicates the issue, as teachers often struggle between traditional rule-based approaches and communicative methods, with cultural or institutional pressures sometimes reinforcing conventional strategies despite evidence supporting more integrated practices (Baleghizadeh & Mozaheb, 2011; Schurz & Coumel, 2020). To overcome these challenges, continuous professional development that emphasizes modern grammar pedagogy is crucial, incorporating workshops, peer collaboration, and reflective practices to

help teachers refine their beliefs and adopt innovative strategies (Silva et al., 2019). Strengthening teacher preparedness in this way ensures learners receive grammar instruction that is both accurate and engaging, better meeting their needs in contemporary language classrooms.



7

CHAPTER 7: TEACHING READING SKILLS IN ENGLISH



A. Teaching Reading Theory

Teaching reading in English has long been recognized as a cornerstone of language development, particularly in second and foreign language learning environments. Reading is not just a passive skill, but an active process of constructing meaning, and its pedagogy has evolved significantly over the decades. One of the most influential voices in the field, Christine Nuttall (2005), emphasizes that reading is a means to an end: acquiring knowledge, pleasure, or language improvement. According to her, reading instruction must center on equipping learners with strategies to become autonomous readers.

Nuttall categorizes reading into three main models: the bottom-up, top-down, and interactive. The bottom-up model focuses on decoding letters and words, while the top-down model highlights prediction and the use of prior knowledge. She advocates for an interactive model, where both processes operate simultaneously for effective comprehension. According to Nuttall (2005), fluency is not just about speed but about comprehension. Fluent reading in English requires practice with various types of texts, appropriate vocabulary knowledge, and guided reading strategies.

Nuttall also argues that text difficulty must be balanced neither too challenging nor too simplistic to maintain learners' motivation and facilitate comprehension development. This aligns with the concept of the "zone of proximal development" in broader educational theory. William Grabe (1991) builds upon cognitive theory in his exploration of reading as a complex cognitive process. He asserts that reading involves multiple sub-processes, including recognition, syntactic parsing, semantic integration, and inferencing.

Grabe (1991) identifies five purposes for reading: to search for information, for quick skimming, for learning, for integration, and for general comprehension. In the ESL context, learners must be guided to adjust their reading approach based on purpose. A key insight from Grabe's work is the concept of automaticity in word recognition. The faster and more automatic word recognition becomes, the more cognitive energy is freed for higher-level comprehension. Grabe also critiques the overreliance on intensive reading in many classrooms. He

advocates for integrating extensive reading — reading large amounts of comprehensible material for enjoyment and general understanding. Nuttall supports this view, arguing that the more learners read, the better they read. This idea aligns closely with Stephen Krashen's Input Hypothesis (1993), which posits that comprehensible input is the key to language acquisition.

Krashen (1993) introduces the concept of Free Voluntary Reading (FVR), which he deems the most powerful tool for developing reading fluency, vocabulary acquisition, and overall language competence. According to Krashen, when learners read texts they find interesting and understandable ($i+1$), they unconsciously absorb language structures and vocabulary, reinforcing both linguistic competence and confidence. In contrast to traditional approaches emphasizing direct grammar and vocabulary instruction, Krashen's FVR emphasizes natural language acquisition over conscious learning, suggesting a need to reform classroom practices.

Krashen also emphasizes the affective filter hypothesis, suggesting that anxiety, low motivation, and lack of self-confidence can block input. In reading instruction, this implies that positive classroom environments and learner choice are critical. Grabe and Nuttall both emphasize the importance of strategy training in reading. Teaching learners how to preview a text, predict content, ask questions, and summarize helps make them strategic, independent readers.

Nuttall (2005) discusses the concept of the "text as a puzzle," where learners must make hypotheses, check them, and revise their understanding — a process that fosters critical thinking. Grabe suggests that skilled readers use both bottom-up processing (recognizing words and phrases) and top-down processing (using context and background knowledge). Teaching reading should aim to foster both. Vocabulary knowledge is another crucial variable. Krashen posits that vocabulary is best acquired through reading, not through isolated word lists. This supports the inclusion of extensive reading in curriculum design.

Nuttall asserts that pre-teaching vocabulary selectively can support comprehension, but excessive vocabulary instruction before reading can remove the challenge and reduce learner engagement. The

teaching of reading subskills such as identifying main ideas, recognizing supporting details, making inferences, and summarizing is vital. Grabe suggests these should be integrated into meaningful reading activities rather than taught in isolation. Classroom practice must also consider reading fluency, which includes speed, accuracy, and prosody. Fluency drills, repeated reading, and timed readings can aid ESL learners in developing this.

Nuttall warns that overemphasis on comprehension questions can lead to superficial reading. Instead, she suggests using task-based reading activities that require real-life application of the information in the text. Grabe promotes content-based reading instruction, where reading texts align with learners' interests or academic fields, thus providing intrinsic motivation and deeper engagement. Krashen, too, promotes learner autonomy by encouraging reading choice. When learners choose what to read, they are more likely to engage and persist, leading to greater language development. Another key consideration is assessment. Nuttall suggests that assessment in reading should include formative strategies such as journals and portfolios not just standardized comprehension tests.

In terms of classroom interaction, all three theorists would agree that reading is not just a solitary activity. Discussions, group tasks, and peer responses enrich understanding and make reading more social and collaborative. Technology integration has also become significant in recent years. Although not covered extensively by Nuttall, Grabe, or Krashen, their principles support using e-books and reading apps if they provide comprehensible, engaging input. Ultimately, effective reading instruction combines elements of explicit strategy instruction, meaningful reading practice, learner engagement, and sustained exposure to a variety of texts. Teachers must balance structured skill-building with opportunities for natural, enjoyable reading experiences. This dual focus nurtures both competence and a lifelong habit of reading.

In conclusion, the theories of Nuttall (2005), Grabe (1991), and Krashen (1993) offer a rich foundation for teaching reading in English. Together, they argue for a shift from rigid instruction to a more holistic,

reader-centered, and input-rich approach — one that fosters not only comprehension, but also motivation, autonomy, and lifelong literacy in a second language.

B. Teacher's Reading Strategies

Teaching reading is a complex and purposeful endeavor. It requires teachers to act not only as transmitters of knowledge but as facilitators of thinking, language use, and meaning-making. Theories by Vygotsky, Rosenblatt, and Brown offer foundational perspectives that help shape effective reading strategies in classrooms, particularly in ESL/EFL contexts. Lev Vygotsky's sociocultural theory (1962) asserts that learning is deeply embedded in social interaction. Applied to reading instruction, this means that learners construct meaning through dialogue with peers, texts, and teachers, not in isolation. Reading becomes a shared act. Vygotsky introduced the concept of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) — the space between what learners can do independently and what they can accomplish with guidance. Teachers' reading strategies should be aimed precisely within this zone, providing scaffolding that helps learners reach higher comprehension levels.

One practical application of ZPD in reading is guided reading, where teachers offer structured support—asking questions, modeling comprehension strategies, and prompting predictions—to move learners gradually toward independence. Vygotsky also emphasized language as a psychological tool. When teachers use “think-aloud” techniques, they externalize their own comprehension processes, giving learners insight into how meaning is constructed—a process that supports internalization of reading strategies.

Louise Rosenblatt's (2005) transactional theory of reading shifts the focus to the interaction between the reader and the text. She posited that meaning is not located in the text alone or in the reader alone, but is created in the *transaction* between the two. Rosenblatt distinguished between efferent reading (reading for information) and aesthetic reading (reading for personal response and emotional engagement). Teachers need to design strategies that allow both to emerge,

depending on the type of text and purpose of the reading activity. Strategies such as reader response journals, literature circles, and personal connection prompts allow learners to engage affectively and critically with texts. These approaches encourage a deeper, more personal form of reading that goes beyond comprehension questions.

Rosenblatt's view empowers teachers to respect individual interpretations and multiple meanings, encouraging open-ended questions and valuing learners' emotional and cultural responses to literature. This supports learner identity and voice. Brown (2005) contributes a language acquisition and methodological perspective to reading instruction. He emphasizes that reading is an interactive process, where readers use both bottom-up (text-driven) and top-down (knowledge-driven) strategies simultaneously. Brown highlights the need for teachers to train strategic readers. This includes teaching learners how to preview texts, activate prior knowledge, skim for main ideas, scan for specific information, infer meanings, and summarize—skills essential for academic literacy.

According to Brown, strategic competence in reading is vital for language learners. It enables them to monitor their understanding, adjust reading speed, and apply different strategies depending on the reading goal—whether it be reading a short story or a scientific article. Brown also emphasizes the importance of schema theory—the idea that readers bring prior knowledge and expectations to the text. Teachers must activate learners' schemata through pre-reading activities, such as predicting, discussing background information, or looking at visuals. In Brown's model, teachers are facilitators who guide learners to become independent readers. This aligns with Vygotsky's view of scaffolding and Rosenblatt's call for personal engagement—showing that effective reading instruction integrates cognitive, social, and emotional dimensions. Teachers must also consider learner differences in strategy use. Brown notes that not all learners naturally adopt metacognitive strategies, so teachers must explicitly teach how to reflect on reading—through think-alouds, self-questioning, and comprehension monitoring techniques.

Combining the three theorists, effective reading strategies include a mix of modeling, guided practice, peer collaboration, and reflection. For example, a teacher may model making inferences (Brown), guide discussion within the ZPD (Vygotsky), and allow learners to connect personally with the text (Rosenblatt).

Assessment strategies must also align with these theories. Instead of relying solely on multiple-choice tests, teachers can use reading portfolios, annotated texts, dialogue journals, or book talks—methods that capture learners’ interaction with texts and their reading development. In a multilingual or ESL setting, these theories advocate for inclusive reading instruction. Vygotsky and Rosenblatt especially argue for culturally responsive teaching, where texts reflect learners’ backgrounds, and discussions are inclusive of different linguistic and cultural perspectives.

In conclusion, teachers’ reading strategies are most effective when they synthesize theoretical insights: using Vygotsky’s scaffolding and social learning, Rosenblatt’s engagement and response, and Brown’s structured, cognitive strategies. Together, these frameworks equip educators to develop readers who are not only skilled but also thoughtful, strategic, and engaged.

C. Learners’ Reading Strategies

In the context of language learning, reading is a dynamic and cognitively demanding activity. For learners, especially those learning English as a second or foreign language, the development and application of reading strategies are critical for successful comprehension, vocabulary acquisition, and critical thinking. Oxford (2001) defines learning strategies as specific actions or behaviors that learners use to enhance their own learning. Her model classifies strategies into direct (cognitive, memory, compensation) and indirect (metacognitive, affective, social) strategies. Applied to reading, these strategies help learners become more autonomous and effective readers.

One key strategy from Oxford's taxonomy is metacognitive strategy use, such as planning before reading, monitoring comprehension during reading, and evaluating after reading. Learners who actively engage in these processes are better able to understand and retain what they read. Oxford also highlights the importance of cognitive strategies, which include analyzing, summarizing, translating, and reasoning. When reading a text, learners may underline key ideas, take notes, or paraphrase sections to deepen understanding. According to Oxford, affective strategies such as reducing anxiety or encouraging oneself during difficult reading tasks are often overlooked but crucial. Learners with higher affective awareness tend to persist longer with

Cohen (1998) offers another lens, defining language learning strategies as “processes which are consciously selected by learners and which may result in action taken to enhance the learning or use of a second or foreign language.” He differentiates between language learning and language use strategies. In the context of reading, language use strategies involve the actual application of skills like skimming, scanning, guessing meaning from context, and adjusting reading rate. Learners must be trained not just to learn about reading strategies, but to *use them flexibly* across various contexts. Cohen also emphasizes strategy awareness. Many learners use reading strategies unconsciously. Through reflection and instruction, they can become more strategic and deliberate, leading to better comprehension and language retention. A significant contribution by Cohen is the emphasis on strategy training. He argues that learners benefit most when strategies are taught explicitly and linked to specific reading goals or text types. For instance, narrative texts might require prediction and sequencing, while academic articles need summarization and inference skills.

The integration of Oxford's, Rosenblatt's, and Cohen's perspectives highlights that reading strategies function not only as cognitive tools for processing information but also as affective experiences that shape learners' engagement with texts. This dual perspective emphasizes that reading is never a purely mechanical act; it is a meaning-making process that involves both intellectual and emotional dimensions.

For instance, a learner who applies a skimming strategy to quickly capture the gist of a passage (cognitive) may simultaneously respond to how the text aligns or conflicts with their own values, beliefs, or lived experiences (affective/aesthetic). Such integration underscores the idea that reading comprehension extends beyond decoding words—it requires active interaction between text, reader, and context.

In classroom practice, fostering effective reading strategies involves designing activities that stimulate both individual reflection and social interaction. Collaborative approaches such as literature circles, paired reading, or peer questioning have been widely recognized as beneficial. Literature circles, for example, allow learners to assume different roles—summarizer, connector, or questioner—encouraging them to engage with texts from multiple perspectives. Paired reading promotes scaffolding, where more proficient readers can model strategies for their peers, while peer questioning supports the development of critical literacy by prompting learners to interrogate the text rather than passively consume it. These approaches align with Oxford’s (2001) framework of social strategies and Rosenblatt’s (2005) emphasis on the construction of shared meaning through dialogue.

Research inspired by these theorists consistently shows that proficient readers are strategic readers. They do not rely on a single strategy but employ a range of tactics across different phases of reading. Pre-reading strategies include previewing titles, scanning headings, and generating guiding questions, all of which activate prior knowledge and set reading purposes. During-reading strategies involve continuous monitoring of comprehension, such as rereading difficult passages, clarifying unknown vocabulary, or making predictions. Post-reading strategies include summarizing, evaluating arguments, and reflecting on personal responses. This cyclical process reflects a metacognitive orientation, where learners actively regulate their comprehension and learning outcomes.

Another critical insight from Cohen (1998) is the importance of strategy flexibility and transferability. Reading tasks vary widely in purpose and genre, and no single approach can be universally effective. Ac-

ademic articles may require close reading, highlighting, and note-taking, while online news or blog posts might only necessitate skimming for main ideas. More importantly, learners should be trained to transfer strategies across different contexts—exams, self-study, and real-world tasks such as reading manuals, websites, or professional documents. This transferability ensures that reading strategies are not confined to the classroom but become lifelong tools for learning and communication.

A recurring challenge highlighted by Oxford, Rosenblatt, and Cohen is the individual variability in strategy preferences and effectiveness. Learners bring diverse cognitive styles, affective dispositions, and cultural backgrounds into the classroom. For example, some may rely on visual aids like charts, concept maps, or diagrams, while others may prefer auditory reinforcement through oral rehearsal, discussion, or reading aloud. Teachers, therefore, cannot assume a one-size-fits-all model. Instead, they must assess learners' strategy profiles, provide differentiated instruction, and encourage experimentation so that each learner can discover the approaches that best suit their needs.

In conclusion, reading strategies are not innate abilities but teachable, adaptable, and deeply influenced by both cognitive and affective dimensions. Drawing on Oxford (2001), Rosenblatt (2005), and Cohen (1998), educators are called to cultivate learners who are self-aware, emotionally engaged, and strategically competent in their reading practices. By integrating multiple strategies, promoting flexibility, and acknowledging individual differences, teachers can support students in becoming independent and reflective readers capable of constructing meaning across diverse texts and contexts. Ultimately, the development of strategic readers contributes not only to academic success but also to lifelong literacy in an increasingly complex and information-rich world.



8

CHAPTER 8: TEACHING WRITING SKILLS IN ENGLISH

A. Introduction to Basic Writing Concepts

Writing skills, defined as the ability to organize and convey ideas in writing in a clear, structured form, and in accordance with language rules, play a crucial role in learning English as a foreign language. (*Teaching English as a Foreign Language/TEFL*). Writing not only strengthens mastery of grammar, vocabulary, and sentence structure, but also trains critical thinking skills, organizes ideas, and communicates effectively to readers. For example, a student writing an essay about a personal experience can practice using new vocabulary while developing the ability to construct a logical argument. In a TEFL context, writing allows learners to express themselves creatively and authentically, while building comprehensive language competence.

The writing process consists of several interrelated stages, namely: prewriting, drafting, revising, and editing. Pre-writing is the planning stage in which students identify the writing purpose, audience, and topic, and gather initial ideas. For example, before writing a formal letter, a student might jot down key points they want to convey to the recipient. Drafting is the process of putting ideas into rough drafts without overly focusing on perfection, such as writing the first draft of a short story about a vacation. Revising involves evaluating and refining the content, structure, and clarity of the writing; for example, changing the order of paragraphs to make them more logical. Finally, editing focuses on improving technical aspects such as grammar, spelling, and punctuation, such as correcting errors in the past tense in a narrative. Understanding these stages helps educators design systematic learning to support the gradual development of writing skills.

Selecting a relevant topic and focusing ideas is a critical first step in the writing process. A relevant topic is one that aligns with students' interests, ability levels, and learning context, thereby increasing their motivation and engagement. For example, choosing a topic like *"the influence of social media on adolescents"* can be appealing to young learners because of its relevance to their lives. Educators should guide students in narrowing the topic so it isn't too broad, for example, from "social media" to "the impact of Instagram on adolescent communication." This strategy helps students produce focused and in-depth writing.

To support the development of ideas in the early stages, techniques such as brainstorming, mind mapping, and initial idea gathering can be used. Brainstorming is a technique for generating ideas freely without censorship or judgment, allowing students to record any ideas that arise. For example, when asked to write about a “favorite hobby,” a student might list words like “reading,” “cycling,” or “cooking” as initial ideas. Mind mapping is a visual technique for organizing ideas by connecting main concepts and subconcepts in a diagrammatic form; for example, creating a mind map with “dream vacation” as the center, then branches such as “destinations,” “activities,” and “budget.” Initial idea generation can also be done through group discussions, interviews, or observations; for example, a student might interview a friend about their online learning experience to gather inspiration. By integrating these techniques, educators can create a learning environment that encourages creativity and helps students build a strong foundation for producing quality writing.

B. Structure Paragraph

A paragraph is a basic unit of writing consisting of a group of sentences organized to convey one main idea in a complete and coherent manner. In the context of English writing, a paragraph has the main characteristics, namely unity, coherence, and adequate development. Unity means that all sentences in a paragraph support one main idea without straying off into other topics. Coherence refers to the logical flow between sentences connected by clear transitions, such as the use of conjunctions or transitional phrases. Adequate development indicates that the paragraph provides sufficient explanation or evidence to support the main idea. For example, a paragraph about the benefits of reading books should focus solely on those benefits, with logically connected sentences supported by details such as increased vocabulary or cultural insights.

Parts of a Paragraph

Topic sentence is a sentence that states the main idea or topic of a paragraph. This sentence serves as a guide for the reader to understand the paragraph's essence and is usually placed at the beginning of the paragraph, although in some cases it can be in the middle or end for rhetorical effect. An effective topic sentence should be clear, specific, and reflect the content of the paragraph without being too general or too narrow. For example, a topic sentence like *"Learning English through songs can improve vocabulary mastery"* is more effective than *"Learning languages is fun"* because it is more specific and focused.

To write effective topic sentences, educators can guide students to

- 1) identify the main idea they want to convey,
- 2) use clear and interesting words, and
- 3) ensure that the sentence can be supported by further information in the paragraph.

For example, in a paragraph about the importance of exercise, a topic sentence such as *"Regular exercise improves the physical and mental health of adolescents"* can guide the writing of a focused paragraph.

Supporting sentences are sentences that develop or explain the topic sentence by providing details, examples, facts, or reasons. The main function of supporting sentences is to strengthen the main idea by providing relevant evidence or explanations, so that the paragraph becomes more convincing and informative. For example, in a paragraph with the topic sentence *"Regular exercise improves the physical and mental health of teenagers,"* supporting sentences could be: *"Physical exercise such as jogging can improve heart strength,"* or *"Studies show that exercise helps reduce stress in teenagers."*

Ways to develop supporting sentences include

- 1) using concrete examples, such as personal experiences or statistical data;
- 2) providing logical explanations that are relevant to the topic sentence; and

- 3) ensuring coherence by using transition words such as “for example,” “besides,” or “therefore.” Educators can train students to develop supporting sentences using techniques such as answering “why” or “how” questions related to the topic sentence, thus producing paragraphs that are rich in information.

Concluding sentence is a sentence that summarizes the main idea of a paragraph or provides a final affirmation to reinforce the message conveyed. This sentence serves to provide a sense of completion and helps the reader understand the importance of the idea discussed. An effective concluding sentence usually refers back to the topic sentence without simply repeating it, or provides implications of the idea already explained. For example, for a paragraph about the benefits of exercise, a concluding sentence such as *“Thus, integrating exercise into daily routines can be the key to a healthy and happy life for teenagers”* reinforces the main idea while setting a positive closing tone.

To write a strong concluding sentence, educators can teach students to

- 1) summarize the main points briefly,
- 2) use phrases that provide a sense of completion, such as “thus” or “therefore,” and
- 3) connect the paragraph’s ideas to the broader context when relevant. For example, in a paragraph about learning a language through songs, a concluding sentence such as *“Using songs in English learning is not only effective but also enjoyable for learners”* can strengthen the paragraph’s message while also engaging the reader.

C. Paragraph Development

Paragraph development is the process of enriching the main idea with supporting information such as facts, quotations, and statistics to make the writing more convincing and informative. A fact is a statement that can be verified, for example, *“English is the official language in over 50 countries.”* Quoting from a trusted source adds authority; for example, quoting David Crystal who stated, *“Writing is a key skill for global communication.”* Statistics provide quantitative evidence, such as *“A 2023 study shows that 65% of learners improve their vocabulary through*

regular writing practice.” To develop paragraphs effectively, educators can teach students to

- 1) select relevant facts,
- 2) integrate quotations with clear introductory sentences, and
- 3) use statistics from credible sources by citing the references. For example, in a paragraph about the benefits of journal writing, students can include statistics such as “*Research indicates that writing a journal for 10 minutes daily improves critical thinking by 20%*” to strengthen the argument.

Peer editing is a revision process in which students evaluate the writing of peers to provide constructive feedback to improve the quality of paragraphs. This activity is important because it helps identify weaknesses, such as unclear ideas or grammatical errors, and fosters collaboration between students. For example, a peer might suggest clarifying an ambiguous topic sentence or adding concrete examples to strengthen supporting sentences. To implement peer editing effectively, educators can

- 1) provide a checklist for evaluating content, organization, and grammar;
- 2) teach how to provide constructive feedback, such as “*This sentence could be stronger with a specific example*”; and
- 3) create an atmosphere of mutual respect. For example, in a peer editing session, a student might point out that a classmate’s paragraph lacks transitions and suggest the use of phrases such as “*in addition*” to increase coherence.

Types of Paragraphs

1. Descriptive Paragraph

A descriptive paragraph aims to describe an object, place, person, or situation in detail so that the reader can clearly visualize it. In English language learning, this paragraph helps students practice descriptive vocabulary, especially adjectives, and improve their ability to construct

vivid sentences. For example, describing "*a beautiful beach*" allows students to use adjectives such as "*sparkling*" or "*tranquil*" to show his imagination.

Descriptive paragraphs are organized with a topic sentence that introduces the subject, followed by supporting sentences that provide sensory details (sight, sound, etc.), and ends with a closing sentence that summarizes the impression. Adjectives such as "vibrant" or "serene" add richness to the description, while prepositions such as "beside" or "across" describe spatial relationships. Example,

The city park is a peaceful place to relax (Topic Sentence). Tall, lush trees line the pathways, providing shade under the scorching sun. Colorful flowers, such as red roses and yellow tulips, are neatly arranged beside the gushing fountain. The melodious chirping of birds echoes from the branches above (Supporting Sentences). With its serene atmosphere and stunning scenery, the park is a favorite spot for city dwellers (Concluding Sentence).

2. Process Paragraph

A process paragraph aims to explain the steps or sequence of a process clearly and systematically, such as how to make something or complete a task. In English language learning, this paragraph helps students understand the structure of procedural texts and practice using transition words to indicate sequence. For example, writing about "*how to create an effective presentation*" helps students practice using technical vocabulary and arranging sentence structure. A process paragraph is organized with a topic sentence that states the process, followed by supporting sentences that detail the steps using transition words such as "*first,*" "*next,*" "*then,*" And "*finally.*" Example,

Making a delicious cup of sweet tea requires a few simple steps (Topic Sentence). First, boil water until it reaches a rolling boil. Next, add one teaspoon of tea leaves to a cup. Then, pour the hot water into the cup and let it steep for three minutes. Finally, add one spoonful of sugar and stir until dissolved (Supporting Sentences). With these steps, a refreshing cup of sweet tea is ready to enjoy (Concluding Sentence).

3. Opinion Paragraph

Opinion paragraphs aim to convey the author's views or arguments on a topic. It is important to teach students to distinguish between facts and (verifiable information, e.g., "School starts at 7 a.m.") from opinion (subjective views, e.g., "Morning classes are more effective"). For example, in a paragraph about online learning, facts such as *"90% of schools used online platforms in 2020"* must be distinguished from opinions such as *"Online learning is less engaging."*

An opinion paragraph is organized with a topic sentence that states an opinion, followed by supporting sentences that provide reasons or evidence, and ending with a concluding sentence that confirms the opinion. Example, *"Online learning should be complemented with face-to-face activities for optimal results"* as a topic sentence, followed by reasons such as limited online social interaction.

Transition words such as *"because," "therefore,"* and *"as a result"* connecting opinions with arguments. For example, *"Online learning is less effective because direct interaction with teachers is limited."* Modal expressions such as *"should," "could,"* or *"must"* are used to give suggestions. Example, *"Schools should integrate group activities to boost student engagement."* Example paragraph:

Online learning should include interactive activities to enhance engagement (Topic Sentence). Students often feel isolated because they lack face-to-face interaction. Therefore, teachers could incorporate virtual group discussions to foster collaboration (Supporting Sentences). With interactive activities, online learning can become more effective and appealing (Concluding Sentence).

4. Comparison/Contrast Paragraph

A comparison/contrast paragraph aims to compare the similarities or differences between two subjects, helping students analyze topics critically and practicing comparative vocabulary. For example, *comparing online and face-to-face learning helps learners understand the strengths and weaknesses of each.*

This paragraph can be organized using the method point-by-point (comparing aspects one by one) or block method (describing one

subject fully, then the other). The example of point-by-point is like comparing accessibility, interaction, and effectiveness of online and face-to-face learning alternately.

Conjunctions such as “similarly,” “in contrast,” “whereas,” and “however” are used. For example, *“Online learning is flexible, whereas face-to-face learning offers direct interaction.”* Students can write about advantages (e.g., “Online learning allows studying at any time”) and deficiencies (e.g., “Lack of social interaction can reduce motivation”).

Paragraphs can identify problems, such as *“Lack of motivation in online learning,”* and offer solutions, such as *“Holding weekly interactive sessions.”* The first conditional conveys possibility, for example *“If teachers use interactive tools, students will be more engaged.”* A two-paragraph text can compare two subjects with a linking phrase. Example,

Online learning offers flexibility because students can study at their own pace. However, it often lacks social interaction, which can affect motivation. In contrast, face-to-face learning provides direct interaction, fostering collaboration. Nevertheless, it may be less accessible for students in remote areas. If schools combine both methods, they could maximize learning outcomes.

D. Essay Structure

An essay is a structured piece of writing that presents an argument or exploration of a particular topic in a coherent manner, usually reflecting the author’s point of view or analysis. In the context of teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL), essays are an important tool for learners to practice organizing ideas, using appropriate language, and developing critical thinking. The main characteristics of an essay in English include,

- (1) a clear focus on the main idea or argument,
- (2) a logical organization with an introduction, body, and conclusion,
- (3) coherence through effective transitions, and

(4) evidence-based support, such as facts or examples. For example, an essay on the theme “the benefits of learning English” will present arguments supported by reasons such as global communication and career opportunities.

Essay formatting ensures that the writing is easy to read and looks professional. Standard guidelines for writing essays in English include, 1-inch margins on all sides, double-spacing for clarity, use of an easy-to-read font such as Times New Roman or Arial size 12, centering the title at the top of the page, and indenting the first line of each paragraph by 0.5 inches. In addition, the essay should include a header with the author's name, date, and subject information, as well as page numbers if necessary. For example, a well-formatted essay might have a title like “The Importance of Writing Skills” with a header in the upper left corner, “John Doe, June 5, 2021, English 101.”

Parts of an Essay

1. Introductory Paragraph

The introductory paragraph aims to grab the reader's attention, provide background information, and convey the main argument or purpose of the essay. It sets the tone and prepares the reader for the discussion that follows.

Funnel introduction begins with a general statement and gradually narrows down to a specific topic, leading the reader logically towards the thesis. Example, “Communication is essential in today’s globalized world. Among various languages, English stands out as a universal tool for connection. Learning English enhances career opportunities and cultural understanding.” Attention-getting introduction Use engaging elements, such as questions, quotes, or anecdotes, to immediately hook the reader. Example, “Have you ever wondered how one language can open doors to countless opportunities? English does exactly that by connecting people worldwide.”

Thesis statement A thesis statement is a concise sentence that outlines the main argument or purpose of an essay, usually placed at the end of the introductory paragraph. A thesis statement should be

specific, debatable, and provide a roadmap for the essay. Example, “Learning English as a second language improves communication skills, boosts career prospects, and fosters cultural awareness.” Educators can guide students to create an effective thesis statement by ensuring that it answers the essay prompt directly, is clear and focused, and reflects the main points to be discussed.

2. Paragraph Work

Body paragraphsDevelop a thesis statement by presenting logically organized ideas, each focusing on one aspect of the argument. Each paragraph begins with a topic sentence, followed by supporting details such as examples, facts, or reasons. For example, in an essay about the benefits of learning English, one body paragraph might discuss communication skills, another about career opportunities, and a third about cultural understanding, ensuring a clear division of ideas.

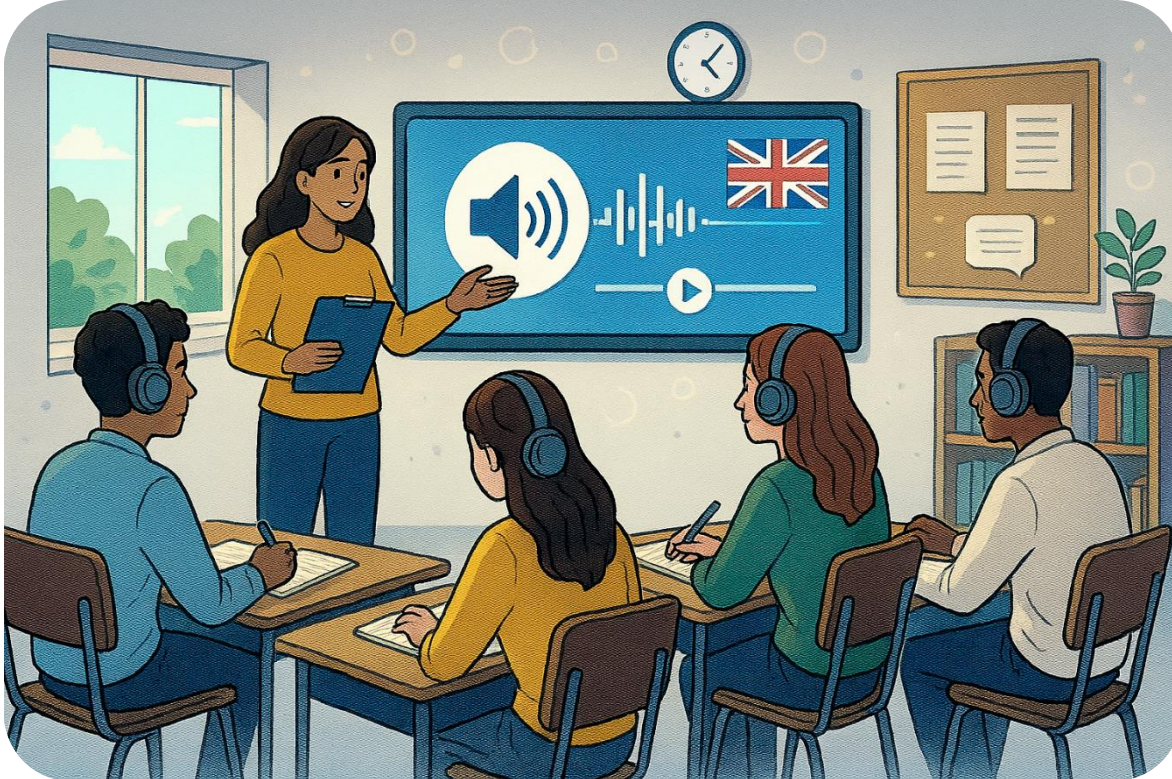
The thesis statement guides the logical division of ideas in body paragraphs. For example, the thesis “Learning English improves communication skills, boosts career prospects, and fosters cultural awareness” It naturally divides into three body paragraphs, each discussing a single benefit. This ensures the essay remains focused and each paragraph supports the overall argument.

Transition words and phrases, such as firstly, in addition, furthermore, or on the other hand, creating coherence between paragraphs. Example, “Firstly, learning English enhances communication skills by enabling clear expression in diverse settings. Furthermore, it opens up global career opportunities by meeting the demands of multinational companies.”

3. Closing Paragraph

The concluding paragraph aims to summarize the main points, reiterate the thesis, and leave a strong impression on the reader. It provides closure while emphasizing the importance of the essay's argument. An effective closing repeats in different words, summarizes the main points, and may include a call to action or broader implications. For example, in an essay about learning English, “In conclusion, mastering English enhances communication, expands career opportunities,

and deepens cultural understanding. By investing in English education, individuals can unlock a world of possibilities. "To write a strong conclusion, educators can teach students to avoid introducing new ideas, use phrases such as in conclusion or ultimately to signal closure, and connect the argument to a broader context, such as global communication. Example, "Ultimately, English proficiency not only empowers individuals but also bridges cultures in an interconnected world."



9

CHAPTER 9: TEACHING LISTENING TO ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

A. Introduction

Listening skills play a central role in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learning, yet they often receive less attention compared to productive skills like speaking and writing. In fact, listening is the first skill that humans develop during first language acquisition and serves as a critical foundation for understanding and responding to linguistic input. Brown (2001) asserts that listening is an active process that integrates perception, interpretation, and prediction in understanding spoken messages. This view is reinforced by Nation and Newton (2009), who state that listening forms the basis for the development of speaking, reading, and writing skills. In the context of second or foreign language learning, listening is not a passive activity that relies solely on the ability to hear; rather, it is a complex activity involving simultaneous mental processing. Vandergrift and Goh (2012) emphasize that listening requires coordination between bottom-up processes (processing sounds, words, and syntax) and top-down processes (activating background knowledge, predicting meaning, and making inferences). Unfortunately, in teaching practice, listening is often limited to answering multiple-choice questions after hearing an audio recording, without developing critical thinking strategies or deeper awareness of the listening process itself.

Another common issue is the low listening proficiency among EFL learners, often caused by the lack of authentic teaching materials, limited exposure to spoken language, and insufficient training in listening strategies. Goh (2000) highlights that many students fail to understand spoken texts because they do not know how to listen strategically. This is supported by findings from Ceylan (2025), who, through a meta-analysis of over 50 recent studies, found that listening instruction that does not include training in cognitive and metacognitive strategies tends to be less effective in enhancing listening comprehension.

Alongside technological advancements, the paradigm of listening instruction has also shifted. Research by Novianty et al. (2023) shows that using digital media such as podcasts can increase students' motivation and listening comprehension due to their flexible and authentic nature. Similarly, Al-Rashidy (2023) asserts that web-based listening

instruction provides access to varied language contexts and enriches learners' listening experiences. Hence, there is an urgent need to reconsider listening instruction approaches to align more closely with the needs and characteristics of today's learners.

Based on this background, this chapter aims to provide a comprehensive understanding of teaching listening in English, starting from the nature of listening, relevant language acquisition theories, effective teaching strategies, to actual challenges and solutions in the field. Referring to expert theories and recent research findings, this chapter is expected to offer a relevant scholarly contribution for teachers, researchers, and practitioners in English language education.

B. The Nature of Listening

Listening is a receptive skill that naturally develops before other skills in first language acquisition. In the context of foreign language learning, listening is not merely about hearing, it involves decoding sounds, recognizing words, and interpreting meaning within context. Richards and Schmidt (2010) explain that listening encompasses auditory perception and semantic understanding that occurs in real time, making it one of the most complex cognitive processes in language learning.

Theoretically, listening consists of two main processes: bottom-up and top-down. Bottom-up processing involves recognizing sound features, phonemes, and syntactic structures, while top-down processing relies on background knowledge, situational context, and predicting meaning based on prior experience (Field, 2008). The integration of these two processes allows for a more complete understanding of spoken messages. Vandergrift (2007) states that effective learners are those who can flexibly use both approaches depending on the listening context.

However, in practice, many EFL learners face significant barriers in listening. Ghoneim (2013) identified three main factors contributing to listening difficulties: varied accents, the fast pace of native speakers, and limited vocabulary. These factors support the view that listening is

a skill that must be taught explicitly and cannot be assumed to develop automatically over time. Moreover, many students are still unaware of the importance of listening strategies, such as inferring meaning from context or taking notes on main ideas.

Research by Al-Rashidy (2023) reinforces this argument by showing that students trained in strategy-based listening approaches exhibit more consistent improvements in comprehension than those who rely solely on natural ability. These findings suggest that listening must be treated as an active skill that involves systematic training, practice, and reflection—not just passive testing of hearing ability.

C. The Role of Listening in Language Acquisition

In language acquisition theory, listening holds a fundamental position as the primary source of linguistic input that enables learners to develop language competence. Krashen (1985), in his theory of Comprehensible Input, states that second language learners acquire language most effectively when they are exposed to input that is slightly above their current level ($i+1$) and is understandable through context or additional cues. Listening becomes the main means of receiving this input because most natural communication is spoken and not always accompanied by text or visual aids.

Rost (2002) strengthens this view by asserting that listening not only provides passive input but also helps learners form and test hypotheses about language structure and function. As students listen, they observe linguistic patterns, intonation, and discourse structures that they can later apply in speaking and writing. Therefore, listening acts as a bridge between receptive and productive language skills.

In modern language education, various studies support the essential role of listening in facilitating language acquisition. For example, Hsu (2024) found that EFL students who regularly engage in listening activities using authentic materials—such as interviews, podcasts, and news broadcasts, show significant improvement in vocabulary acquisition and reading skills. This indicates the presence of skill transfer from listening to other language domains, proving that listening does not

stand alone but is closely interconnected with other aspects of communicative competence.

Furthermore, listening also enhances learners' pragmatic competence—that is, the ability to understand implied meanings, social context, and politeness strategies in conversation. Vandergrift and Goh (2012) emphasize that through listening to authentic texts, students learn to detect language nuances such as humor, sarcasm, or cultural expressions, which are not always directly taught in textbooks. This makes listening a rich medium for developing intercultural competence.

In summary, listening is not merely a receptive skill—it is an interactive process that allows learners to absorb high-quality input, process it cognitively, and use it to reinforce their productive skills in English. This critical role demands that listening instruction no longer be treated as a supplementary activity, but as the core of an effective second language learning strategy.

D. Strategies and Approaches in Listening Instruction

Effective listening instruction cannot rely solely on passive material presentation. Modern approaches emphasize the importance of explicitly teaching listening strategies to equip students with the ability to actively and independently understand spoken input. Vandergrift and Goh (2012) classify listening strategies into three main categories: cognitive, metacognitive, and socio-affective. Cognitive strategies include activities such as guessing, making inferences, and note-taking; metacognitive strategies involve planning, monitoring, and evaluating the listening process; while socio-affective strategies involve collaboration and managing anxiety during listening.

One proven effective approach in listening instruction is Strategy-Based Instruction (SBI), which explicitly trains learners to choose and apply appropriate listening strategies based on goals and text types. Research by Yaseen & Alahmed (2023) shows that EFL learners in Saudi Arabia who underwent listening strategy training demonstrated significant improvement in comprehending spoken texts and overcoming

challenges such as speech rate and unfamiliar vocabulary. This supports the idea that strategies are not innate abilities but can be learned and enhanced through proper pedagogical intervention.

Additionally, modern listening pedagogy emphasizes the importance of staged instruction, consisting of *pre-listening*, *while-listening*, and *post-listening* phases. According to Wilson (2008), these stages allow teachers to prepare context and focus for learners before listening, support them while processing the input, and provide reflection and reinforcement afterward. Strategies such as prediction tasks, note-taking, and summarizing during these phases significantly enhance active processing of spoken material.

Recent research by Rahma & Anugerahwati (2023) also demonstrates that students trained in metacognitive strategies, such as planning listening goals, monitoring understanding during listening, and evaluating success afterward, perform better than those who receive no strategy training. These findings align with metacognitive awareness theory, which suggests that awareness of one's own thinking processes improves learning effectiveness (Flavell, 1979; in Goh, 2000).

Therefore, strategy-oriented and systematically structured listening instruction should become an essential part of the English language curriculum. Teachers should not only provide listening materials but also train students in how to listen strategically, so that listening skills develop in a conscious, focused, and sustained manner.

E. Media and Technology in Listening Instruction

The development of digital technology has revolutionized the way listening is taught in English language learning. Previously, listening materials were limited to cassette tapes or CDs in textbooks, but now there are various media options available such as podcasts, YouTube videos, films, mobile applications, and AI-based platforms that expose learners to authentic, varied, and contextual spoken input. McDonough, Shaw, & Masuhara (2013) argue that selecting media for

listening instruction should consider learning objectives, student proficiency levels, as well as the authenticity and relevance of materials to real-life situations.

One particularly effective form of media is the podcast. Novianty et al. (2023) found that using podcasts in listening classes not only improved students' comprehension of spoken texts but also boosted their motivation and engagement. The advantages of podcasts lie in their flexible accessibility, students can listen anytime and anywhere, and their variety, allowing learners to choose content based on personal interests. This aligns with the autonomous learning theory, which suggests that technology grants learners greater control over their own learning experience (Benson, 2011).

Besides podcasts, interactive videos have also gained popularity. Platforms such as TED-Ed, EnglishCentral, or interactive YouTube features allow students to enable subtitles, replay specific sections, and answer questions during or after viewing. According to Al-Rashidy (2023), the integration of web-based learning has had a positive impact on listening skills development, particularly because it provides access to authentic and diverse materials in various accents and speaking styles.

Artificial intelligence (AI) is also being used in listening training through chatbots, virtual assistants, and adaptive learning applications that tailor material and difficulty levels to users' performance. This supports the personalized learning approach, where the learning experience is customized to individual learner needs. Research by Sihite et al. (2024) suggests that integrating strategy-based technology can increase students' focus on listening objectives and accelerate the acquisition of receptive skills. Nevertheless, the use of technology does not automatically guarantee successful learning outcomes. Pedagogical guidance is needed in selecting and using media effectively. Goh & Vandergrift (2012) remind us that technology should be seen as a support tool, not a teacher substitute, and must be integrated with appropriate learning strategies to produce optimal results.

In conclusion, media and technology are not just supplementary tools in listening instruction; they are integral components that can enrich the learning process when used thoughtfully and purposefully. Teachers must possess adequate **digital literacy** to pedagogically integrate technology and ensure that its use supports the achievement of comprehensive listening learning goals.

F. Evaluation and Assessment in Listening

Assessing listening skills is a crucial aspect of language learning that often presents challenges in both design and implementation. Unlike speaking or writing, which can be directly observed, listening is an internal process involving fast and complex mental operations. Therefore, listening assessments must be designed with validity, reliability, and authenticity in mind to accurately reflect students' actual listening abilities.

Hughes (2003) distinguishes between two main types of listening assessment: those that measure global understanding and those that assess specific or selective comprehension. Global understanding tests evaluate how well students grasp the main ideas and communicative purpose of a text, while specific comprehension tests focus on details such as numbers, dates, or names mentioned in conversations or narratives. Both types are important and should be balanced in teaching practice, as they reflect different dimensions of listening.

Buck (2001) points out that in many cases, listening test items actually measure students' ability to read questions or guess answers, rather than their true listening competence. To address this, test design must consider language complexity, text length, accent, and audio clarity. While the use of authentic texts is encouraged, it must be accompanied by scaffolding and adequate instructions so that students are not overwhelmed.

In recent approaches, listening assessment is not only summative but also formative. Research by Hsu (2024) shows that integrating metacognitive reflection into listening assessment, such as through listening journals, think-aloud protocols, or self-assessment checklists, can

increase students' awareness of their own listening strategies. When learners reflect on their process and difficulties, they become better at identifying weaknesses and planning effective solutions. In this way, assessment becomes part of the learning process, not just a tool for measuring outcomes.

Furthermore, technology has also influenced how listening assessments are conducted. Digital applications and platforms now offer various forms of listening exercises and auto-graded quizzes that provide instant feedback. However, it is important to ensure that tech-based assessments remain aligned with pedagogical principles, and are not merely mechanical in nature. According to Anderson & Bachman (2009), effective listening assessment should evaluate both listening as comprehension and listening as acquisition, meaning that listening should be seen not just as understanding but also as a process of language learning.

In conclusion, good listening assessment requires more than simply giving multiple-choice or fill-in-the-blank tests. A holistic approach is needed, one that includes reflective strategies, authentic materials, integration of technology, and meaningful feedback. Teachers must ensure that listening assessments truly measure students' abilities and support their ongoing development.

G. Challenges and Solutions in Listening Instruction

Listening instruction is often perceived as a passive component of language learning, when in fact this skill carries its own complexity. In practice, both teachers and students face various challenges that hinder the effectiveness of listening instruction, ranging from a lack of authentic materials, gaps in students' learning strategies, to linguistic and affective barriers. One major challenge is the limited availability of authentic and contextually appropriate listening materials. Many teachers still rely on rigid recordings from textbooks that fail to reflect the reality of everyday communication. According to Anderson and Lynch (1988), listening skills only develop when learners are exposed to a variety of

spoken texts with different accents, speech rates, and unscripted language structures. Without exposure to such input, students will struggle to apply their listening skills in real-world situations.

Another challenge is students' low awareness of effective learning strategies. Goh (2000) reveals that many students do not know how to listen actively and strategically, which makes them prone to losing focus and feeling frustrated when they don't understand spoken texts. This problem is often worsened by their tendency to rely on direct translation or random guessing, instead of applying strategies such as prediction, inference, or comprehension monitoring.

Linguistic difficulties also pose significant obstacles, especially at the beginner levels. Ghoneim (2013) notes that accent variation, rapid speech by native speakers, and unfamiliar vocabulary often cause students to miss important information in spoken texts. This highlights the need for intensive training to gradually build students' vocabulary and sound recognition skills. Solutions to these challenges require a comprehensive approach. Rahma & Anugerahwati (2023) demonstrate that explicit and sustained training in metacognitive strategies helps students become more aware and intentional in their listening. Through such training, students learn to plan, monitor, and evaluate their listening processes independently.

Furthermore, the strategy awareness approach is increasingly important. Sihite et al. (2024) emphasize that listening strategies should be taught from the beginning, and integrated into listening activities in explicit and contextual ways. For example, before listening to a text, students can be encouraged to make predictions, and afterward, they can discuss the difficult parts and the strategies they used. It is also crucial to adopt learning models that allow space for reflection and adjustment. Vandergrift and Goh (2012) propose a metacognitive cycle that includes planning, execution, evaluation, and reflection. This model has proven effective in equipping students with a thorough understanding of how they learn to listen.

In summary, although teaching listening presents a number of challenges, strategy-based, technology-enhanced, and reflective approaches can address many of these barriers. The key to success lies in

teachers' awareness to design adaptive, explicit, and process-oriented instruction—not merely focusing on outcomes.

H. Best Practices in Listening Instruction

Best practices in listening instruction reflect strategies and approaches that have been proven effective through both research and classroom experience. The main goal is to create learning that is authentic, meaningful, and empowers students to become active and strategic listeners. Effective listening instruction is not solely dependent on materials or tools, but also on how the teacher builds strategy awareness, provides appropriate support, and creates a learning environment that encourages exploration and reflection.

One key best practice is the use of authentic materials, such as radio broadcasts, podcasts, short films, or real-life interviews that reflect natural spoken language in context. Anderson and Lynch (1988) argue that exposure to authentic content helps students understand the diversity of speaking styles, discourse structures, and informal language use, features that are not always found in textbook texts. Authentic materials also tend to be more emotionally engaging and personally relevant, thereby increasing learners' motivation to listen more attentively.

Another highly recommended strategy is task-based listening instruction, which emphasizes meaningful activities that simulate real-world tasks, such as taking notes from a voicemail, following directions, or summarizing a news report. Wilson (2008) explains that guided listening tasks designed with clear goals and instructions help students focus on key information and apply listening strategies gradually.

The explicit integration of strategies into the learning process is also a very effective practice. Vandergrift and Goh (2012) suggest that teachers train students explicitly in strategies such as predicting, clarifying, and evaluating listening outcomes. With consistent practice, students become more aware and confident in listening to various types of

texts. A study by Yaseen & Alahmed (2023) confirms that explicit strategy training significantly improves EFL students' listening comprehension.

Technology plays a crucial role in implementing best practices. Digital platforms like educational podcasts, interactive videos, and AI-based apps such as Speechling or ELSA Speak allow students to practice listening flexibly and independently. Novianty et al. (2023) found that using podcasts in EFL classes enhances students' understanding and engagement because of their authenticity and accessibility. Teachers can also take advantage of features like replay, variable playback speed, and subtitles as scaffolding tools to help students master spoken texts progressively.

Moreover, reflection and self-evaluation are essential elements of best practice in listening instruction. For example, tools like listening diaries or self-assessment checklists encourage students to reflect on the strategies they used, identify difficult sections, and evaluate how they managed them. Rahma & Anugerahwati (2023) show that such reflective practices improve learners' metacognitive awareness and lead to long-term improvements in their listening performance.

Finally, collaborative listening activities, such as group discussions or jigsaw listening, have also been shown to increase comprehension and motivation. Through peer interaction, students can complement each other's understanding and learn new strategies in a supportive, non-threatening environment. By applying these best practices, listening instruction can move beyond simply playing audio in class to become an interactive, reflective, and learner-centered experience. The teacher, as a facilitator, plays a key role in designing listening activities that are meaningful and aimed at developing real communicative competence.

I. Conclusion and Recommendations

Listening is not a passive skill but an active, complex, and strategic process that plays a fundamental role in language acquisition and development. Theories such as Krashen's Input Hypothesis (1985) and

the concept of comprehensible input highlight listening as the primary pathway through which language is naturally acquired. This is supported by Nation and Newton (2009), who assert that listening forms the foundation for speaking, reading, and writing skills. Empirical findings show that the effectiveness of listening instruction is strongly influenced by various factors, including the type of materials used, learning strategies applied, the integration of technology, and the nature of the assessments employed. Recent studies, such as those by Ceylan (2025), Yaseen & Alahmed (2023), and Rahma & Anugerahwati (2023), emphasize the importance of metacognitive strategy training, the use of authentic media, and reflective approaches in enhancing EFL learners' listening comprehension.

However, challenges remain. The limited availability of authentic listening resources, lack of strategy awareness among students, and linguistic or affective barriers continue to hinder progress. Therefore, solutions cannot be partial or instant, they require systemic, sustained, and learner-centered approaches.

Based on the discussions and findings presented, the following recommendations are proposed to improve the quality of listening instruction in EFL contexts:

1. Explicit Listening Strategy Training

Teachers should design instruction that not only provides spoken input but also explicitly trains students to use strategies such as prediction, monitoring, and evaluation in a focused and intentional way.

2. Use of Authentic Media and Technology

Listening materials drawn from real life such as podcasts, educational YouTube videos, and AI-based learning apps should be integrated into instruction to provide relevant and contextual listening experiences.

3. Reflective and Metacognitive Approaches

Students should be guided to reflect on their listening experiences through journals, discussions, or self-assessments to enhance their awareness of cognitive processes and strategy use.

4. Authentic and Formative Assessment Design

Listening assessments should go beyond measuring final outcomes and include formative assessment practices that encourage feedback and continuous improvement.

5. Ongoing Professional Development for Teachers

English teachers should receive continuous training in strategy-based and technology-integrated listening instruction to enable them to design adaptive and up-to-date learning experiences.

By adopting an integrative and sustained approach, listening instruction will not only help students comprehend spoken English but also shape them into critical, independent, and communicative language users. Well-developed listening skills will serve as a solid foundation for learners' success in both communication and cross-skill language learning.



10

CHAPTER 10: TEACHING SPEAKING SKILLS IN ENGLISH

A. Introduction

English speaking skills are a crucial component of second language learning and often pose a challenge for learners. The ability to communicate orally is not only an indicator of effective language proficiency but also an essential skill in the era of globalization (Brown & Lee, 2015). In the context of language learning, speaking skills play a central role as a means of expressing thoughts and ideas directly to the other person.

Teaching speaking skills requires a comprehensive and systematic approach to ensure learners can develop optimal oral communication skills. Various studies have shown that mastery of speaking skills depends not only on linguistic knowledge but is also influenced by the learning environment, motivation, teaching strategies, and appropriate technological support (Harmer, 2015; Richards & Rodgers, 2014).

Speaking skills play a crucial role in English language learning for several fundamental reasons. First, speaking is the most direct form of communication in everyday interactions. The ability to express thoughts verbally and clearly is key to success in various communication contexts (Thornbury, 2017). Second, speaking skills serve as a tangible indicator of overall language proficiency. When learners are able to speak fluently and accurately, this demonstrates that they have integrated various aspects of language, such as vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation, into a unified whole (Nunan, 2018).

The goals of teaching speaking skills include developing effective communication skills in various contexts, improving accuracy and fluency, developing self-confidence, and preparing learners to use English in real-life situations (Hedge, 2014). Despite its important role, teaching speaking skills often faces challenges such as language anxiety, limited practice opportunities, heterogeneity of student abilities, and time constraints in formal learning (Masyi'ah, 2023; Ur, 2016).

B. Supportive Learning Environment

The learning environment plays a crucial role in developing English speaking skills. A supportive environment can significantly improve students' motivation, confidence, and performance in speaking activities (Kana & Hashim, 2023). Research shows that a positive and supportive classroom atmosphere can reduce language anxiety and encourage students' active participation in speaking activities.

1. Project Based Learning

Project-based learning (PBL) has proven to be an effective approach in developing students' speaking skills. Cahyana et al. (2022) found in their research at Abulyatama University that using project-based learning methods can significantly improve students' speaking skills. This approach provides meaningful contexts for students to use English in situations that resemble real life.

In project-based learning, students work on complex tasks that require planning, research, problem-solving, and presentation of results. Throughout the project process, students engage in various speaking activities such as group discussions, interviews, negotiations, and formal presentations (Stoller, 2016). The advantages of project-based learning lie in providing clear and authentic communication objectives, its interdisciplinary nature, and its encouragement of student autonomy and student-centered learning.

2. Cooperative Learning and Role Play

Cooperative learning is a highly effective approach to developing students' speaking skills. In cooperative learning, students work in small groups to achieve a common goal, creating numerous opportunities for verbal interaction and negotiation of meaning. Ikhsan and Akhsan (2022) demonstrated that role-playing, as a form of cooperative learning, can effectively improve junior high school students' speaking skills.

Role-playing allows students to practice language in a simulated yet meaningful context. Students can take on the roles of characters in various situations, such as job interviews, restaurant transactions, or

business negotiations (Dornyei & Murphey, 2019). Through role-playing, students not only practice language structures and vocabulary but also learn about pragmatic aspects of communication such as politeness, turn-taking, and adjusting language register to suit the context.

3. Creating a Supportive Classroom Atmosphere

The classroom atmosphere significantly influences students' willingness to participate in speaking activities. A supportive classroom environment is characterized by mutual respect, tolerance for mistakes, and a focus on communication rather than linguistic perfection (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021). In such an environment, students feel safe to take risks and experiment with language without fear of embarrassment.

To create a supportive classroom atmosphere, educators can establish classroom norms that emphasize respect and mutual support, model a positive attitude toward mistakes, create "safe zones" for small-group speaking practice, integrate icebreaker activities, and provide balanced feedback (Hapon, 2023). Creating a supportive learning environment is a long-term investment that will yield significant results in developing students' speaking skills.

C. Student Motivation and Effective Learning Strategies

Motivation is a key factor influencing students' success in developing English speaking skills. Burhanuddin et al. (2023) revealed that intrinsic motivation can substantially improve students' speaking performance. Motivated students tend to participate more actively in speaking activities, be more persistent in facing challenges, and be more open to feedback for improvement.

1. Intrinsic vs Extrinsic Motivation

In the context of language learning, motivation can be divided into intrinsic and extrinsic. Intrinsic motivation comes from within the student, such as a personal interest in the language and culture or enjoyment of the learning process itself. Meanwhile, extrinsic motivation

comes from external factors such as grades, awards, or academic demands (Deci & Ryan, 2015).

Research shows that intrinsic motivation tends to be more sustainable and has a more positive impact on long-term language learning. Students with strong intrinsic motivation will continue to strive to develop their speaking skills even without external pressure, enjoy the learning process more, and experience lower levels of anxiety (Gardner & Lambert, 2016).

2. Building a Positive Attitude and Self-Confidence

Students' attitudes toward English significantly influence their motivation and performance in speaking activities. Kana and Hashim (2023) found that by developing a positive attitude toward English learning, students felt more confident in participating in speaking activities. To build a positive attitude, educators can connect learning to students' interests, create positive learning experiences, integrate cultural aspects, and address misconceptions about language learning.

Self-confidence is a crucial component in developing speaking skills. To increase student confidence, educators can implement a step-by-step approach to speaking activities, provide constructive feedback, create opportunities to celebrate success, teach strategies for coping with anxiety, and normalize mistakes as part of the learning process (Badian, 2023; Hasibuan et al., 2023).

4. Effective Language Learning Strategies

Appropriate language learning strategies play a crucial role in developing students' speaking skills. Nosheeen et al. (2020) found that strategies such as group discussions can significantly improve students' speaking skills. Group discussions provide opportunities for students to express ideas, negotiate meaning, and engage in meaningful communication with peers in a less intimidating environment.

Feedback and peer assessment are also effective strategies for developing speaking skills. Sulhah and Oktaviana (2024) found that peer assessment can have a positive impact on improving EFL students' speaking performance. Feedback, both from educators and peers, helps

students identify strengths and areas for improvement in their speaking skills.

Game-based activities create a fun and less intimidating context for speaking practice, thereby reducing anxiety and increasing student motivation. Various types of games, such as role-playing, charades, or debates, can be integrated into speaking skills instruction (Ooi et al., 2021). To maximize effectiveness, games should have clear learning objectives and be tailored to the students' ability levels.

D. Utilization of Technology in Teaching Speaking

Technological advancements have opened up new opportunities for teaching English speaking skills. Research shows that technologies such as mobile applications and digital platforms have proven effective in developing students' speaking skills, with results showing significant improvements in conversational mastery (Elsani et al., 2023; Athoillah, 2022).

1. Mobile-Based Applications (Mobile Assisted Language Learning)

Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL) has become an increasingly popular trend in teaching speaking skills. Athoillah (2022) demonstrated that the use of MALL is effective in teaching students' listening and speaking skills. Mobile-based applications offer flexibility and accessibility, allowing students to practice speaking anytime and anywhere.

Speech recognition apps like ELSA Speak, studied by Elsani et al. (2023), allow students to practice pronunciation and receive instant feedback. Conversational apps with AI or chatbots also offer opportunities for interactive speaking practice, while language tandem apps facilitate connections between language learners and native speakers from around the world (Kukulska-Hulme & Lee, 2020).

2. Digital Platforms and Social Media

Digital platforms and social media offer a variety of opportunities for developing English speaking skills. Manogaran and Sulaiman (2022)

found that social media is effective in improving ESL learners' speaking skills. Platforms such as YouTube, Zoom, Microsoft Teams, and various social media platforms can be utilized to create interactive and collaborative learning environments.

YouTube, as Badian (2023) has studied, can be a rich source of authentic language input and models of language use. Students can watch videos from a variety of genres to be exposed to different accents, dialects, and contexts of language use. Videoconferencing platforms enable synchronous interactions between students and educators, as well as between students and each other (Chapelle & Sauro, 2017).

3. Video, Multimedia, and Interactive Technologies

Video and multimedia are highly effective tools in teaching English speaking skills. Videos provide rich, contextual language input, combine verbal and non-verbal elements of communication, and expose students to a variety of accents, dialects, and communication situations (Motteram, 2018).

Songs are also an effective tool for improving students' motivation and speaking skills. Hasibuan et al. (2023) emphasized that the use of English songs not only improves students' linguistic skills but also creates a more relaxed and enjoyable learning atmosphere.

Interactive technologies such as virtual reality (VR), augmented reality (AR), and computer simulations offer exciting opportunities for developing speaking skills. These technologies can create immersive environments that simulate real-life communication situations, allowing students to practice speaking skills in authentic yet controlled contexts (Reinders & Stockwell, 2019).

E. Overcoming Challenges and Assessing Speaking Skills

Developing English speaking skills often faces various challenges that can hinder students' progress. Understanding these challenges and developing strategies to overcome them is a crucial aspect of effective speaking instruction.

1. Speaking Anxiety and Lack of Practice

Speaking anxiety is one of the main psychological barriers faced by many English language learners. Masyi'ah (2023) found that many students feel anxious and lack confidence when speaking in English. This anxiety can be caused by a fear of making mistakes, a lack of confidence in their linguistic abilities, or previous negative experiences.

The lack of opportunities to practice speaking in authentic contexts is also a significant challenge. In many non-English-speaking countries, opportunities to use English outside of the classroom are very limited. This results in students lacking exposure to real-life communication situations that can strengthen their speaking skills (Lightbown & Spada, 2021).

2. Opportunities to Speak Outside the Classroom

Providing opportunities for speaking practice outside of class is an important strategy for addressing challenges in developing speaking skills. Hapon (2023) emphasized that providing more opportunities for speaking practice outside of class can help overcome speaking anxiety and encourage students to practice more.

Speaking clubs provide a safe and supportive environment where students can practice their speaking skills without the pressure of formal evaluation. Additionally, language exchange programs, internships with international organizations, participation in English-speaking competitions, and the use of social media can also create opportunities for speaking practice outside of the classroom (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2016).

3. Formative and Summative Assessment Methods

Assessing speaking skills is a crucial component of effective English language teaching. Formative assessments are conducted throughout the learning process and aim to provide feedback that can be used to improve learning. Examples of formative assessments include classroom observations, group discussions, informal presentations, and self-reflection (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2018).

Summative assessments are conducted at the end of a learning unit or specific period and aim to measure student achievement of established learning objectives. Examples of summative assessments include oral exams, formal presentations, interviews, or graded role-plays. The ideal approach is to integrate both types of assessment into a speaking skills teaching program (Fulcher, 2015).

4. Assessment Rubric and Constructive Feedback

Assessment rubrics are a very useful tool for assessing speaking skills because they provide clear and consistent criteria. A good rubric identifies the specific components of speaking skills to be assessed and describes the level of performance for each component. Commonly assessed components include fluency, accuracy, vocabulary, pronunciation, intonation, and overall communicative ability (Luoma, 2014).

Constructive feedback is a crucial component in assessing speaking skills. Effective feedback not only identifies areas for improvement but also provides concrete guidance on how to make those improvements. Feedback should be specific, balanced, timely, actionable, and delivered in a sensitive and supportive manner (Hattie & Timperley, 2017).

F. Case Study and Conclusion

The implementation of speaking skills teaching strategies in various educational contexts has yielded numerous case studies that can serve as valuable references for educators. Through analysis of these implementations, we can identify effective approaches and factors that contribute to the successful development of students' English speaking skills.

1. Implementation of Strategies in Various Educational Contexts

At the elementary school level, approaches that emphasize game-based learning and fun activities have proven effective. At the secondary school level, more structured yet interactive approaches can be implemented, such as the role-playing method studied by Ikhsan and Akhsan (2022). At the higher education level, approaches that are more

professionally and academically oriented can be implemented, such as project-based learning studied by Cahyana et al. (2022).

In non-formal educational contexts such as language courses or training programs, a more flexible approach tailored to the specific needs of participants can be implemented, such as the speaking club studied by Hapon (2023). In distance learning or online learning contexts, strategies that utilize digital technology can be implemented, such as the use of the ELSA Speak application studied by Elsani et al. (2023).

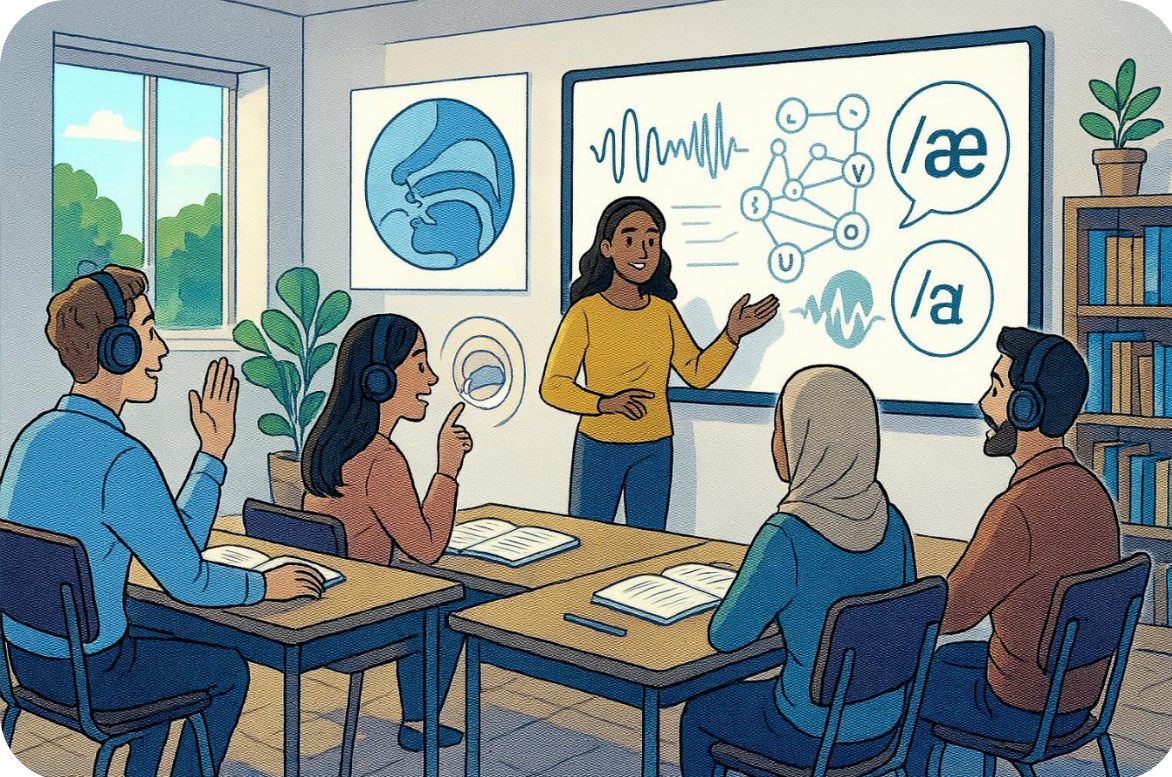
2. Synthesis of Effective Approaches and Recommendations

A synthesis of the various approaches discussed suggests that effective teaching of speaking skills requires a balance between several key elements: a balance between a focus on accuracy and fluency, between explicit and implicit learning, between teacher-centered and student-centered activities, between traditional and innovative approaches, and between a focus on speaking skills themselves and their integration with other language skills.

Based on the findings and discussions in this chapter, some recommendations for English language educators include: creating a supportive learning environment, developing students' intrinsic motivation, implementing various learning strategies, integrating technology effectively, addressing challenges proactively, implementing a comprehensive assessment system, and adapting approaches to the context.

Although there has been much progress in our understanding of teaching English speaking skills, there are still several areas that require further research, such as the long-term impact of different approaches, the role of new technologies, teaching speaking skills in multilingual contexts, authentic assessment of speaking skills, and affective and identity factors in speaking skills development.

Overall, teaching English speaking skills is a dynamic and evolving field. By adopting a comprehensive and responsive approach to student needs, utilizing a variety of strategies and technologies, and continually reflecting on and refining their practice, educators can help students develop speaking skills that will enable them to communicate effectively in a variety of academic, professional, and social contexts.



11

CHAPTER 11: TEACHING ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION AND PHONOLOGY IN THE CONTEXT OF FOREIGN LAN- GUAGE LEARNING

Pronunciation refers to the way in which a word or a language is spoken. In the context of language learning, it encompasses both the production and perception of sounds. According to Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin (2010), pronunciation involves the ability to produce and perceive the significant sounds of a language to communicate meaning effectively.

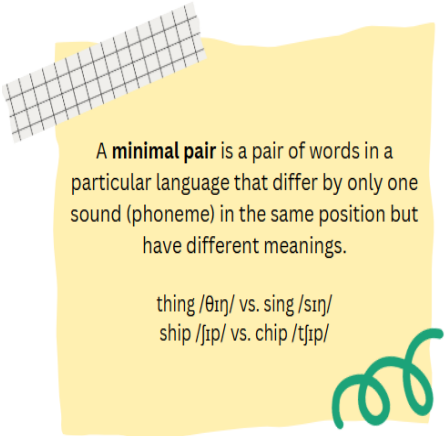
Importance of Pronunciation in Language Learning

Pronunciation is a crucial aspect of language competence, influencing both intelligibility and comprehensibility in communication. Accurate pronunciation ensures that learners can be understood by native and non-native speakers alike. Poor pronunciation can lead to misunderstandings, miscommunication, and reduced confidence in speaking. Effective pronunciation instruction enhances listening comprehension, fosters better speaking habits, and ultimately contributes to the overall fluency of learners.

For example, the distinction between minimal pairs such as “ship” and “sheep” or “bat” and “pat” is essential for conveying meaning clearly in English. If learners mispronounce these words, it can cause confusion in communication.

In addition, teaching pronunciation has implications beyond individual speech production. It encourages learners to become more attentive listeners, improves their awareness of prosodic features of speech, and helps in developing their own spoken fluency.

This, in turn, contributes to overall communicative competence, one of the ultimate goals in language learning. Building on this goal, it is essential to explore the common pronunciation challenges that English as a foreign language (EFL) learners often face.



A **minimal pair** is a pair of words in a particular language that differ by only one sound (phoneme) in the same position but have different meanings.

thing /θɪŋ/ vs. sing /sɪŋ/
ship /ʃɪp/ vs. chip /tʃɪp/

Common Issues Faced by EFL Learners

Learners of English as a foreign language often encounter challenges in mastering pronunciation due to differences between their first language (L1) and English. These challenges include:

- Difficulty in producing sounds that do not exist in the learners' native language (e.g., /θ/, /ð/, /æ/).

English sounds like /θ/ (as in *think*) and /ð/ (as in *this*) do not exist in Indonesian. Indonesian learners often substitute these with /t/ and /d/ respectively. The English vowel /æ/ (as in *cat*) is also absent in Indonesian, where the closest vowel is usually /a/, leading to mispronunciations.

- Influence of L1 phonological rules leading to fossilized pronunciation errors.

Indonesian phonotactics usually avoid consonant clusters at the beginning of words, so learners often insert a vowel sound to break up clusters.

Street → pronounced as *se-treet* or *su-treet*

Another example is the final consonants in Indonesian tend to be unreleased or devoiced, so learners may drop or weaken consonants in English words.

Good → pronounced as *gut* with a soft final consonant

- Problems with suprasegmental features such as stress, rhythm, and intonation.

English stress patterns often differ from Indonesian, which has relatively even stress. This can lead to misplaced stress in English words, affecting intelligibility.

Record (noun: RE-cord) pronounced as *re-CORD* (verb stress)

- Limited exposure to authentic English speech and insufficient feedback in classroom settings.

Indonesian vowels are generally pure and pronounced clearly, unlike English diphthongs, which can confuse English speakers learning

Indonesian. For example, English diphthong in *say* /seɪ/ is a pure vowel /e/ in Indonesian *sayur* (vegetable). Moreover, in many language classrooms, learners receive limited corrective feedback on their pronunciation errors. This lack of timely and specific feedback can hinder their ability to notice and correct mistakes, leading to fossilized errors that become difficult to overcome. Without proper guidance, learners may not develop accurate self-monitoring skills or awareness of subtle sound differences. Additionally, large class sizes and teachers' limited time can restrict opportunities for individualized pronunciation practice and feedback, further impacting learners' progress.

Other common challenges include negative transfer, where learners apply sound patterns from their native language to English, and psychological barriers such as the fear of making mistakes. Overcoming these obstacles requires both teacher support and learner persistence. Effectively addressing these challenges calls for a solid understanding of phonology, which plays a vital role in guiding pronunciation instruction.

Role of Phonology in Language Teaching

Phonology, a branch of linguistics, examines the systems and patterns of sounds in a language, focusing on how these sounds function to convey meaning in communication. It explores how sounds operate within specific linguistic systems and the rules that govern their organization and use. By understanding phonological principles, language teachers can more effectively identify learners' pronunciation difficulties and provide systematic, targeted practice to address them. Integrating phonological awareness into classroom instruction enables students to recognize, monitor, and correct their pronunciation with greater accuracy.

Moreover, phonological knowledge allows teachers to compare learners' native sound systems with that of the target language, such as English. Through contrastive analysis, instructors can pinpoint specific areas of difficulty and develop more informed instructional strategies.

This approach is particularly valuable for identifying common pronunciation challenges faced by learners of English as a Foreign Language (EFL).

As an international language, English has a phonological system that differs significantly from that of Indonesian. One of the key components of mastering English is the ability to pronounce words and sentences accurately. Pronunciation not only influences spoken fluency but also affects the clarity and comprehensibility of oral communication. Many Indonesian learners struggle with pronunciation due to phonological differences between the two languages, often leading to misunderstandings in conversation (Gilakjani, 2012). Therefore, pronunciation instruction should be considered a vital part of the English language learning curriculum. Phonology-based instruction offers a structured framework that helps both teachers and students understand and apply the English sound system in practical and meaningful ways.

Celce-Murcia, Brinton, and Goodwin (2010) define pronunciation as “the production and perception of the significant sounds of a particular language in order to achieve meaning in contexts of language use.” In essence, pronunciation involves the accurate articulation and interpretation of meaningful sounds within communicative contexts. Yates (2002) further explains that pronunciation includes both segmental features (individual sounds) and suprasegmental features (such as stress, rhythm, and intonation). Therefore, pronunciation encompasses not only isolated phonemes but also broader prosodic elements that shape speech patterns and contribute to overall intelligibility.

From these definitions, it can be concluded that effective pronunciation involves mastering both segmental and suprasegmental features. Developing accuracy in these areas is essential for ensuring that spoken communication is clear and meaningful for both native and non-native speakers. To support effective pronunciation teaching and learning, it is important to explore the key components of English phonology that contribute to clear and intelligible speech.

Components of English Phonology

In the process of learning English as a foreign language, understanding phonology is a crucial step in mastering speaking and listening skills effectively. Phonology not only covers the individual sounds in a language but also how these sounds function within a broader system to convey meaning. Unlike Indonesian, English has a more complex sound system and broader pronunciation variations, in both segmental and suprasegmental aspects.

To fully understand the phonological system of English, it is important to break it down into two main components: the segmental component, which consists of vowels and consonants, and the suprasegmental component, which includes stress, intonation, and rhythm. These two components complement each other and significantly contribute to fluent spoken communication in English. By recognizing and mastering each component, English learners can improve their speaking and listening comprehension while minimizing pronunciation errors that often result from the influence of their native language.

A. Segmental Components

Segmental components in phonology consist of the individual sounds—vowels and consonants—that form the foundation of spoken language. Within the segmental category, vowels are a critical element and are further divided into monophthongs and diphthongs, which represent two distinct types of vowel phonemes in English.

Monophthongs are segmental vowel sounds characterized by a single, steady articulatory position, producing a pure vowel sound throughout their duration (e.g., /i:/ in *sheep*). These vowels serve as core segmental units that combine with consonants to form syllables and words. Diphthongs, in contrast, are also individual vowel phonemes; however, they feature a smooth transition from one vowel sound to another within a single syllable (e.g., /aɪ/ as in *time*). Although diphthongs consist of two vowel qualities, they function as a single segmental unit within English phonology.

Having established the importance of segmental components in speech, it is essential to examine the two main types of vowel phonemes—monophthongs and diphthongs—which play a critical role in

English pronunciation and intelligibility. Understanding and mastering these vowel sounds enable learners to produce clearer speech and distinguish between words more effectively, thus enhancing overall communication. To delve deeper, it is important to explore the nature of vowels as fundamental phonemes in English, focusing specifically on the two primary categories: monophthongs and diphthongs.

1. Vowel Phonemes

Vowels are sounds in speech that are made without notable blockage or restriction in the vocal tract, permitting the air to pass through smoothly. They function as the core of syllables and are categorized according to tongue height, tongue placement, and the shape or rounding of the lips. In American English, vowels are commonly divided into two types: monophthongs and diphthongs (Celce-Murcia et al., 2010). English has more vowel sounds than Indonesian. There are short vowels, long vowels, and diphthongs (a combination of two vowels in one syllable).

a. Monophthongs (Pure Vowels)

Monophthongs, also known as pure vowels, are vowel sounds that maintain a single, unchanging sound quality throughout their duration. Unlike diphthongs, which involve a glide from one vowel sound to another, monophthongs are produced with a steady tongue and lip position (Ladefoged & Johnson, 2015). In English, monophthongs form the foundation of the vowel system and are essential for distinguishing word meanings. For example, the difference between /ɪ/ in *bit* and /i:/ in *beat* can change the meaning of a word entirely. Mastery of monophthongs is therefore crucial for achieving accurate pronunciation and intelligible speech (Roach, 2009).

Table 11. 1 Classification of English Monophthongs (Pure Vowels)

IPA	Example Word	Description
/i:/	<i>fleece</i>	close front unrounded
/ɪ/	<i>kit</i>	near-close near-front unrounded
/e/	<i>dress</i>	close-mid front unrounded

/æ/	<i>trap</i>	near-open front unrounded
/ʌ/	<i>strut</i>	open-mid back unrounded
/ɑ:/	<i>palm</i>	open back unrounded
/ɒ/	<i>lot</i> (BrE)	open back rounded
/ɔ:/	<i>thought</i>	open-mid back rounded
/ʊ/	<i>foot</i>	near-close near-back rounded
/u:/	<i>goose</i>	close back rounded
/ɜ:/	<i>nurse</i>	mid-central, rhotic/non-rhotic
/ə/	<i>about</i>	schwa, mid-central, unstressed

b. Diphthongs (Gliding Vowels)

Diphthongs are vowel combinations within a single syllable where the tongue moves during articulation. In essence, they are intricate vowel sounds that start with one vowel quality and smoothly transition to another within a single syllable. In American English, common diphthongs include /aɪ/ as in *time*, and /oʊ/ as in *go*. Though they involve two articulatory positions, diphthongs function as a single vowel phoneme (Roach, 2009).

Table 11. 2 Classification of English Diphthongs (Gliding Vowels)

IPA	Example Word	Description
/eɪ/	<i>face</i>	as in <i>say</i>
/aɪ/	<i>price</i>	as in <i>high</i>
/ɔɪ/	<i>choice</i>	as in <i>boy</i>
/aʊ/	<i>mouth</i>	as in <i>now</i>
/əʊ/	<i>goat</i> (BrE)	as in <i>go</i>
/ɪə/	<i>near</i>	centering diphthong
/eə/	<i>square</i>	centering diphthong

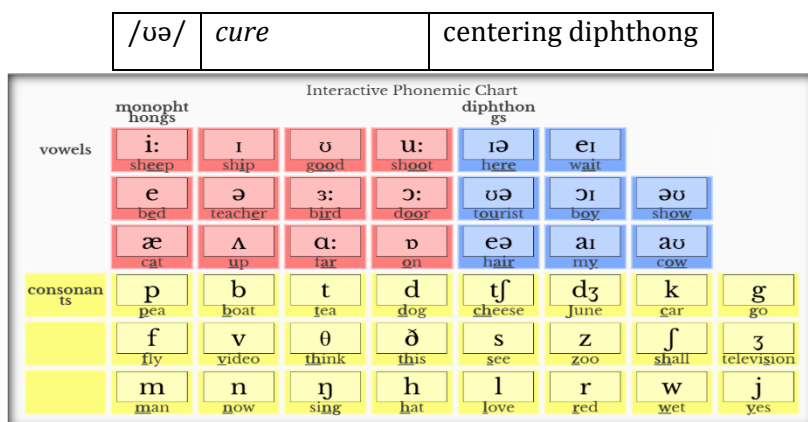


Figure 11. 1 English Phonemic Chart Showing Monophthongs, Diphthongs, and Consonants

Source: FoL English (2024)

2. Consonant Phonemes

Consonant phonemes are sounds in speech that are created when the airflow is either partially or fully blocked at specific locations within the vocal tract. This obstruction creates a wide variety of sound types, depending on how and where the constriction occurs. In contrast to vowel sounds, which are produced with a relatively open vocal tract and uninterrupted airflow, consonants involve varying degrees of constriction, ranging from slight narrowing to complete closure. Consonant phonemes play a crucial role in distinguishing meaning between words in English and many other languages. For example, the words *bat* and *pat* differ only in their initial consonant sounds: /b/ is a voiced bilabial plosive, while /p/ is its voiceless counterpart. This single phonemic distinction results in two entirely different lexical items.

According to Roach (2009), consonant phonemes can be systematically analyzed and classified based on three key articulatory features, which help linguists and language learners describe and categorize them accurately:

- a. Place of articulation – This refers to the specific location in the mouth or vocal tract where the airflow is obstructed. Common

places of articulation in English include the lips (bilabial), the alveolar ridge (alveolar), and the back of the tongue against the soft palate (velar).

- b. **Manner of articulation** – This describes the nature of the obstruction and how the airstream is manipulated. For instance, sounds may be produced by stopping the airflow completely (plosives), forcing it through a narrow passage (fricatives), or allowing it to pass through the nose (nasals).
- c. **Voicing** – This feature indicates whether the vocal cords vibrate during the production of a sound. Consonants such as /b/, /d/, and /g/ are voiced, as the vocal cords vibrate, while their voiceless counterparts /p/, /t/, and /k/ are produced without vocal cord vibration.

These three dimensions—place, manner, and voicing—form the foundation of consonant classification in phonetics and are essential for understanding how speech sounds function both in isolation and within connected speech. Mastery of these concepts is particularly important in the fields of language teaching, speech therapy, and linguistic analysis.

3. Classification of Consonants

Consonants in English are classified based on several articulatory features, with two of the most important being the place of articulation, which describes where the sound is produced, and the manner of articulation, which explains how the sound is produced.

a. Place of Articulation

The place of articulation refers to the location in the vocal tract where the airflow is constricted or blocked during the production of consonant sounds. This involves the interaction between two articulators—typically an active articulator (like the tongue or lips) and a passive articulator (like the upper teeth or alveolar ridge). Understanding the place of articulation is fundamental for identifying and teaching English consonant phonemes effectively.

Table 11.3 English Consonants According to Place of Articulation

Place	Articulators	Example Sounds	Sample Words
Bilabial	Both lips	/p, b, m, w/	<i>pat, bat, man</i>
Labio-dental	Lower lip + upper teeth	/f, v/	<i>fan, van</i>
Dental	Tongue between teeth	/θ, ð/	<i>think, this</i>
Alveolar	Tongue tip + alveolar ridge	/t, d, s, z, n, l/	<i>top, zip, no</i>
Postalveolar	Tongue blade + area behind alveolar	/ʃ, ʒ, tʃ, dʒ/	<i>shop, judge</i>
Palatal	Front tongue + hard palate	/j/	<i>yes</i>
Velar	Back tongue + soft palate	/k, g, ŋ/	<i>cat, go, sing</i>
Glottal	At the vocal cords (glottis)	/h/	<i>hat</i>

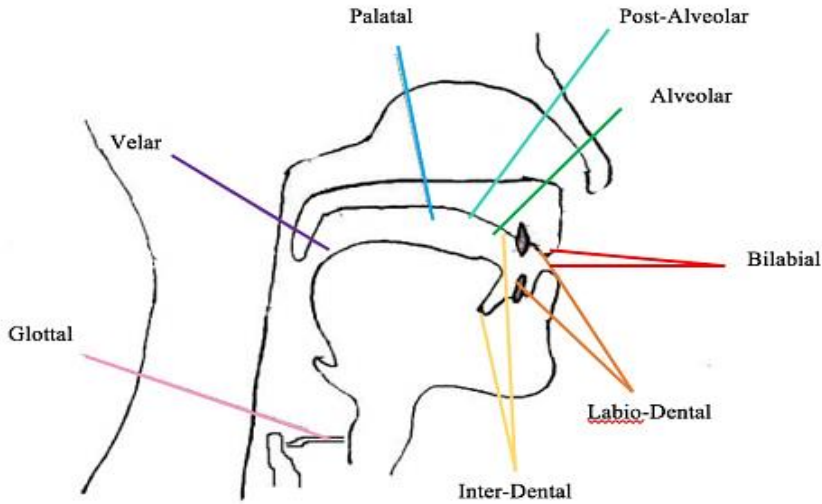


Figure 11. 2 The Human Vocal Tract Showing Places of Articulation

Source: Pore Over the Pages (2016)

b. Manner of articulation

The manner of articulation describes how the speech organs interact to obstruct or shape the airflow when producing consonant sounds. Each manner creates a distinct type of sound. Below are the six main manners of articulation:

1) Fricatives

Fricatives are consonants produced by narrowing the space between two articulators, creating turbulent airflow as the air is forced through the constriction. This produces a hissing or buzzing sound. Common examples include /f/, /v/, /s/, /z/, /ʃ/ (as in *shoe*), and /ʒ/ (as in *measure*). Fricatives can also be voiceless (e.g., /f/, /s/, /θ/, /ʃ/) or voiced (e.g., /v/, /z/, /ð/, /ʒ/).

Table 11. 4 Classification of English Fricative Consonants

IPA	Voicing	Place of Articulation	Example
/f/	voiceless	labiodental	<i>fine</i>
/v/	voiced	labiodental	<i>vine</i>
/θ/	voiceless	dental	<i>thin</i>
/ð/	voiced	dental	<i>this</i>
/s/	voiceless	alveolar	<i>sip</i>
/z/	voiced	alveolar	<i>zip</i>
/ʃ/	voiceless	postalveolar	<i>ship</i>
/ʒ/	voiced	postalveolar	<i>measure</i>
/h/	voiceless	glottal	<i>hat</i>

2) Plosives (Stops)

Plosives, or stops, are speech sounds formed by fully stopping the airflow in the vocal tract and then quickly releasing it, resulting in a sharp burst of sound. Examples include /p/ and /b/ (produced at the lips), /t/ and /d/ (at the alveolar ridge), and /k/ and /g/ (at the soft palate or velum). These sounds are distinguished by whether they are voiceless (/p/, /t/, /k/) or voiced (/b/, /d/, /g/).

Table 11. 5 Classification of English Plosive (Stop) Consonants

IPA	Voicing	Place of Articulation	Example
/p/	voiceless	bilabial	<i>pat</i>

/b/	voiced	bilabial	<i>bat</i>
/t/	voiceless	alveolar	<i>top</i>
/d/	voiced	alveolar	<i>dog</i>
/k/	voiceless	velar	<i>cat</i>
/g/	voiced	velar	<i>go</i>

3) Affricates

Affricates are hybrid sounds that begin as plosives and end as fricatives. The airflow is first completely stopped, then released into a narrow constriction to produce friction. In American English, the primary affricates are /tʃ/ (as in *church*) and /dʒ/ (as in *judge*). Although they are composed of two parts, affricates function as single phonemes.

Table 11. 6 Classification of English Affricate Consonants

IPA	Voicing	Example Word
/tʃ/	voiceless	<i>church</i>
/dʒ/	voiced	<i>judge</i>

4) Approximants

Approximants are produced by articulators approaching each other but not close enough to cause turbulence (Ladefoged & Johnson, 2020). They have vowel-like characteristics but function phonemically as consonants. In American English, the common approximants are /w/ (labio-velar, as in *we*) and /j/ (palatal, as in *yes*). These sounds are always voiced and often occur in syllable onsets.

Table 11. 7 Classification of English Approximant Consonants

IPA	Example Word	Description
/w/	<i>we</i>	labial-velar
/j/	<i>yes</i>	palatal

5) Lateral Approximant

The lateral approximant /l/ is produced by blocking the central part of the oral cavity with the tongue while allowing the air to escape around the sides (Ladefoged & Johnson, 2020). This gives /l/ a distinct "liquid" quality, as in the word *light*. In American English, /l/ may have different qualities depending on its position in a word, but it remains a single lateral segmental phoneme.

Table 11. 8 English Lateral Approximant

IPA		Example Word	Description
/l/		<i>let</i>	alveolar lateral approximant

6) Nasals

Nasal sounds are created by lowering the velum so that air flows through the nasal cavity, while the passage through the mouth is blocked. English nasals include /m/ (bilabial), /n/ (alveolar), and /ŋ/ (velar, as in *sing*). These sounds are voiced and play a key role in both syllable structure and meaning distinctions.

Table 11. 9 English Nasals and Summary of Manner of Articulation

IPA	Example Word	Description
/m/	<i>man</i>	bilabial nasal
/n/	<i>net</i>	alveolar nasal
/ŋ/	<i>sing</i>	velar nasal
Manner	<i>Description</i>	Examples
Plosive	<i>Full closure & release</i>	/p/, /t/, /k/
Fricative	<i>Narrow opening, friction</i>	/f/, /s/, /ʃ/
Affricate	<i>Stop + fricative combo</i>	/tʃ/, /dʒ/
Nasal	<i>Air flows through nose</i>	/m/, /n/, /ŋ/
Approximant	<i>Articulators close, no friction</i>	/w/, /r/, /j/
Lateral	<i>Air flows around tongue sides</i>	/l/

B. Suprasegmental Components

While segmental components refer to the individual sounds of vowels and consonants, suprasegmental components (also called prosodic features) are features that extend over multiple sound segments. They affect how speech is patterned and perceived at the syllable, word, and sentence levels. Suprasegmental features are crucial for natural, intelligible, and expressive speech and are especially important in English pronunciation and listening comprehension (Celce-Murcia et al., 2010; Roach, 2009). Suprasegmental components encompass several key features that operate over groups of sounds rather than individual phonemes, and to fully grasp their role in speech, it is important to examine their main elements: stress, intonation, rhythm (Wells J.C, 2008) and pitch.

1. Stress

Stress is the emphasis placed on a specific syllable within a word or on a particular word within a sentence. Stressed syllables are usually pronounced with greater loudness, length, and pitch compared to unstressed ones.

Word Stress

In polysyllabic words, one syllable is more prominent. For example:

- *‘REcord* (noun) vs. *re‘CORD* (verb)
- *PHOtograph* vs. *phoTOgrapher*

(Word stress in English is unpredictable, so it often must be learned word by word)

2. Intonation

Intonation refers to the variation of pitch across phrases or sentences in spoken language. In English, intonation plays a vital role in conveying meaning that goes beyond the literal definitions of words. It encompasses the rise and fall in pitch and contributes significantly to how messages are interpreted by listeners. Intonation helps convey speaker intentions, emotional states, and sentence structure (Roach, 2009; Ladefoged & Johnson, 2015). Several key communicative functions of intonation in English include the following:

- Conveying emotion or attitude: Speakers use different intonation patterns to express emotions such as enthusiasm, doubt, anger, or sarcasm. A rising intonation can suggest uncertainty or surprise, whereas a falling intonation may express finality or seriousness (Brazil, 1997; Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin, 2010).
- Indicating question types: Intonation distinguishes among types of questions. Yes-no questions typically end with a rising pitch, while wh-questions usually end with a falling pitch, reflecting the difference in expected responses (Roach, 2009; Cruttenden, 1997).
- Marking sentence boundaries: The intonational contour helps listeners identify where one idea ends and another begins. For instance, a falling tone often signals the end of a sentence, while a rise or level pitch may indicate continuation (Gussenhoven, 2004; Cruttenden, 1997).
- Highlighting focus or contrast: Intonation is used to emphasize certain parts of a sentence, particularly to draw attention to new or contrastive information. This function is essential for managing information flow and listener attention (Ladd, 2008; Celce-Murcia et al., 2010).

To better understand its functions, it is important to explore the main types of intonation patterns commonly found in English:

- Falling intonation (↘): used in statements and wh-questions
“I went to the market↘.”
- Rising intonation (↗): used in yes/no questions
“Are you ready↗?”
- Fall-rise (↘↗): often used for politeness, uncertainty, or contrast
“I *thought* it was okay↘↗.”

English is considered a stress-timed rather than a tone language, which means that meaning is not conveyed by individual tones on specific syllables (as in tonal languages like Mandarin), but rather through the overall pitch movement across a phrase or sentence.

3. Rhythm

Rhythm in speech involves the timing, speed, and arrangement of stressed and unstressed syllables in spoken language. English is generally considered a stress-timed language, where stressed syllables usually appear at fairly regular intervals, no matter how many unstressed syllables come between them (Roach, 2009; Ladefoged & Johnson, 2015). As a result, the duration between stressed beats remains approximately the same, even when the sentence becomes longer or more complex.

For example:

- *“TAKE the DOg for a WALK.”*
- *“TAKE the LITtle brown DOG for a NICE long WALK.”*

Although the second sentence contains more syllables, both may take approximately the same amount of time to say because the rhythm is regulated by the placement and timing of stressed syllables. This stress-timed rhythm strongly influences how native speakers produce connected speech and contributes to natural fluency. It gives rise to phonological processes such as reduction (e.g., “to” pronounced as /tə/), linking (e.g., “go on” pronounced as /ɡoʊ_ɒn/), and blending or assimilation (e.g., “did you” pronounced as /dɪdʒə/) (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin, 2010). These rhythmic features are essential for intelligibility and fluency but also present challenges for second language learners, especially those whose first language is syllable-timed, such as Indonesian.

4. Pitch

Pitch is the perceived level of how high or low a speaker’s voice sounds, mainly influenced by the rate at which the vocal folds vibrate. When the vocal folds vibrate faster, the pitch is higher; when they vibrate slower, the pitch is lower. Although pitch is a fundamental component of intonation, it also serves a range of independent linguistic and paralinguistic functions in spoken communication (Ladefoged & Johnson, 2015).

One key function of pitch is signaling emotion or attitude. Variations in pitch can indicate a speaker's emotional state—such as excitement, surprise, anger, or boredom—even without any change in word choice. For example, a sudden rise in pitch might signal enthusiasm or urgency, while a monotone delivery may suggest indifference or fatigue.

Pitch also plays an important role in differentiating sentence types. In English, variations in pitch patterns help differentiate statements, questions, commands, and exclamations. For instance, a rising pitch at the end of an utterance often marks yes/no questions (e.g., “*Are you coming ↗?*”), whereas a falling pitch typically marks declarative statements or *wh*- questions (e.g., “*Where are you going ↘?*”) (Roach, 2009).

Furthermore, pitch contributes to the organization of information structure in discourse, particularly in marking the difference between new and given information. New or contrastive information is often delivered with a noticeable pitch prominence or change in pitch direction to draw the listener's attention, while given or already-known information is spoken with reduced pitch variation (Cruttenden, 1997). This use of pitch aids in listener comprehension and supports the efficient flow of communication.

Unlike tonal languages, where pitch contours on individual syllables are used to distinguish lexical meanings between words (e.g., *mā* vs. *má* in mandarin), English is not a tonal language. Instead, pitch in English is primarily used at the sentence or discourse level to convey pragmatic meaning, speaker intention, and emotional nuance, rather than to differentiate the meanings of individual words (Gussenhoven, 2004).

5. The Role of Phonology in Effective Communication

Phonology plays a critical role in ensuring effective spoken communication. Even small pronunciation errors can cause communication breakdowns or lead to unintended and sometimes embarrassing misunderstandings. For instance, mispronouncing the word *beach* as /bɪtʃ/ (instead of /bi:tʃ/) can convey an entirely different—and inappropriate—meaning. These mistakes not only affect the message but also the speaker's credibility and confidence.

Additionally, poor phonological skills can result in frequent misunderstandings, especially in international or professional contexts, where clarity and precision are essential. In many cases, speakers with inaccurate stress, intonation, or vowel length may be misinterpreted or asked to repeat themselves, reducing the efficiency of communication.

Through targeted phonological training—including listening practice, feedback on articulation, and rhythm and stress exercises—learners can gradually reduce their pronunciation issues. Phonology provides a systematic framework to diagnose and remediate errors, making it an essential component of any communicative language teaching approach (Roach, 2009; Yule, 2020).

C. Conclusion

A clear understanding of phonology enables language teachers to address learners' pronunciation challenges more effectively. By explicitly explaining the differences between similar sounds, teachers can help students overcome confusion and sharpen their phonemic awareness, enhancing their ability to perceive and accurately produce target sounds.

Effective pronunciation instruction often incorporates interactive techniques such as pronunciation drills, shadowing exercises, and the use of the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA). These methods make the relationships between sounds and symbols explicit, helping learners become more aware of how English sounds are articulated and how they differ from those in their native language. Most importantly, developing learners' phonological skills—the ability to recognize and manipulate sound patterns—improves their capacity for self-monitoring and correction, leading to more independent and confident pronunciation.

Indonesian learners of English face particular phonological challenges due to significant differences between the sound systems of Bahasa Indonesia and English. For example, English phonemes like the dental fricatives /θ/ and /ð/ (as in *think* and *this*) and the near-open front vowel /æ/ (as in *cat*) do not exist in Indonesian. Consequently,

these sounds are often substituted with more familiar ones, such as /t/ for /θ/, /d/ for /ð/, and /e/ or /a/ for /æ/, which can cause misunderstandings.

Another important factor is L1 interference—the influence of a learner’s first language on English pronunciation. Bahasa Indonesia has a simpler phonemic inventory and does not differentiate between voiced and voiceless consonants at the ends of words, which may result in similar pronunciations for words like *bad* and *bat*. Additionally, features common in English, such as aspiration in plosives and vowel reduction in unstressed syllables, are typically absent in Bahasa Indonesia, often leading to a noticeable foreign accent that can affect intelligibility.

Furthermore, many Indonesian learners struggle with suprasegmental features like intonation, stress, and rhythm, which are crucial for natural and effective communication. Difficulties in these areas can cause confusion in both understanding and producing spoken English, particularly in conversational settings. Overall, addressing these phonological challenges through targeted instruction and awareness-raising can significantly improve Indonesian learners’ English pronunciation and communicative competence.



12

CHAPTER 12: THE USE OF MEDIA AND TECHNOLOGY IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING



A. Introduction

The development of information and communication technology (ICT) has brought about major transformations in various aspects of life, including in the field of education. In the context of English language learning, media and technology are no longer complementary, but essential needs to support relevant, interesting, and effective teaching and learning processes. Globalization has encouraged the use of English as a lingua franca in various professional, academic, and social fields, which ultimately increases the demands on the quality of learning. To meet this need, English teachers are required to be able to integrate media and technology effectively in their learning practices.

The Industrial Revolution 4.0 era is marked by the integration of digital technology, artificial intelligence, and the internet of things (IoT) in human life, including in the education ecosystem (Kovaliuk & Kobets, 2021). Thus, the traditional approach to teaching English is no longer adequate. Technology presents opportunities to create a more collaborative, interactive, and contextual learning environment. Through digital media such as learning videos, podcasts, AI-based learning applications, and online learning platforms, students can access learning resources that are broader, authentic, and tailored to individual needs (Ariyanti & Apoko, 2022; Corbeil & Corbeil, 2025; Sabrila & Apoko, 2022).

In addition to pedagogical aspects, the use of media and technology is also closely related to digital literacy, that is an individual's ability to use technology to access, manage, and evaluate information. In the context of English language learning, digital literacy is a basic competency that is not only needed by students, but also by teachers. Teachers who have good digital literacy are able to design more meaningful and student-centered learning experiences (Dongxue & Nagappan, 2024). This is in line with the blended learning and flipped classroom approaches, which place students as active actors in the learning process.

Furthermore, media and technology support the principles of communicative and authentic learning in English language teaching (ELT). For example, students can interact with native speakers through video conference platforms, use AI-based applications for speaking and pronunciation practice, or collaborate on cross-country digital projects.

These activities reflect how technology significantly expands learning space and time (Chen, 2024).

This chapter aims to comprehensively examine the role of media and technology in ELT in the modern era. The discussion will cover the types of relevant media and technology, how to integrate them in developing the four language skills, the challenges faced by teachers, and good practices that can be used as references. It is hoped that readers, especially teachers, lecturers, and education practitioners, can gain insight and inspiration in designing English learning that is more adaptive to the development of the times, and aligns with the needs of the digital generation.

B. Discussion

1. Definition and Classification of Media and Technology in ELT

In the context of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learning, media and technology play a central role in supporting the effectiveness of the teaching and learning process. In general, learning media is defined as any form of intermediary used to convey messages or information from teachers to students so that learning objectives are achieved optimally (Sudarsana et al., 2020). Meanwhile, educational technology refers to the systematic application of scientific knowledge about the learning and communication process to improve the quality of learning, including through the use of hardware and software (Kumar, 1996).

In English teaching, the classification of media and technology can be divided into two major categories: (1) conventional media and (2) digital media. Conventional media includes non-electronic aids that have long been used in language classes, such as whiteboards, flashcards, posters, flannel boards, realia, and textbooks. These media are generally visual and kinesthetic, and are effective in building the basics of vocabulary and grammar contextually (Chidingozi & Eke, 2025; Montes León, 2018). Although conventional media is simple, it is still relevant, especially in learning contexts where access to technology is limited.

On the other hand, digital media includes technology-based devices and applications such as computers, projectors, learning videos, Learning Management Systems (LMS), language learning applications (e.g. Duolingo, Quizlet, or Kahoot!), and speech or text recognition software. These technologies enable more interactive, multimodal, and flexible learning (Apoko et al., 2023). For example, the use of videos can improve understanding of cultural context and body language expressions in communication; while AI-based pronunciation applications can help students practice independently and get instant feedback.

Furthermore, advances in artificial intelligence (AI) have ushered in a new generation of technologies in ELT, such as chatbots, speech recognition, and generative AI tools such as ChatGPT, which can be used for writing exercises, text-based discussions, or automated feedback on student writing. AI-based technologies not only expand access to personalized learning but also support adaptive learning that adapts to the abilities and pace of each student (Waluyo & Kusumastuti, 2024).

However, it should be emphasized that the selection of media and technology must be in line with learning objectives, learner characteristics, and institutional context. Not all advanced technologies guarantee successful learning if not accompanied by appropriate pedagogical design. Therefore, teachers need to have conceptual knowledge and practical skills in combining conventional and digital media wisely.

With an understanding of the variety and characteristics of these media, English teachers can design more creative, engaging, and meaningful learning experiences for students. The integration of media from conventional to digital is not merely replacing old tools with new ones, but rather creating pedagogical synergy between traditional approaches and technological innovations to maximize learning outcomes.

2. Integration of Media and Technology in Language Skills Development

English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teaching emphasizes the development of four core skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. With the advancement of digital technology and the availability

of various types of learning media, the development of these skills can be facilitated more effectively, contextually, and enjoyably. The integration of media and technology allows for a multimodal, student-centered learning approach, and provides space for greater independent and collaborative practice (Robi'ah & Wijayanto, 2025).

In a listening skill, technologies such as podcasts, authentic videos from YouTube, and international news recordings provide students with access to diverse and authentic audio materials. Not only do they improve understanding of accents and intonation, these resources also enrich cultural insights and the context of language use. Through interactive subtitles or transcripts, students can adjust their learning comprehension and satisfaction (Malakul & Park, 2023). Applications such as Lyrics Training also combine music and games as an effective way to improve listening skills interactively (Martinez et al., 2023).

For a speaking skill, technology media such as speech recognition software (e.g. Google Voice, ELSA Speak), as well as AI-based applications such as ChatGPT or TalkPal, allow students to practice independently with instant feedback. In addition, the use of video calls or virtual exchange platforms such as Zoom or G-Meets allows direct interaction with native speakers or peers from other countries, strengthening cross-cultural communication competencies (Yaqoob et al., 2025). Teachers can also record student presentations as material for reflection and evaluation.

In terms of a reading skill, digital media offers unlimited access to authentic texts through e-books, online articles, blogs, and discussion forums. Technology allows the use of strategies such as text-to-speech, hyperlink glossaries, and annotated reading tools that facilitate contextual understanding of texts. Platforms such as Newsela or Actively Learn provide adaptive texts according to students' ability levels, encouraging more personalized learning (Haiken & Furman, 2022).

Meanwhile, for a writing skill, technology offers many platforms for writing practice ranging from grammar applications such as Grammarly, Google Docs for collaborative work, to blogging platforms for publishing student writing. In addition, AI writing assistants such as ChatGPT can be used as stimulus ideas or as initial feedback tools and create ease although they need to be controlled by teachers so as not to

reduce students' critical thinking and academic processes (Imran & Almusharraf, 2023). Digital media also supports the process writing approach, where students can draft, get feedback, and revise their work continuously.

The integration of media and technology in the development of the four language skills must remain based on pedagogical principles. Teachers need to select tools that are appropriate to learning needs, consider the student's context, and ensure a balance between the use of technology and human interaction. If implemented properly, media and technology not only enrich students' learning experiences but also strengthen their autonomy, motivation, and competitiveness in a global context.

3. Challenges in Implementing Technology in English Classrooms

Although the integration of technology in ELT offers many pedagogical benefits, its realization in the classroom is not without challenges. Teachers as the spearhead of learning implementation often face complex obstacles, ranging from limited infrastructure, lack of pedagogical training, to low digital literacy. Critically identifying these obstacles and seeking contextual solutions are important steps so that technology can be used effectively and sustainably in ELT.

One of the main challenges is limited infrastructure. In many schools, especially in remote or less developed areas, access to digital devices, stable internet networks, and adequate electricity is still a serious problem. Teachers and students often share devices, use slow connections, or even have no access to technology at all (Haleem et al., 2022). This condition hinders the optimal implementation of digital platforms, and limits students' opportunities to develop 21st century skills.

In addition, from a pedagogical perspective, many teachers do not yet have a deep understanding of how to design technology-based learning effectively. Technology is often used as a presentation aid or video playback media, without a clear instructional strategy. In fact, the success of using technology does not only depend on the devices used, but also on the design of meaningful learning activities and encourage active student involvement (Salam et al., 2023). This shows the need for training oriented towards technological pedagogical content

knowledge (TPACK) so that teachers are able to integrate technology comprehensively into their teaching practices (Mishra & Koehler, 2006).

Digital literacy of teachers and students is also a challenge in itself. Not all teachers have the confidence and competence to use learning technology, especially new technologies such as AI applications, online collaborative media, or adaptive learning platforms. This lack of understanding can lead to resistance or a tendency to continue using conventional methods (Purmayanti, 2022). On the other hand, students who are classified as digital natives do not necessarily have critical and productive digital skills, so they still need proper guidance.

To overcome these various obstacles, a number of strategic solutions can be implemented. *First*, improving educational technology infrastructure must be a priority for national and local education policies, including providing internet access, computer labs, and device loans for underprivileged students (Manyasa, 2022). *Second*, teachers need to be given ongoing training that is not only technical but also pedagogical, with a practice-based and collaborative approach. Professional development programs that are designed contextually and based on real needs will be more relevant and effective (Islam et al., 2024).

Third, strengthening digital literacy needs to be done through the integration of digital materials in the curriculum and providing exploratory space for teachers and students (Hays & Kammer, 2023). This includes an understanding of digital security, ethics in the use of technology, and the ability to evaluate online information. Schools can also build digital learning communities for teachers as a space for sharing and innovating teaching practices.

Thus, obstacles in implementing technology should not be seen as absolute obstacles, but rather as challenges that can be overcome through a systemic and collaborative approach. When technology is used wisely and in a planned manner, it becomes a catalyst that significantly strengthens the quality of English learning.

4. Good Practices of Using Media and Technology in English Class

The implementation of media and technology in ELT is increasingly showing promising results, especially when carried out in a planned, contextual, and innovative manner. In various parts of the world, including Indonesia, a number of good practices have been proven to increase students' motivation, participation, and language competence. This experience is an important reference for English teachers to adopt similar strategies according to their needs and available resources.

One prominent example is the use of LMS such as Moodle or Google Classroom. Teachers can build structured online classes with features for sharing materials, interactive quizzes, discussion forums, and automatic assessments. A study by Apoko (2022) showed that LMS designed with a communicative approach can increase learning outcomes, learning engagement, and student independence in learning English language. In many schools and universities in Indonesia, the use of LMS is combined with a blended learning approach to bridge online and offline learning.

Another example is the integration of interactive mobile applications, such as Duolingo, Quizlet, and Kahoot!, which have been shown to encourage student engagement through gamification elements. Teachers use Quizlet to build digital card-based vocabulary exercises that are easily accessible via mobile phones. In a study by Mykytka (2023), Quizlet has helped the learning of vocabulary to be enjoyable, fun and attractive as well as has increased students' motivation and made them more active and autonomous in their learning. Kahoot! is often used to conduct formative assessments quickly and in real time, encouraging active involvement from all students.

The use of educational social media, such as Instagram, TikTok, Facebook, and WhatsApp is also starting to be used wisely. Several teachers ask students to create mini educational content such as grammar tips, word of the day, or pronunciation challenges that are published on class social media. In addition to practicing writing and speaking skills, this strategy also strengthens digital literacy and presentation skills. Apoko and Waluyo (2025) noted that social media, if properly controlled, can be a powerful and interactive tool for facilitating authentic communication and improving engagement and academic performance.

At the higher education level, the use of generative AI such as ChatGPT is starting to be utilized to stimulate essay writing, argumentative discussions, and dialogue exercises. Lecturers can ask students to develop conversations based on certain themes, then revise the results with input from AI. Research by Song & Song (2023) found that the integration of AI in English learning can improve students' motivation and enhance proficiency in various aspects of writing such as organization, coherence, grammar, and vocabulary.

From the various good practices above, it can be concluded that the success of media and technology integration depends on teacher innovation, relevance to student needs, and support for the learning environment. English teachers need to develop sensitivity to local contexts while being open to global practices. Thus, media and technology are not only tools, but also a medium for strengthening the quality of meaningful, creative, and highly competitive English teaching.

C. Conclusion

The use of media and technology in English teaching is no longer a supplementary option, but an urgent necessity in today's digital and globalized era. The rapid development of information and communication technologies has fundamentally changed the way learners access, process, and interact with knowledge. Consequently, English language teaching must not only adapt to these shifts but also proactively harness technology to enhance learning quality, accessibility, and relevance. This chapter has provided a comprehensive discussion on the importance of technology utilization, the types of media available, the integration of technology in developing language skills, as well as the challenges and good practices observed in implementation.

The success of technology integration in English language teaching is influenced by several interrelated factors. Infrastructure readiness—such as the availability of stable internet connections, adequate digital devices, and learning management systems—serves as the foundation for effective implementation. Beyond that, teacher competence plays a central role; pedagogical knowledge must be combined with digital literacy and an understanding of how to meaningfully integrate

technology into language learning. Systemic support from educational institutions and policymakers also determines sustainability, as it provides the structural and financial resources needed for innovation to thrive. Without these conditions, technology use may remain superficial and fail to deliver its full potential.

Considering the importance and challenges of media and technology integration, several **practical recommendations** can be drawn. For teachers, continuous professional development is essential. This involves not only training in digital tools but also participation in professional learning communities that encourage the sharing of best practices and collaborative problem-solving. For curriculum developers, technology must be embedded in flexible, communicative, and contextual learning designs that promote authentic language use and intercultural competence. For policymakers, affirmative and inclusive policies are needed to ensure equitable access to devices, digital platforms, and technical support, especially in remote or digitally disadvantaged areas. Such policies must also address issues of sustainability and scalability, ensuring that innovations are not limited to pilot projects but can be widely adopted across the education system.

In conclusion, media and technology have the potential to become **powerful drivers of transformation in English teaching**, fostering more inclusive, creative, and adaptive learning environments that meet the challenges of the 21st century. However, this potential can only be realized through strong collaboration among teachers, curriculum designers, policymakers, and institutions. When aligned with pedagogical goals and supported by systemic infrastructure, technology integration can help learners not only acquire language proficiency but also develop digital competencies, critical thinking, and global awareness—skills that are indispensable in an interconnected world.



13

CHAPTER 13: ENGLISH SPECIFIC PURPOSE



A. Definition of ESP

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is a specialized branch of English language teaching that focuses on meeting the unique linguistic needs of learners in specific academic, professional, or occupational contexts. Unlike General English (GE), which aims at broad language competence, ESP narrows its focus to the skills and terminology necessary for particular fields such as medicine, engineering, or business (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). This approach ensures that language instruction is directly relevant to learners' real-life communication needs.

ESP has been defined as an approach to language teaching in which decisions about content and methodology are based on the learner's reasons for learning (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) further explain that ESP is not a product but a methodology that prioritizes learners' needs and the contexts in which they will use the language. For instance, English for medical professionals emphasizes medical terminology, while English for engineers focuses on technical reports and presentations.

1. Difference Between General English (GE) and ESP

While General English (GE) aims to provide learners with a broad knowledge of grammar, vocabulary, and communicative competence applicable to everyday life, ESP is highly context-specific. GE lessons may include topics such as travel, hobbies, or social interactions, whereas ESP is oriented toward a professional or academic field (Basturkmen, 2010). Moreover, ESP courses are often shorter and more intensive, with the primary goal of equipping learners with language skills directly relevant to their work or study needs.

2. Purpose-Oriented Language Learning

The key distinguishing feature of ESP is its purpose-oriented nature. Learners are not merely acquiring English for general communication but to carry out specific tasks related to their academic or professional fields. According to Strevens (1988), ESP courses are designed with a clear focus on "why" the language is needed and "how" it will be used. For example, law students may focus on legal vocabulary and case

analysis, while aviation professionals concentrate on air traffic communication protocols.

3. Importance of ESP

ESP plays a crucial role in the globalized world, where English is often the medium of international business, research, and education. By focusing on learners' immediate needs, ESP maximizes the efficiency of instruction and increases motivation (Anthony, 2018). Learners appreciate that what they are studying is directly applicable to their future careers, which makes the learning experience more engaging and goal-oriented.

4. Meeting Learners' Professional, Academic, or Occupational Needs

ESP begins with a needs analysis, which identifies learners' language requirements, target situations, and communicative tasks (Basturkmen, 2010). For example, an ESP course for hospitality workers may focus on customer service dialogues, while one for researchers may emphasize academic writing and presentation skills. This ensures that instruction is not only relevant but also equips learners with the competence to perform effectively in their chosen domains.

5. Types of ESP: EAP and EOP

ESP is generally classified into two main categories: English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP). EAP is concerned with developing skills needed for academic study, including essay writing, note-taking, and seminar participation (Jordan, 1997). In contrast, EOP prepares learners for workplace communication, such as writing reports, negotiating contracts, or delivering technical presentations (Basturkmen, 2010). Both branches emphasize context-specific learning but cater to different professional or academic settings.

6. Teaching English for Math

Teaching English for Mathematics (E4M) is a specialized area within English for Specific Purposes (ESP) that focuses on equipping students with the language skills necessary to understand and apply

mathematical concepts in English. It goes beyond teaching vocabulary by integrating language structures, problem-solving expressions, and academic discourse used in mathematics classrooms, research, and professional settings.

B. Definition of E4M

E4M refers to teaching strategies that combine mathematics content with English language learning to ensure students can comprehend mathematical texts, solve word problems, and communicate solutions effectively. According to Basturkmen (2010), ESP, including E4M, is driven by learners' specific goals—in this case, mastering mathematical English to excel in academic and professional domains.

English is widely recognized as the global language of science and mathematics. Many international curricula, research publications, and standardized assessments—such as TIMSS, PISA, or SAT—are conducted in English. By teaching mathematics through English, educators not only enhance students' problem-solving skills but also prepare them to access global knowledge, pursue higher education abroad, and participate in scientific discourse (Anthony, 2018).

1. Key Features of E4M

E4M emphasizes three core aspects:

- **Mathematical Vocabulary:** Understanding terms like *equation*, *fraction*, *derivative*, or *variable*.
- **Instructional Language:** Interpreting phrases like *find the sum of*, *calculate the area*, or *prove that*.
- **Reasoning and Explanation:** Expressing mathematical solutions clearly in spoken or written English.

2. Teaching Approaches

Effective teaching of E4M can use methods such as:

- **Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL):** Teaching mathematical concepts and English language skills simultaneously.

- Task-Based Learning (TBL): Students solve real-world problems (e.g., calculating interest rates) using English.
- Visual Support: Graphs, charts, and diagrams to reduce linguistic barriers and aid comprehension.

3. Example of E4M Activity

An example of an E4M classroom activity could involve a contextualized problem:

"A rectangle has a length of 12 cm and a width of 8 cm. Calculate its area and explain your answer in one sentence."

A suitable response might be: "The area of the rectangle is 96 square centimetres because area is calculated by multiplying length and width ($12 \times 8 = 96$)."

This type of task requires students to perform mathematical calculations and communicate their reasoning clearly in English, fulfilling the dual goals of content and language learning.

Example 1: Vocabulary in Context

Task: Match each mathematical term with its correct definition.

- Equation
- Perimeter
- Fraction
- Hypotenuse

Definitions:

- A part of a whole, expressed as numerator/denominator.
- A statement showing equality between two expressions.
- The longest side of a right triangle.
- The total length around a two-dimensional shape.

Answer Key:

- Equation → B
- Perimeter → D
- Fraction → A
- Hypotenuse → C

Example 2: Word Problem & Explanation

Task: Read the problem and answer in a complete English sentence.

"A rectangle has a length of 15 cm and a width of 10 cm. Calculate its area and explain your answer."

Answer:

"The area of the rectangle is 150 square centimeters because area is found by multiplying length by width ($15 \times 10 = 150$)."

Example 3: Explaining Mathematical Reasoning

Task: Explain the process of solving this equation: $2x + 5 = 15$

Answer:

"First, subtract 5 from both sides to get $2x = 10$. Then, divide both sides by 2 to find $x = 5$."

Sample Lesson Plan (OBE-Based)

Subject: English for Mathematics (E4M)

Class Level: Senior High School / Vocational / ESP Program

Duration: 2×45 minutes

1. Learning Outcomes (OBE)

By the end of the lesson, students will be able to:

- Identify mathematical vocabulary related to geometry (Cognitive).
- Solve word problems using correct mathematical procedures (Psychomotor).
- Explain their solutions clearly in English using proper mathematical language (Affective & Communication).

2. Learning Objectives

- Students will recognize key vocabulary (e.g., area, perimeter, length, width).
- Students will calculate the area and perimeter of simple shapes from English instructions.

- Students will present solutions verbally and in written form using correct sentence structures.

4. Learning Materials

- Vocabulary list (area, perimeter, rectangle, length, width, multiply, calculate).
- Word problem examples.
- Worksheets and visual aids (shapes, diagrams).

C. Teaching and Learning Activities

1. Introduction (10 min)

- Teacher asks: *"What words do you use in English to describe shapes in mathematics?"*
- Brainstorm terms like *length, width, area, perimeter, calculate*.

2. Core Activities (60 min)

a. Vocabulary Building (15 min):

Matching game: Students match mathematical terms with definitions and diagrams.

b. Guided Practice (20 min):

- Solve a problem together: *"A rectangle has a length of 12 cm and a width of 8 cm. What is its area?"*
- Teacher models sentence: *"The area is 96 square centimeters because $12 \times 8 = 96$."*

c. Collaborative Task (25 min):

- Students work in pairs to solve 3–4 word problems and explain their solutions in English.
- Example: *"A triangle has a base of 10 cm and height of 6 cm. Find its area and explain your answer."*

3. Closing (10 min)

- Students summarize what they learned by completing sentences:

"Today I learned that the word 'perimeter' means ..."

- Teacher provides feedback and homework.

4. Assessment

- Formative: Observation of group work, participation in vocabulary activities.
- Summative: Written answers and oral explanations graded using a rubric for accuracy, clarity, and correct use of English.

5. Homework / Extension

- Create two-word problems about area and perimeter and solve them using complete English sentences.

Conclusion

Teaching English for Mathematics (E4M) is an essential component of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) that equips students with the language skills needed to understand and express mathematical concepts effectively. By integrating mathematical vocabulary, problem-solving instructions, and reasoning language, E4M prepares learners to engage with academic texts, international assessments, and professional contexts where English is the medium of communication. It not only strengthens their mathematical proficiency but also develops their ability to communicate ideas clearly and confidently.

Furthermore, E4M promotes purpose-oriented learning, ensuring that language instruction is directly relevant to students' academic and career goals. Through approaches such as Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) and Task-Based Learning (TBL), students gain both subject knowledge and communicative competence. As a result, E4M enhances learners' readiness to succeed in a globalized educational environment and opens opportunities for future academic and professional advancement.



14

CHAPTER 14: COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING (CLT)



A. Introduction

Over the past few decades, language education has undergone a profound transformation in both theory and practice. The traditional view of language learning as the mastery of grammatical structures and lexical knowledge has gradually been replaced by a more dynamic understanding of language as a tool for interaction, negotiation of meaning, and social engagement. This pedagogical shift reflects the increasing recognition that successful language learning is not solely measured by linguistic accuracy, but by one's capacity to communicate appropriately, fluently, and meaningfully in diverse contexts. Within this evolution, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) has emerged as one of the most influential and enduring paradigms in the field of English language education worldwide.

The emergence of CLT can be traced to dissatisfaction with earlier methodologies—particularly the Grammar-Translation and Audiolingual methods—that dominated language classrooms throughout much of the twentieth century. The Grammar-Translation Method emphasized reading and writing through grammatical analysis and translation, while the Audiolingual Method prioritized oral practice through repetition and drilling. Although both approaches contributed to learners' structural awareness, they often failed to foster the ability to use language for authentic communication. In contrast, CLT redefined the central goal of language teaching by placing communication at the core of learning, emphasizing that linguistic knowledge should serve the broader purpose of expressing meaning, performing social functions, and fostering interaction.

From a theoretical standpoint, CLT views language as a socially situated system of meaning-making, rather than a set of abstract grammatical rules. This perspective was strongly influenced by Hymes' (1972) concept of *communicative competence*, which extends beyond grammatical knowledge to include sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competence. Learners are therefore encouraged not only to construct grammatically correct utterances but also to employ them effectively and appropriately in context. In this way, language

proficiency becomes an integration of form, function, and use—bridging linguistic accuracy with communicative fluency.

The pedagogical principles of CLT are closely aligned with constructivist and humanistic theories of learning, which emphasize learner autonomy, experiential engagement, and the co-construction of knowledge through interaction. From this perspective, learning is viewed as an active process in which students build understanding through participation, collaboration, and reflection. Teachers, rather than serving as mere transmitters of knowledge, act as facilitators, guides, and co-communicators who nurture learners' confidence and communicative competence. Consequently, the classroom becomes a social learning environment that mirrors real-life communication, where language is both the medium and the goal of learning.

In the Indonesian context, the relevance of CLT is particularly significant. As English is positioned as a foreign language (EFL), learners' opportunities to use English in authentic settings outside the classroom remain limited. Hence, it becomes imperative for educators to create instructional environments that simulate real-world communication and meaningful interaction. The communicative approach aligns naturally with Indonesia's educational reforms—especially the Kurikulum Merdeka (Independent Curriculum)—which advocates for learner-centered, competency-based, and contextualized instruction. The curriculum's emphasis on critical thinking, creativity, collaboration, and communication resonates deeply with the core tenets of CLT, reinforcing its relevance in preparing students for participation in a globalized, multilingual world.

Nevertheless, the application of CLT in Indonesia is not without challenges. Contextual factors such as large class sizes, limited instructional time, examination-oriented assessment, and varying teacher preparedness often constrain its effective implementation. Furthermore, deeply rooted cultural expectations regarding teacher authority and learner passivity can conflict with CLT's emphasis on interaction and autonomy. Despite these constraints, Indonesian educators have demonstrated remarkable creativity in localizing communicative pedagogy—integrating digital technology, culturally

relevant materials, and project-based learning to facilitate authentic communication and learner engagement.

This chapter seeks to examine the principles, pedagogical practices, and contextual implications of Communicative Language Teaching, with a particular focus on its adaptation within the Indonesian EFL landscape. It aims to provide a comprehensive account of CLT's theoretical underpinnings, core principles, classroom applications, and both its advantages and limitations.

B. Theoretical Foundations

1. Origins of Communicative Language Teaching

The roots of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) can be traced back to the early 1970s, a period marked by significant shifts in linguistic theory, educational philosophy, and social needs. Dissatisfaction with traditional methods such as the Grammar-Translation Method and the Audiolingual Method—both of which emphasized structure, accuracy, and mechanical repetition—paved the way for a more functional and human-centered approach to language education.

The most critical intellectual foundation for CLT emerged from Dell Hymes' (1972) concept of *communicative competence*. Hymes challenged the prevailing notion of *linguistic competence* proposed by Noam Chomsky (1965), which viewed language primarily as a system of abstract rules. Instead, Hymes argued that knowing a language involves not only grammatical knowledge but also the ability to use language appropriately within specific social and cultural contexts. This idea revolutionized the field by emphasizing language as social action rather than mere linguistic form.

Building upon Hymes' theory, language educators began to recognize the importance of context, meaning, and interaction in second language acquisition. This reorientation drew heavily on insights from sociolinguistics, which explored how language varies according to social setting; pragmatics, which examined how meaning is shaped by speaker intention and context; and functional linguistics,

particularly Michael Halliday's (1978) work on language as a system for meaning-making. Together, these disciplines positioned language not as a static code to be memorized, but as a dynamic, purposeful tool for communication.

The emergence of CLT, therefore, represented a paradigm shift—from teaching about the language to teaching learners how to use it. It focused on authentic communication, meaningful interaction, and the negotiation of meaning as central processes in language learning. By the late 1970s, this approach had gained strong international traction, influencing curriculum design, teacher training, and assessment models across the globe.

2. Key Theorists and Influences

The development and theoretical grounding of CLT were shaped by several key scholars whose ideas collectively transformed language education. Among the most influential are Dell Hymes, Michael Halliday, Canale and Swain, and William Littlewood.

Dell Hymes (1972) provided the foundational concept of *communicative competence*, redefining language proficiency as the ability to use linguistic knowledge appropriately in social contexts. His theory highlighted the sociocultural dimension of communication and underscored the interdependence between language and society.

Michael Halliday (1978) further advanced this perspective through his theory of Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), which views language as a resource for making meaning rather than as a set of grammatical rules. Halliday proposed that every act of communication serves specific functions—ideational, interpersonal, and textual—each reflecting how language constructs experience, enacts relationships, and organizes discourse. His work inspired educators to design classroom tasks that focus on functional communication rather than isolated grammatical forms.

The model of communicative competence was later refined by Michael Canale and Merrill Swain (1980), who identified four interrelated components:

- 1) Grammatical competence – knowledge of linguistic rules and structures;
- 2) Sociolinguistic competence – understanding of how language use varies across contexts;
- 3) Discourse competence – ability to produce coherent and cohesive discourse; and
- 4) Strategic competence – ability to employ communication strategies to overcome breakdowns.

This comprehensive framework offered a balanced view that valued both accuracy and fluency, positioning communication as the ultimate goal of language learning.

Another major contributor, William Littlewood (1981, 2004), played a pivotal role in bridging theory and practice. He articulated how communicative principles could be operationalized in classroom settings, emphasizing learner participation, contextualized tasks, and functional language use. Littlewood's practical orientation helped teachers transition from controlled, form-focused activities to interactive, meaning-oriented instruction.

Together, these scholars provided the theoretical and pedagogical scaffolding for CLT—grounding it in linguistic theory, social context, and classroom methodology.

3. Philosophical Underpinnings

Beyond linguistic theory, CLT is deeply rooted in broader educational philosophies that view learning as an active, human-centered process. Three major philosophical foundations underpin the communicative approach: constructivism, humanism, and learner autonomy.

a. Constructivism

From a constructivist perspective, learning occurs through active engagement and personal meaning-making. Influenced by thinkers such as Jean Piaget, Jerome Bruner, and Lev Vygotsky, constructivism posits that knowledge is not transmitted directly from teacher to

learner but is constructed through interaction, reflection, and experience.

In the context of language learning, constructivism aligns with CLT's focus on learning through communication rather than about communication. Learners build linguistic competence by engaging in authentic social interaction where they negotiate meaning, solve problems, and co-construct understanding. Teachers, in turn, act as facilitators who design environments that promote inquiry, collaboration, and discovery—allowing students to internalize language through meaningful use.

b. Humanism

The humanistic tradition, represented by scholars such as Carl Rogers (1969) and Abraham Maslow (1970), emphasizes the holistic development of the learner—cognitive, emotional, and social. Humanistic education values empathy, self-expression, and intrinsic motivation, fostering a supportive classroom environment where learners feel safe to take risks and express themselves.

CLT embodies these principles by recognizing the learner as a whole person whose feelings, identity, and cultural background influence the learning process. Communicative activities often incorporate personal experiences, opinions, and creativity, helping learners find relevance and emotional connection in language use. This emotional engagement enhances motivation and deepens learning, making the classroom not merely a site of knowledge transmission but a community of shared meaning-making.

c. Learner Autonomy

A third philosophical strand within CLT is learner autonomy, which emphasizes the learner's active responsibility in the learning process. Influenced by constructivist and humanistic thought, learner autonomy encourages students to make choices, reflect on their progress, and take ownership of their learning goals.

In communicative classrooms, autonomy is nurtured through interactive and task-based learning, where learners plan, negotiate, and evaluate their performance collaboratively. Such practices not only

develop linguistic competence but also empower students to become lifelong learners capable of adapting to new communicative situations independently.

d. Learning as Meaning-Making through Interaction

At its core, CLT views learning as a process of meaning-making through interaction and negotiation. Language is acquired not through memorization of rules but through participation in communicative events where meaning is co-constructed. This view aligns with Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory, which posits that learning is mediated through social dialogue and collaboration.

Through pair work, group discussions, and problem-solving activities, learners engage in the negotiation of meaning—a process that promotes deeper cognitive processing and contextualized understanding. Communication, therefore, becomes both the medium and the goal of learning. As learners interact, they internalize linguistic forms naturally, bridging the gap between theory and authentic use.

C. Core Principles of CLT

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is founded upon several core principles that collectively shape its philosophy, instructional design, and classroom practice. These principles distinguish CLT from traditional, form-based language teaching methods by emphasizing interaction, authenticity, and meaningful use of language. At its heart, CLT seeks to develop learners' communicative competence—the ability not only to produce grammatically correct sentences but also to use language appropriately and effectively in real communicative situations.

1. Focus on Communicative Competence

The central goal of CLT is the development of communicative competence, a concept introduced by Dell Hymes (1972) and later elaborated by Canale and Swain (1980). This concept broadened the traditional notion of linguistic competence by integrating both the structural and functional dimensions of language use. In this

framework, communicative competence consists of four interrelated components:

- 1) Grammatical Competence – the knowledge of syntax, morphology, phonology, and vocabulary that enables learners to form accurate sentences. It represents the foundation of language knowledge but is viewed as a means to communication rather than an end in itself.
- 2) Sociolinguistic Competence – the ability to use language appropriately according to context, social roles, and cultural norms. Learners must understand how to adapt their language use to factors such as formality, politeness, and social distance.
- 3) Discourse Competence – the ability to organize ideas coherently and cohesively in both spoken and written forms. It involves understanding how meaning is created across sentences, paragraphs, and turns in conversation, thereby enabling effective participation in extended communication.
- 4) Strategic Competence – the ability to employ strategies to overcome communication breakdowns, such as paraphrasing, using gestures, or asking for clarification. This competence allows learners to maintain fluency and sustain interaction even when linguistic resources are limited.

These four dimensions highlight that successful communication requires more than grammatical accuracy; it involves the dynamic interplay of linguistic, social, cognitive, and strategic skills. In a CLT classroom, instruction therefore aims to balance accuracy with fluency and to provide learners with opportunities to practice using language for meaningful purposes rather than mere mechanical repetition.

2. Meaningful Communication

A defining characteristic of CLT is its emphasis on meaningful communication—the use of language to accomplish real-life purposes. Language is seen as a tool for expressing ideas, sharing experiences, negotiating meaning, and building relationships. This orientation contrasts with traditional methodologies, where language learning was confined to abstract grammar rules and controlled drills divorced from authentic contexts.

In a communicative classroom, activities are designed to simulate genuine interaction. Learners engage in situations that mirror the complexities of real communication—making requests, giving opinions, solving problems, or exchanging information. Such activities foster both linguistic and pragmatic competence, enabling students to interpret and produce language that is socially appropriate and contextually relevant.

Meaningful communication also entails information exchange and negotiation of meaning. When learners encounter gaps in understanding, they are encouraged to clarify, reformulate, or expand their expressions, thereby deepening their linguistic awareness. This process of negotiation not only facilitates comprehension but also reinforces language acquisition, as learners internalize new forms through authentic use.

By treating language as a social act rather than a linguistic code, CLT transforms the classroom into a communicative community where interaction becomes both the medium and the goal of learning. In this way, language learning mirrors the natural process by which communication skills develop in real life.

3. Learner-Centeredness

Another foundational principle of CLT is its learner-centered orientation, which redefines the roles of both teacher and student in the learning process. CLT acknowledges that learners are not passive recipients of knowledge but active participants who construct meaning through experience, collaboration, and reflection. This perspective aligns closely with constructivist and humanistic educational philosophies, which emphasize engagement, autonomy, and personal growth.

In a learner-centered classroom, students are given greater responsibility and agency in their learning. They participate in decision-making, select topics of interest, and collaborate in communicative tasks that require genuine interaction. The teacher's role shifts from being the dominant source of information to that of a facilitator, guide, and co-communicator. Rather than dictating input, teachers design

meaningful tasks, monitor interaction, and provide feedback that supports learners' communicative development.

Collaboration and peer interaction lie at the heart of learner-centered CLT. Through pair work, group discussions, debates, and projects, learners engage in authentic dialogue, exchange ideas, and co-construct understanding. These collaborative experiences enhance not only language proficiency but also critical thinking, empathy, and intercultural awareness.

Moreover, the affective dimension of learning is also central to CLT's learner-centered approach. By creating a supportive and low-anxiety environment, teachers encourage learners to take risks, express their ideas freely, and develop self-confidence in communication. This emotional engagement enhances motivation and promotes deeper, more sustainable learning outcomes.

4. Task- and Context-Based Learning

CLT operationalizes its communicative philosophy through task- and context-based learning, where tasks serve as the primary units of instruction. A “task” is defined as an activity in which learners use language to achieve a specific outcome that mirrors real-world communication—for example, planning a trip, conducting an interview, or solving a problem collaboratively.

Task-based learning reflects the belief that language is best learned when it is used as a means to an end, not as an end in itself. In this approach, linguistic forms emerge naturally as learners attempt to express meaning and accomplish communicative goals. The focus is therefore on using language for purpose, rather than practicing language in isolation.

Each task typically integrates multiple language skills—listening, speaking, reading, and writing—within a coherent communicative context. For instance, learners might read authentic materials to gather information, discuss their findings in groups, and then present their conclusions orally or in writing. Such integrated skill development mirrors the interconnected nature of communication in real life.

Contextualization is another crucial aspect of this principle. Language is always embedded in social and cultural contexts, and CLT emphasizes that learning should reflect this reality. Classroom materials and tasks are therefore grounded in authentic, relatable situations drawn from the learners' environment. When instruction reflects learners' real communicative needs and cultural realities, it fosters engagement, relevance, and long-term retention.

Task- and context-based learning thus provides the practical framework through which the other principles of CLT—communicative competence, meaningful communication, and learner-centeredness—are enacted. It enables learners to bridge the gap between classroom language and real-world communication, preparing them to use English flexibly and appropriately beyond the academic setting.

D. CLT in Practice

While Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is grounded in robust theoretical and philosophical principles, its true significance is realized through classroom implementation. The practical dimension of CLT lies in how teachers design, deliver, and assess communicative experiences that enable learners to use English meaningfully. In practice, CLT transforms the classroom from a space of rote memorization into an environment of interaction, creativity, and collaboration, where communication itself becomes both the medium and the goal of learning.

1. Classroom Techniques

CLT advocates for classroom techniques that encourage authentic communication, active participation, and the integration of language skills. Instead of drilling isolated grammar structures, CLT promotes activities that require learners to use language purposefully to achieve specific communicative outcomes. Several widely used techniques in CLT classrooms include:

- a. **Role Plays and Simulations:** Learners assume specific roles or identities in imagined situations—such as a job interview, restaurant conversation, or doctor-patient interaction. These

activities help students practice functional language in realistic contexts, fostering confidence, spontaneity, and empathy.

- b. **Information-Gap Activities:** In these tasks, each learner possesses different pieces of information that must be shared or exchanged to complete a task. Because success depends on mutual understanding, these activities stimulate negotiation of meaning, clarification, and genuine interaction.
- c. **Problem-Solving Tasks:** Learners collaborate to resolve challenges or make decisions—such as planning a school event or proposing solutions to social issues. These tasks promote critical thinking, teamwork, and extended use of language for reasoning and persuasion.
- d. **Interviews and Surveys:** Students conduct interviews with classmates or members of the community to gather and report information. This technique not only develops questioning and listening skills but also strengthens learners' sociolinguistic awareness and confidence in real-world communication.
- e. **Group Discussions and Debates:** Group-based discussions encourage learners to articulate opinions, compare perspectives, and build arguments. Such activities integrate fluency practice with pragmatic awareness, fostering interactional competence.
- f. **Projects and Collaborative Work:** Long-term projects—such as presentations, posters, or short videos—allow students to synthesize multiple skills, conduct research, and use language creatively. Projects cultivate learner autonomy and promote ownership of learning outcomes.

Through these techniques, CLT turns the classroom into a social microcosm that mirrors real communicative life. Students are not only practicing language forms but also developing pragmatic and strategic competence necessary for authentic interaction.

2. Role of Teacher and Learner

A distinctive feature of CLT is the redefinition of traditional classroom roles. The teacher is no longer viewed as the sole authority

or transmitter of knowledge but rather as a facilitator, guide, and co-communicator. The learner, in turn, becomes an active participant, problem-solver, and meaning-maker.

The Teacher's Role

In CLT, teachers design communicative tasks, organize group interactions, and create an environment conducive to authentic language use. Their role involves:

- a. Facilitating communication by providing opportunities for meaningful interaction.
- b. Modeling and scaffolding language use through guided input and feedback.
- c. Observing and supporting learners during activities rather than dominating classroom talk.
- d. Encouraging learner autonomy by helping students take responsibility for their own progress.

The teacher's expertise is reflected not in how much they speak, but in how effectively they create communicative conditions for learners to speak, listen, and collaborate.

The Learner's Role

Learners in a CLT classroom are expected to take an active role in their learning. They:

- a. Participate in pair and group work, engaging in authentic exchanges.
- b. Use language to express ideas, negotiate meaning, and solve problems.
- c. Reflect on their learning experiences and develop self-evaluation skills.
- d. View errors not as failures but as natural elements of communication and learning.

This shift in classroom dynamics fosters learner independence, responsibility, and confidence. Students become agents of

communication, learning through interaction rather than passive observation.

3. Instructional Materials

The effectiveness of CLT depends largely on the authenticity and relevance of its learning materials. Instructional resources in a communicative classroom are selected or designed to reflect the language as it is actually used in social contexts.

- a. **Authentic Texts:** Materials such as news articles, advertisements, menus, podcasts, short videos, or social media posts expose learners to real-world English. These resources illustrate how language varies across purposes, audiences, and registers.
- b. **Media and Technology:** Multimedia tools—such as films, online platforms, and digital applications—provide interactive and multimodal input. They support listening and speaking practice while enhancing learner engagement. For example, learners may create digital stories, record podcasts, or participate in online discussions to simulate real communication.
- c. **Task-Based Resources:** Materials are designed around communicative tasks that integrate multiple skills. Rather than isolating grammar, vocabulary, or pronunciation, these resources embed form within functional use. For instance, a travel brochure task can develop reading comprehension, writing, and speaking simultaneously.

Authentic materials help learners bridge the gap between classroom and real-world communication. They also cultivate cultural awareness, exposing students to diverse ways of expressing meaning across contexts. By interacting with genuine language input, learners internalize patterns of discourse, idiomatic expressions, and pragmatic nuances that textbooks alone cannot convey.

4. Assessment

Assessment in CLT reflects the same communicative philosophy that underpins teaching and learning. Instead of focusing solely on written tests and discrete grammar points, CLT promotes performance-

based, formative, and communicative assessments that evaluate learners' ability to use language effectively in real or simulated contexts.

- a. **Performance-Based Assessment:** Learners are assessed through tasks that mirror authentic communication, such as oral presentations, debates, interviews, and role plays. These tasks measure how well learners can integrate linguistic and pragmatic skills to convey meaning.
- b. **Formative Assessment:** Continuous assessment throughout the learning process allows teachers to provide feedback and guide improvement. Observations, peer feedback, reflective journals, and teacher-student conferences are essential tools in supporting learner growth.
- c. **Communicative Assessment Tools:** Portfolios, projects, and group performances allow students to demonstrate progress over time. Portfolios, for instance, may include samples of writing, recordings of speaking tasks, or reflections on learning experiences, giving a comprehensive picture of communicative competence.

Such assessment practices align evaluation with the real goals of communication—fluency, coherence, appropriateness, and interaction—rather than narrow measures of grammatical correctness. By prioritizing process over product and performance over perfection, communicative assessment reinforces the learner-centered, holistic ethos of CLT.

E. Advantages of CLT

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) has transformed the landscape of English language education by shifting the emphasis from rote learning and grammatical accuracy to meaningful communication and learner engagement. Its success lies not only in its theoretical strength but also in its pedagogical practicality, as it addresses both the cognitive and affective needs of learners. CLT promotes learning environments that mirror real-life communication, where students use

language to express meaning, interact with others, and solve problems collaboratively.

1. Enhances Learner Motivation and Confidence

One of the most significant advantages of CLT is its ability to motivate learners and build their confidence in using the target language. Unlike traditional approaches that prioritize memorization and error avoidance, CLT fosters a supportive atmosphere where communication takes precedence over perfection. Learners are encouraged to express themselves freely, take risks, and use language as a tool for meaning-making rather than as a rigid system of rules.

Because CLT activities—such as role plays, discussions, and collaborative tasks—are interactive and personally relevant, they enhance intrinsic motivation. Students find purpose and enjoyment in communicating about topics that connect with their lives, experiences, and interests. This personal engagement stimulates a sense of ownership and self-efficacy in learning.

Moreover, the communicative classroom values fluency and effort over flawless grammar, helping learners overcome the fear of making mistakes. As learners participate in authentic exchanges and receive constructive feedback, they gradually develop confidence in their ability to use English spontaneously. This growing self-assurance encourages continuous practice and sustains long-term language development.

In essence, CLT transforms the classroom into a safe and empowering environment where students feel respected as communicators, thereby enhancing both motivation and confidence—two psychological factors crucial to successful language acquisition.

2. Promotes Fluency and Real-World Communication Skills

CLT places strong emphasis on developing fluency and real-world communicative ability, positioning language learning within the context of authentic use. Learners are trained not merely to know about the language but to use it functionally—to convey information, express opinions, persuade, and collaborate effectively.

Through communicative tasks such as problem-solving, interviews, and simulations, students experience language as a living medium of interaction. These activities replicate real-life situations—ordering food, asking for directions, negotiating agreements—enabling learners to practice practical and context-sensitive language use. Over time, this exposure leads to automaticity, or the ability to produce language smoothly without excessive focus on form.

Furthermore, CLT equips learners with essential pragmatic and intercultural communication skills. They learn how to adjust tone, register, and politeness according to different audiences and situations, which is vital for effective communication in multicultural contexts. This skill is especially important in the 21st century, where English serves as a global *lingua franca*.

By bridging the gap between classroom learning and real-world communication, CLT helps learners become competent, confident, and contextually aware language users capable of navigating academic, social, and professional interactions effectively.

3. Integrates Language Skills Naturally

A defining feature of CLT is its holistic integration of the four language skills—listening, speaking, reading, and writing—within meaningful communicative contexts. Traditional methods often isolated these skills, teaching grammar, pronunciation, and writing as separate components. In contrast, CLT recognizes that language use in real life requires multiple skills to operate simultaneously and interdependently. For example, a classroom project may involve reading authentic sources to gather information, discussing findings with peers, and presenting results orally or in written form. Such tasks reflect how language functions in everyday communication, where comprehension, production, and interaction are interconnected.

This integrated-skill approach promotes balanced language development. Listening and reading provide input that enhances comprehension and vocabulary growth, while speaking and writing enable active production and language consolidation. The combination of receptive and productive skills ensures that learners can not only understand but also use English effectively across modes and contexts.

Moreover, integrating skills fosters deeper cognitive engagement. Learners process and apply knowledge dynamically rather than through rote memorization. This approach not only strengthens linguistic competence but also cultivates flexibility and adaptability—qualities essential for communicative success in academic and professional settings.

4. Encourages Critical Thinking and Collaboration

CLT extends beyond linguistic competence to support broader educational goals such as critical thinking, creativity, and collaboration. Because communicative activities often involve authentic problems, debates, and decision-making tasks, learners must analyze information, evaluate perspectives, and articulate reasoned arguments in English. For instance, in group discussions or project-based learning, students negotiate meaning, defend viewpoints, and synthesize ideas collectively. Such activities naturally foster higher-order thinking skills as learners engage in comparing, hypothesizing, evaluating, and problem-solving. In this sense, CLT not only teaches students how to communicate but also how to think critically and creatively through language.

Collaboration is another key outcome of communicative classrooms. CLT tasks typically involve pair work and group work, which require learners to listen actively, take turns, and build upon each other's contributions. These interactions nurture interpersonal skills, empathy, and respect for diverse opinions—competencies that are essential for participation in democratic and multicultural societies.

Furthermore, collaborative learning reduces learner anxiety and builds a sense of community. When students share responsibility for completing a task, they learn to value teamwork and collective achievement. Thus, CLT serves as a pedagogical model that integrates language learning with social and cognitive development, preparing learners to engage meaningfully in both local and global contexts.

F. Challenges and Limitations

Although Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) has been widely recognized as one of the most influential and effective

approaches in modern language education, its implementation in many EFL (English as a Foreign Language) contexts—particularly in developing countries such as Indonesia—remains complex and challenging. While the approach offers significant pedagogical advantages, several contextual, institutional, and cultural factors often hinder its optimal application.

1. Contextual Constraints

One of the most pressing challenges in implementing CLT is the contextual limitation of the teaching and learning environment. In many EFL settings, large class sizes, limited exposure to English outside the classroom, and examination-oriented educational systems significantly restrict opportunities for authentic communication.

Large Class Sizes

In overcrowded classrooms—often consisting of 30 to 50 students or more—teachers find it difficult to facilitate meaningful interaction, monitor individual progress, or provide personalized feedback. Group discussions and pair work, which are central to CLT, become difficult to manage effectively when physical space, time, and classroom resources are limited.

Limited Exposure to English

For many learners in non-English-speaking countries, the classroom is the only setting where they use or hear English. Without sufficient exposure to authentic input, opportunities for practicing communication remain minimal. This lack of linguistic environment limits the natural development of fluency, pragmatic awareness, and intercultural competence—the very skills that CLT aims to promote.

Examination-Oriented Systems

Another contextual constraint is the dominance of test-driven education systems. National examinations often emphasize grammar accuracy, reading comprehension, and vocabulary recall, leaving little room for assessing communicative competence. As a result, teachers tend to prioritize test preparation over communicative activities,

leading to a mismatch between curriculum policy and classroom practice.

These contextual barriers demonstrate that the successful implementation of CLT requires not only pedagogical innovation but also systemic educational reform, including smaller class ratios, improved exposure to authentic materials, and more communicative forms of assessment.

2. Teacher Preparedness

A second major challenge lies in the readiness and professional capacity of teachers to implement CLT principles effectively. Many teachers, particularly in EFL contexts, have been trained under traditional, teacher-centered pedagogies and may lack the theoretical understanding or practical experience needed to manage communicative classrooms.

Lack of Training in Communicative Methodologies

In many teacher education programs, the focus remains on linguistic theory and grammar instruction rather than on interactive teaching methodologies. As a result, teachers may feel uncertain about how to design communicative tasks, facilitate group activities, or assess communicative performance. This leads to superficial adoption of CLT, where teachers claim to use communicative methods but still rely heavily on lecture-based instruction and grammar translation.

Classroom Management and Resource Challenges

Implementing CLT also requires skills in classroom management, differentiation, and material adaptation—areas in which many teachers receive limited training. Without appropriate guidance or support, teachers may perceive communicative activities as time-consuming, chaotic, or incompatible with curricular demands.

To address these issues, continuous professional development, mentoring, and peer collaboration are essential. Teachers need structured opportunities to observe, reflect, and experiment with communicative techniques in real classrooms, supported by

institutional leadership that values innovation and learner-centered pedagogy.

3. Cultural Factors

Cultural attitudes toward education and classroom interaction can also pose challenges to the implementation of CLT. In many Asian contexts, including Indonesia, deeply rooted educational traditions emphasize teacher authority, respect for hierarchy, and accuracy over fluency. These values often conflict with the learner-centered, interactive, and exploratory nature of communicative teaching.

Learner Reticence

Learner reticence refers to the hesitation or unwillingness of students to participate actively in classroom interactions, particularly in settings that emphasize communication and collaboration. This phenomenon is often observed among learners who have been shaped by traditional, teacher-centered educational systems, where students are expected to listen and absorb information rather than engage in dialogue. Such students may feel anxious about speaking up, afraid of making mistakes, or worried about being judged by their peers. Additionally, cultural norms that emphasize respect for authority can further discourage students from questioning or challenging their teachers, reinforcing their passive learning habits.

In communicative or student-centered classrooms, however, such reticence poses a significant challenge. Since these learning environments rely heavily on participation, discussion, and interactive tasks, hesitant learners may contribute less, reducing opportunities for authentic communication and language development. Teachers, therefore, must recognize and address this reluctance by creating a supportive atmosphere that values effort over perfection. Encouraging peer collaboration, providing positive feedback, and modeling open communication can gradually help students overcome their fear and build confidence to express themselves more freely in class.

Teacher-Centered Traditions

Similarly, many teachers—shaped by traditional educational paradigms—believe that effective teaching means maintaining control, providing explicit explanations, and correcting errors immediately. Such beliefs can conflict with CLT's emphasis on learner autonomy, discovery learning, and tolerance for errors as part of the communication process.

Cultural Adaptation of CLT

However, these cultural constraints do not imply that CLT is incompatible with Asian or Indonesian contexts. Rather, they highlight the need for context-sensitive adaptation. Teachers can design communicative activities that respect local norms of politeness, collectivism, and classroom hierarchy while still promoting authentic interaction. Blending CLT principles with culturally appropriate teaching practices—sometimes referred to as “*localized CLT*”—can make the approach more sustainable and meaningful for learners and teachers alike.

4. Evaluation Issues

Assessment remains one of the most persistent challenges in implementing CLT. Because communicative competence is multidimensional—encompassing fluency, appropriateness, coherence, and strategy use—it is difficult to measure objectively using traditional testing formats.

Limitations of Standardized Tests

Conventional language assessments often focus on discrete linguistic items such as grammar, vocabulary, and reading comprehension. These tests fail to capture learners' ability to negotiate meaning, manage interaction, or produce extended discourse—skills central to communicative proficiency. Consequently, teachers feel pressure to “teach to the test,” prioritizing accuracy over fluency.

Challenges of Performance-Based Assessment

While performance-based tools such as oral presentations, role plays, and portfolios align better with CLT principles, they present practical challenges. Assessing such performances requires clear rubrics, time, and trained evaluators capable of judging qualitative aspects of communication. In large classes, it is often unrealistic for teachers to conduct individualized communicative assessments effectively.

To address these difficulties, assessment systems must evolve to include holistic and formative approaches that emphasize communicative effectiveness rather than linguistic perfection. Incorporating peer assessment, self-reflection, and task-based evaluation can provide richer insights into learners' communicative growth while reducing teacher workload.



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CHAPTER 15: TASK-BASED LANGUAGE TEACHING - TBLT



A. Definitions TBLT (Task-Based Language Teaching)

1. General Definition

Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT)

“Task-based language teaching (TBLT) is an approach based on the use of tasks as the core unit of planning and instruction in language teaching.” (Richards & Rodgers, 2014)

Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) is an approach in language teaching that uses real-world communicative tasks as the main basis for material preparation, lesson planning, and the implementation of the teaching-learning process.

TBLT focuses on the use of language as a tool to complete a task, not just on explicitly learning the forms of the language. In this approach, students learn the language through active engagement in meaningful task completion, making the learning process more contextual and natural.

2. Definitions from the Figures

- a. Rod Ellis (2003), “TBLT is an approach to language teaching that involves learners in real communication, in order to carry out meaningful tasks, using the target language.”

Meaning: Ellis emphasizes that language learning should be based on real communication. Tasks in TBLT encourage students to use the target language in authentic situations.

- b. David Nunan (2004), “A task is a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is focused on meaning rather than form.”

Meaning: According to Nunan, tasks are classroom activities that encourage students to use language actively to achieve meaning, not just to study grammar.

- c. Jane Willis (1996), “Tasks are activities where the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose in order to achieve an outcome.”

Meaning: Jane Willis emphasizes that tasks must have a real communicative purpose and a clear final outcome.

- d. Jack C. Richards & Theodore S. Rodgers (2014), “Task-based language teaching refers to an approach based on the use of tasks as the core unit of planning and instruction in language teaching.”

Meaning: Richards and Rodgers emphasize that tasks in TBLT are not just aids, but the core of the entire planning and implementation of language teaching.

3. Main Characteristics of TBLT Understanding

Table 15. 1 Main Characteristics of TBLT Understanding

Characteristic	Explanation
Task-Based	Students learn through tasks, not just structural exercises.
Focus on Meaning	The main focus is on understanding and conveying meaning, not just grammar.
Authentic Language Use	Students use language for real purposes, similar to everyday life.
Contextual and Functional	Language is learned in the context of its actual use.
Student-Centered	TBLT demands active participation and learning responsibility from students.

4. Comparison of TBLT with Traditional Approach

Table 15. 2 Comparison of TBLT with Traditional Approach

Aspect	Traditional Approach	TBLT
Focus	Language Structure	Language Use
Role of the Teacher	Dominant	Facilitator
Activity	Structured exercise	Communicative task
Skills	Usually separate (listening, speaking, etc.)	Integrated into tasks

Assessment	Grammar/vocabulary test Task	performance assessment
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B. Main Characteristics of Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT)

1. Focus on Meaning Rather than Form

“Tasks involve learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning.”— Nunan (2004: 4)

2. Task as Core Unit of Instruction

“Task-based language teaching refers to an approach based on the use of tasks as the core unit of planning and instruction in language teaching.”— Richards & Rodgers (2014: 174)

3. Authentic and Contextual Language Use

“Tasks are activities where the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose (goal) in order to achieve an outcome.”— Willis (1996: 23)

4. Process-Oriented Learning

“Tasks provide a context for meaningful communication, and learners acquire language through the process of completing them.”— Ellis (2003: 9)

5. Learner-Centered Instruction

“TBLT fosters autonomy and collaborative learning by allowing learners to take responsibility for how they accomplish tasks.”— Littlewood (2007: 244)

6. (Integrated Language Skills)

“Tasks are designed to integrate language skills, reflecting how language is used in real communication.”— Nunan (2004: 2)

7. Fluency dan Accuracy

“Tasks promote fluency during performance and create opportunities for accuracy-focused feedback afterward.”— Skehan (1998: 126)

Table 15. 3 Summary of TBLT Characteristics

No	Main Features of TBLT	Characters	Year
1	Focus on meaning	Nunan	2004
2	Assignment as the core of learning	Richards & Rodgers	2014
3	The use of authentic language	Willis	1996
4	The process of natural communication	Ellis	2003
5	Student-centered learning	Littlewood	2007
6	Integration of language skills	Nunan	2004
7	Combination of fluency and accuracy	Skehan	1998

C. Task Types In Task-Based Language Teaching

1. Classification of Task Types according to Jane Willis (1996)

Willis (1996) categorized tasks into six categories based on their communicative function:

Table 15. 4 Classification of Task Types according to Jane Willis (1996)

No	Type of Task	Explanation
1	Listing	Students make lists, such as lists of ideas, opinions, or things related to a specific topic. <i>example</i> "List all the items you need for a picnic."
2	Ordering and Sorting	Students sort, group, or categorize information. <i>example</i> "Rank five tourist destinations from most to least popular."
3	Comparing	Students compare two or more objects/situations to find similarities and differences. <i>example</i> "Compare two hotels based on price, location, and facilities."
4	Problem Solving	Students solve problems using logic and teamwork. <i>example:</i> "Plan a vacation with a limited budget."

5	Sharing Personal Experiences	Students share personal experiences, opinions, or stories. <i>example: "Describe your most memorable trip."</i>
6	Creative Tasks / Projects	Students create something together, for example, making brochures, designing advertisements, or writing stories. <i>example: "Create a travel brochure for your town."</i>

2. Classification of Task Types according to Rod Ellis (2003)

Ellis (2003) classifying tasks into two major categories:

a. Pedagogic Tasks

Tasks specifically designed for language learning purposes do not always reflect the real world. Example: Describing sequential pictures, Completing a story

b. Real-World (Target) Tasks

Assignments that reflect real-world activities and allow students to use language appropriately outside the classroom. Example: Writing a hotel reservation email, Giving directions

3. Classification of Task Types according to David Nunan (2004)

Nunan (2004) distinguishes tasks based on their complexity:

Table 15. 5 Classification of Task Types according to David Nunan (2004)

Type	Description
Rehearsal Tasks	Simulation of real-life situations, such as conducting a job interview.
Activation Tasks	Encouraging students to use the language they have mastered in meaningful contexts.
Information-Gap Tasks	Students share information with each other to complete tasks.
Opinion-Gap Tasks	Students share and discuss personal opinions.
Reasoning-Gap 3. Tasks	Students use logic to draw conclusions from the given data.

4. Example of Tasks Based on Categories

Table 15. 6 Example of Tasks Based on Categories

Category	Example Task
Listing (Willis)	List things to pack for a beach holiday
Problem Solving (Willis)	Plan a school field trip within a budget
Real-World Task (Ellis)	Book a hotel room via phone call
Rehearsal Task (Nunan)	Practice a job interview
Information-Gap	Describe a picture your partner can't see
Opinion-Gap	Discuss: "Is ecotourism sustainable?"

5. Task Design Principles

According to Skehan (1998), tasks in TBLT should meet three criteria:

- a. Meaning is primary: Focus on conveying meaning.
- b. There is a goal or outcome: There is a result that can be achieved.
- c. Language use reflects real-world processes: Language is used as it is in real life.

D. Task Implementation In Efl Classroom

- 1. The Purpose of Task Implementation in EFL Classes
According to Ellis (2003), the implementation of tasks in TBLT aims to:
 - a. Provide authentic opportunities to use the target language (English)
 - b. Developing students' communicative competence
 - c. Improving critical thinking and collaboration skills
- 2. The Three Main Stages in Task Implementation (Willis, 1996)
Jane Willis (1996) developed a task implementation model in 3 stages:
 - a. Pre-Task (Before the Task)

To prepare students linguistically and thematically

Activity:

- The teacher introduces the topic
- Showing examples of similar tasks
- Activating prior knowledge (schema activation)

Example activities: brainstorming, vocabulary introduction

b. Task Cycle

The core stage where students carry out tasks independently or in pairs/groups

Table 15. 7 Task Cycle

Sub-stage	Explanation
Task	Students complete tasks without grammatical pressure.
Planning	Focus on fluency.
Report	Students prepare task reports orally/written. Students present the results of their assignments to the class or other groups. The focus is starting to shift towards accuracy.

c. Language Focus

Purpose: Reflection and analysis of emerging language forms

Activity: Grammar consciousness-raising, o Practice or drilling (contextually), Error correction (communicatively).

3. The Role of Teachers in Task Implementation(Nunan, 2004)

According to Nunan (2004), the teacher plays the role of:

- a. Facilitator: Designing and guiding tasks with the principle of scaffolding
- b. Observer: Observing and noting students' needs during the task
- c. Language Advisor: Providing feedback at the end of the activity
- b. Evaluator: Assess the results in terms of fluency, accuracy, and collaboration

4. The Role of Students in TBLT
 - a. Actively participate in tasks
 - b. Interact collaboratively
 - c. Taking responsibility for the learning process
 - d. Practicing language skills in real situations
5. Principles of Task Design in EFL Classrooms (Skehan, 1998; Ellis, 2003)

Table 15. 8 Principles of Task Design in EFL Classrooms

Principle	Explanation
Meaning is primary	The task focuses on understanding and conveying meaning, not just form.
There is a goal or outcome	There is a final product or concrete result from the task.
Real-world relevance	The task reflects the use of language outside the classroom.
Learner-centered	Students actively determine the direction of their learning.
Task authenticity	Task of imitating real activities

6. Examples of Task Implementation in EFL Classes

Table 15. 9 Examples of Task Implementation in EFL Classes

Stage	Example Activity	Objective
Pre-task	Students watch a video about "Making a Reservation"	Activation of topics and vocabulary
Task	Students pair up to role-play as hotel customers and receptionists.	Authentic
Planning	Students rewrite their dialogue in the form of a booking email.	communication Transference
Report	The group presents the order email to the class.	Practice accuracy

Language Focus	The teacher highlights the structure "I would like to..." and polite expressions.	Language focus
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7. Task Evaluation Techniques

According to Richards & Rodgers (2014), evaluation can be conducted through:

Table 15. 10 Task Evaluation Techniques

Technique	Focus
Peer assessment	Collaboration and social skills
Rubrik kinerja	Fluency, accuracy, interaction
Portfolio	Student progress and reflection
Observasi guru	Communication and participation strategies

E. Task Assessment Rubric In Tblt

1. Understanding the Assessment Rubric in TBLT

According to Brown (2004):

"Rubrics are scoring guides that evaluate performance based on a set of criteria and standards linked to learning objectives."

2. The Purpose of the Assessment Rubric in TBLT

According to Ellis (2003) and Nunan (2004), the purpose of using rubrics in task-based learning is Providing structured feedback to students, Ensuring fairness in assessment, Aligning assessments with task objectives and learning outcomes, Facilitating teachers in assessing efficiently and systematically.

3. Main Components of the Task Assessment Rubric (Skehan, 1998; Willis, 1996)

The task assessment rubric in TBLT generally includes the following components:

Table 15. 11 Main Components of the Task Assessment Rubric

Component	Explanation
Task Completion	Did the students complete the tasks according to the instructions and achieve the communication goals?
Fluency	Fluency in speaking or writing without many pauses or doubts
Accuracy	The use of correct grammar, vocabulary, and language .
Complexity	The diversity and depth of the language structures used.
Interaction/Collaboration	The ability to interact and collaborate (in paired or group tasks) (for oral tasks)
Pronunciation/Delivery	Clarity of pronunciation and intonation

4. Example Template for TBLT Task Assessment Rubric (School/University Level)

Here is an example of an analytical rubric used for oral or written tasks:
Oral Task Assessment Rubric

Table 15. 12 Example Template for TBLT Task Assessment Rubric

Criteria	4(Very Good)	3 (Good)	2 (Satisfactory)	1 (Poor)
Task Completion	Tugas diselesaikan sepenuhnya dan sangat sesuai dengan tujuan	Sebagian besar tugas selesai dengan baik	Tugas hanya sebagian selesai	Tugas tidak selesai
Fluency	The task is fully	Most of the task	The task is only	The task is not

	completed and very much aligned with the objectives.	is complete d well.	partially completed.	completed .
Accuracy	Almost without grammar and vocabulary	errors Some minor mistakes	Quite disturbing errors	Many mistakes
Complexity	Using varied structures and vocabulary	Structure s are quite varied	Simple and limited	structures Very limited
Pronunciati on	Pronunciati on is clear and accurate.	Fairly clear with minor mistakes.	Not very clear.	Difficult to understand.

Written Task Assessment Rubric

Table 15. 13 Written Task Assessment Rubric

Criteria	4	3	2	1
Organizat ion	Ideas are logically arranged with clear transitions.	The structure is quite good.	The structu re is somew hat chaotic.	Not structur ed.
Content	Relevant, in- depth, and on- topic content.	Somewhat relevant content.	Less relevan t content .	Irreleva nt content.
Accuracy	Almost no grammar/vocab ulary mistakes	Some minor mistakes	Quite a few mistake s	A lot of mistake s

Vocabulary	Varied and precise vocabulary	Quite precise vocabulary	Limited and repetitive	Incorrect and limited
Mechanics	Almost no spelling/punctuation errors	Some spelling/punctuation errors	A few errors	Many errors

5. Strategy for Using Rubrics in TBLT Classes (Richards & Rodgers, 2014)

- Provide a rubric at the beginning: so that students know what is being assessed.
- Use it as formative feedback: for development, not just the final grade.
- Conduct self-assessment and peer-assessment: encourage reflection and learning responsibility.
- Discuss the assessment results: help students understand their strengths and areas that need improvement.

6. Steps In The Implementation Of TBLT

Summary of TBLT Steps according to Willis (1996)

Table 15. 14 Steps In The Implementation Of TBLT

Stages	Description of Student	Teacher's Role
Pre-task	Listening, taking notes, initial discussion	Giving instructions, guiding
Task	Doing tasks in groups/teams	Observing and assisting
Planning	Preparing the task report	Providing language support
Report	Presenting the results to the class	Giving light feedback Teaching

Language Focus	Analysis of Language Forms	grammar contextually
Practice	Practice the language forms being learned	Providing structural exercises

Example of TBLT Implementation in TEFL Class

Table 15. 15 Example of TBLT Implementation in TEFL Class

Stage	Activity	Description
Pre-task	Discussion topic: "Traveling Abroad"	Activation of vocabulary and experience
Task	Planning a trip to a foreign country	Students work in groups to create a travel plan.
Planning	Preparing the presentation	Students prepare a way to present the plan.
Report	Presentation of the travel itinerary	Students present their ideas to the class.
Language Focus	Grammar and vocabulary analysis	The teacher highlights the phrases or sentence structures used by the students.

F. The Advantages Of Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT)

The Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) approach is a method of learning English that focuses on the use of communicative tasks that reflect real-world language use. This approach developed in response to the limitations of form-focused instruction.

1. Authenticity of Language and Real Context

Tasks in TBLT reflect the use of language in real-life situations. This helps students develop more relevant and applicable language skills.

Figures & Year:

- Ellis (2003): States that tasks in TBLT encourage the authentic use of language in meaningful contexts.
- Nunan (2004): Emphasizes that TBLT allows students to use language authentically in various social contexts.

2. Improving Fluency and Confidence

TBLT encourages students to communicate freely without worrying too much about structural errors, which in turn enhances fluency and confidence.

Figures & Year:

- Willis (1996): Explains that through the task cycle, students have time to use the language spontaneously and independently.
- Long (1985): Argued that TBLT is better at building fluency compared to traditional approaches.

3. Enhancing Critical and Collaborative Thinking Skills

Through complex and open-ended tasks, students are challenged to make decisions, solve problems, and collaborate in groups.

Figures & Year:

- Skehan (1998): Proposed that tasks in TBLT can enhance higher-order thinking skills.
- Richards & Rodgers (2001): Explain that TBLT provides space for learners to develop soft skills such as teamwork and problem-solving.

4. Learner-Centered Learning

TBLT encourages students to be active in the learning process through language exploration and task responsibility.

Figures & Year:

5. Nunan (1989): States that TBLT provides autonomy to students and enhances their intrinsic motivation.

6. Littlewood (2004): Emphasizes that the task-based approach creates space for students to take control of their learning.
5. Focus on Meaning Before Form

Instead of starting from grammatical forms, TBLT emphasizes the use of language to convey meaning first, and then focuses on form.

Figures & Year:

- Long (1985): Introduced the concept of focus on form, which is the learning of language forms in the context of meaningful communication.
- Ellis (2006): Emphasizes the importance of form focus after meaningful use through tasks.

5. Flexibility in Curriculum Design

TBLT can be adapted to various levels, needs, and learning contexts. Tasks can be adjusted to the topics and interests of the students.

Figures & Year:

- Bygate, Skehan, & Swain (2001): Tasks can be monologic, dialogic, interactive, or integrated.
- Robinson (2001): Designing task models based on cognitive complexity that can be adjusted to the students' level.

Table 15. 16 Summary of TBLT Advantages

No	Advantages	Related Figures	Year
1	Authenticity and real context	Ellis, Nunan	2003, 2004
2	Improving fluency	Willis, Long	1996, 1985
3	Improving critical thinking	Skehan, Richards & Rodgers	1998, 2001
4	Student-centered	Nunan, Littlewood	1989, 2004

5	Meaning-focused learning	Long, Ellis	1985, 2006
6	Curriculum flexibility	Bygate, Robinson	2001

G. Challenges in the Implementation of Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT)

Although TBLT offers a student-centered approach based on real tasks, its implementation in EFL (English as a Foreign Language) classrooms faces various challenges. Here are some of the main challenges identified by experts:

1. Lack of Training and Support for Teachers Lack of Training and Support for Teachers, Many teachers have not received adequate training in designing and implementing TBLT tasks, so they feel less confident in applying them.

Figures & Year:

- Carless (2007): Emphasizes that teachers require ongoing training to understand and effectively implement TBLT.
- Ellis (2003): States that without a deep understanding, teachers tend to revert to traditional teaching methods.

2. Resource and Infrastructure Limitations Limited Resources and Infrastructure, The implementation of TBLT requires supporting materials and facilities, such as flexible classrooms and adequate technology.

Figures & Year:

- East (2019): States that the lack of resources is the main obstacle in the implementation of TBLT.
- Harris (2018): Emphasizes the importance of institutional support in providing the necessary resources.

3. Traditional Educational Culture In many contexts, the teaching approach is still teacher-centered and exam-oriented, which contradicts the principles of TBLT.

Figures & Year:

- Littlewood (2007): Observed that the teacher-centered and exam-oriented learning culture poses a challenge in the implementation of TBLT in East Asia.
 - Carless (2004): States that resistance to changes in teaching methodology can hinder the implementation of TBLT.
4. Large Class Sizes and Classroom Management Classes with a large number of students make it difficult for teachers to monitor and guide each group effectively during task implementation.

Figures & Year:

- Ellis (2003): States that large class sizes can reduce the effectiveness of interaction in TBLT.
 - Carless (2002): Observed that in the context of large classes, teachers tend to revert to traditional teaching methods.
5. Limitations of Students' Language Proficiency
Students with low language proficiency may find it difficult to complete TBLT tasks that require active language use.

Figures & Year:

- Littlewood (2004): States that beginner students require additional support to succeed in TBLT.
- Skehan (1998): Emphasizes the importance of adjusting task complexity according to students' abilities.

H. Recommendations for TBLT Implementation Strategies

1. Conduct a Student Language Needs Analysis

Before designing tasks, teachers need to conduct a needs analysis to understand the students' language proficiency levels, interests and backgrounds, learning objectives, and the context of language use.

"A successful TBLT program must begin with a thorough analysis of learners' communicative needs to ensure task relevance."
(Nunan, 2004: 20)

Strategy:

- Use questionnaires or interviews to assess needs.
 - Involve students in the task planning process (learner involvement).
2. Use Authentic and Meaningful Task Design Tasks in TBLT must:
- Represent real-world situations (real-world tasks),
 - Motivating students to use the language naturally,
 - Emphasizing communication and problem-solving.

"Tasks should simulate real-life language use and provide learners with purposeful interaction."(Willis & Willis, 2007, p. 5)

Strategy:

- Use tasks such as: interviews, event planning, video creation, problem-solving.
 - Avoid tasks that only focus on the repetition of grammatical structures.
3. Design a Three-Stage Task-Based Learning Structure According to Ellis (2003), the ideal TBLT learning consists of three phases:
- Pre-task: Preparing students with context and vocabulary.
 - Task cycle (during-task): Students complete the task independently or in groups.
 - Post-task: Feedback, discussion of grammar/vocabulary, or follow-up.

"The three-phase structure enhances focus on meaning, fluency, and accuracy in a balanced way."(Ellis, 2003, p. 243)

4. Provide Formative Feedback, Not Just Corrections Teachers need to provide formative feedback that supports the learning process, not just pointing out mistakes.

"Feedback in TBLT should be supportive, aiming to encourage learners and promote noticing of language forms."(Long, 2015, p. 103)

Strategy:

- Conduct a reflection with students after the assignment.
- Use peer feedback and self-assessment.

5. Integrate Authentic Assessment

TBLT demands performance-based assessment.

"Assessment in TBLT must align with the task approach itself, involving authentic performance and real-life communication."
(Estaire & Zanon, 1994, p. 33)

Strategy:

- Use performance assessment rubrics for speaking, writing, etc.
- Evaluate the process and product of the task.

6. Provide Training for Teachers

To successfully implement TBLT, teachers need to understand:

- The basic principles of TBLT,
- Task-based classroom management techniques,
- Assessment and reflection strategies.

"Teacher training is crucial to ensure effective task-based instruction and shift from traditional approaches." (Carless, 2007, p. 597)

Strategy: Hold workshops, training, and communities of practice for teachers.



16

CHAPTER 16: CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT



A. The Definition of Classroom Management

Classroom management is essential for establishing an environment that fosters effective learning, encourages students, and enhances the overall quality of education. To achieve that, the educator must understand every facet of classroom management (Sulaiman, 2018). Classroom management encompasses everything a teacher undertakes to arrange students, space, time, and resources to facilitate student learning. Classroom management is also described as any measure a teacher implements to establish an environment that nurtures and promotes both academic and social-emotional learning.

Effective classroom management can be affected by various factors, as noted by Arikunto (1986:70). He mentioned that two factors affect classroom management: physical management and management related to students. Arikunto also emphasizes that there are various aspects that need to be considered for managing an effective classroom. They comprise:

1. A class is an organized system designed for a specific purpose, involving tasks and guided by a teacher.
2. A teacher serves as a mentor and an example for every student in the classroom.
3. A classroom group often exhibits a distinct attitude that can differ from those of other groups or individuals. Consequently, every group activity in the classroom requires focus.
4. The collective in the classroom significantly impacts each person as well as the group members. A teacher should cultivate a positive influence and diminish negative influence by providing guidance.
5. The teacher's skill in effectively managing individuals within a group will significantly enhance individual satisfaction in the classroom.
6. The teacher's capability as a unifying figure in the classroom influences the structure of group work, the nature of communication within the group, and the cohesiveness of the group efforts. (Gultom & Saun, 2016)

Classroom management encompasses the various actions a teacher takes to structure students, environment, time, and resources to facilitate student learning. Teachers who implement an effective management system early in the school year will have additional time to focus on student learning compared to those who are perpetually attempting to utilize an ineffective management system Wong, Wont, Rogers, and Brooks. Classroom management is described as any step a teacher takes to foster an environment that enhances both academic and social-emotional learning. (Rahayu, 2022)

Classroom management is generally understood as the teacher's efforts to regulate the classroom atmosphere to attain positive outcomes in both academic and social learning. Macías and Sánchez (2015) described classroom management as the practice of organizing the classroom atmosphere to effectively facilitate the learning process. Classroom management refers to the approach used to guarantee that lessons proceed effectively without interruptions caused by students that hinder instructional delivery. Therefore, as previously stated, classroom management pertains to any measures implemented by teachers to create a learning environment that encourages positive social interactions, active involvement in learning, and self-driven motivation (Burden, 2020). Thus, classroom management encompasses the diverse skills and techniques that educators employ to ensure students are “organized, disciplined, focused, engaged, and academically successful in the classroom” (Babadjanova, 2020, p. 281). In conclusion, effective classroom management indicates the effectiveness of teaching and learning, affecting not only students' academic performance but also their social development. Therefore, efficient classroom management aids in efficient instruction (Purwanti & Vania, 2021).

B. The Multicultural Classroom

During their internship's teaching practice, pre-service teachers frequently encounter challenges, particularly if it's their initial experience teaching in a real classroom setting. Under this condition, the pre-service teachers must exert more effort to address the challenges. Certain challenges may arise during the process of teaching and learning. Brown (2007) outlined the challenges, including: experiencing anxiety,

dealing with disruptive students in class, encountering unexpected questions from students, facing unforeseen scenarios during the teaching and learning process, insufficient experience, and limited time. Additionally, Irawati and Listyani (2020) noted that educators in rural settings encountered “behavioral issues,” leading to student misbehavior, including disrespecting teachers, dozing off in class, daydreaming, and using various profanity. Ultimately, the challenges faced by pre-service teachers are likely linked to students’ low motivation, limited English proficiency, and the pre-service teachers’ insufficient classroom management abilities (Rozimela, 2016) (Purwanti & Vania, 2021).

In her review article, Pane (2010), an American scholar, investigates classroom management in diverse classrooms within urban schools across the United States. This study emphasizes the necessity for educators to comprehend their own identities as well as those of their students to fully grasp their inclinations and differences. With this understanding, Pane asserts that it is crucial for teachers to incorporate students’ home environments into the school setting to address issues proactively. The author refers to Lave and Wenger’s (1991, as cited in Pane, 2010) theory of communities of practice as a valuable conceptual framework that can assist educators in effectively managing their students while simultaneously enhancing their own social and professional expertise. Within this theoretical framework, she emphasizes that understanding and communication are shaped socially by individuals engaged in a process of development. Therefore, the classroom serves as a space for interaction and the creation of meaning, grounded in the principle of actively acknowledging everyone’s background in the communication of ideas.

In their examination of studies that explore how race and ethnic identity influence teacher behavior in the classroom, American researchers Gregory et al indicate that students from black, Latino, and Indian backgrounds face a higher likelihood of being removed from the classroom for exhibiting inappropriate behavior. Furthermore, the authors argue that this could be a factor in the lower academic performance of these students and assert that addressing issues related to race and culture is essential for altering this unequal treatment. Greg-

ory et al (2010) cite Gregory and Weinstein (2008) to highlight that educators who show concern and set expectations were successful in building trust and fostering positive collaboration with black students.

Based on their research involving two educators in diverse classrooms, Milner and Tenore (2010) assert that teachers who possess self-awareness and an understanding of their students lay the groundwork for strong relationships. One participant in the research emphasizes the necessity of recognizing the dynamics of power among students, suggesting that this awareness can guide those who hold power to apply it positively, fostering a commitment to learning within the classroom. The findings reveal that teachers provide students with perspectives about their own lives through personal storytelling, and that they should strive to comprehend their identities in relation to the students, their families, and the broader student community. Additionally, the teachers involved in the study express the significance of recognizing students as integral members of a larger school community, meaning that they belong to all educators. The school hallways emerged as a vital space, similar to the classroom, for nurturing and developing positive connections. In their overall analysis, the researchers conclude that the primary responsibility of teachers within schools is to facilitate learning experiences for students rather than to exert control over them (Postholm, 2013).

C. Classroom Behaviour Management

Even though the great majority of student misconduct is low-level, such as talking out of turn and acting off-task, research shows that these disruptions have a significant negative impact on the learning environment and lower student engagement while also contributing significantly to teacher stress and self-efficacy (Clunies-Ross, Little & Kienhuis, 2008). Consequently, both academic success and the well-being of teachers depend on efficient behavior management techniques. A delicate balance between regulations, enjoyment, and exploration is necessary to create a pleasant school environment. In order to guarantee that learning takes place effectively, misbehaviors are mostly avoided (McInerney & McInerney, 2002). Although discipline is a part

of classroom management, it is better to have strong teacher leadership and careful preparation that aims to stop or lessen misbehaviors.

An effective teaching method to boost student engagement by reducing misbehaviors is the Positive Learning Framework (PLF), which employs a three-phase model of prevention through self-awareness and management, lesson design, and corrective action plans (McDonald, 2013). According to the PLF, teachers are in charge of establishing a secure and encouraging learning environment in the classroom, where the social and physical components of instruction have been carefully considered before the pupils ever walk in. Prevention encompasses factors including group assignments, classroom displays, and seating arrangements in addition to having a thorough awareness of the rules, routines, procedures, and consequences.

Like this, lesson plans that connect good teaching practices with student involvement and motivation—like active and group learning, the use of motivational "hooks," and the provision of many channels for representation and expression—are also successful in reducing misconduct. Teachers must be skilled in creating and implementing suitable remedial measures when necessary, even while preventative measures are essential for reducing misbehavior. A variety of low-level answers, including eye contact, proximity, and nonverbal communication, can minimize disruptions to the lesson's flow while simultaneously giving the instructor the opportunity to raise reactions based on the seriousness of the misbehaviors if necessary (McDonald, 2013).

While the PLF is dependent on teachers, appropriate classroom behavior policies should be developed collaboratively with student involvement through a democratic process in which the 4Rs of routines and rules are articulated as rights and responsibilities (McInerney & McInerney, 2002). According to McInerney and McInerney (2002), children find classroom behavior norms that stem from a common set of values to be more meaningful than a random set of rules that are enforced by the teacher. Furthermore, students are given the chance to experience the democratic process and are empowered to feel included in classroom management when regulations are articulated as a set of rights that they must uphold (Franklin & Harrington, 2019).

D. Learning & Motivation

Motivation is the force that provides behavior with direction and concentration. A driven student might achieve superior outcomes in education. A connection exists between motivation and learning. Motivation provides guidance and assists the student in selecting specific behavior. Motivation provides an internal force that directs actions toward a specific objective or assignment and prompts the person to remain determined in efforts to reach the objective or finish the assignment effectively. Hence, it is essential for the teacher to inspire children to learn.

1. Feedback and Praise

Enhancing the amount of feedback provided during lessons may assist in guiding students, reduce confusion, and highlight topics that require additional clarification. Feedback serves as a solid foundation for addressing students' misconceptions. This feedback can take the form of spoken discussions, written replies, exams, or evaluations. Without feedback, there is limited direction available to manage their development.

Teachers who frequently give their students insights about the correctness or suitability of their answers and assignments tend to have more successful learners. The best feedback delivers helpful information, recognition, and motivation when needed, and it is timely and detailed. Relevant personal feedback that focuses on positively addressing mistakes made in the learning process has a beneficial impact on student achievement and mindset (Wiseman and Hunt, 2008, p. 147).

2. Memorable Teaching and Learning

Moreover, Reis (2005) notes that a fundamental and straightforward approach to engage and maintain students' attention is through the expressiveness of the instructor. This involves using variations in voice, facial expressions, body movement, and gestures. After capturing the students' focus, it's essential to think about how quickly they can process the information presented. The short-term memory takes time

to handle the sensory information we receive; students do not instantaneously "absorb" new knowledge. It is beneficial to offer students brief pauses during a lecture, allowing them to go over their notes and raise any questions. Such a short break that accommodates student inquiries can also enable the lecturer to gauge comprehension and modify the remainder of the lecture as necessary.

3. Anxiety

Anxiety involves both mental and emotional aspects. The mental aspect occurs when an individual feels concerned and has pessimistic thoughts, such as dwelling on the consequences of failure and fearing that it will happen. The emotional aspect refers to the physical and emotional symptoms one might feel, including sweaty hands, an uneasy stomach, a rapid heartbeat, or feelings of fear. Additionally, anxiety can hinder learning and performance on tests to various degrees. "Anxiety can cause a student to lose concentration, become easily frustrated or disruptive, withdraw, avoid effort, feel physically unwell, or underperform in their studies, which only adds to the student's anxiety" (Wiseman and Hunt, 2008, p. 78).

Mild or even moderate imbalances or states of instability can create circumstances that drive students to take action in order to restore equilibrium. Some students struggle to find the needed balance. A little anxiety can actually enhance performance by encouraging students to take positive steps. However, excessive anxiety can have the reverse effect, becoming counterproductive and hindering student performance, leading to a decline in their ability to perform well. This is when anxiety is termed debilitating anxiety or when it becomes so intense that it obstructs successful performance. Hence, it is crucial for educators to comprehend their pupils and their diverse educational and individual requirements and traits. A stressful situation for one learner may not be identical for a different one.

4. Learning Objectives

Learning objectives hold significant value since the kinds of objectives educators establish affect the level of drive that learners possess to achieve them. Objectives ought to be somewhat challenging,

clear, and achievable in the short term to boost motivation and determination.

Specific objectives create a clear benchmark for evaluating performance, and manageable difficulty presents a challenge that is not overly taxing. If targets are overly complicated, unclear, or unrealistic, or if they seem unimportant, students are less likely to engage with them. Similarly, if goals are viewed as overly simple, they are also considered uninteresting or insignificant. Even if these goals are met, the success holds little significance (Wiseman and Hunt, 2008, p. 73).

5. Active Learning

Learners gain knowledge through hands-on experiences. Educators need to foster a lively learning atmosphere that allows students to apply each principle they are studying. Skilled teachers employ teaching methods that involve students actively during the entire class session. This involvement should begin at the start of the lesson and persist through the introduction, main part, and conclusion of the lesson.

As a key aspect of successful teaching, Muijs and Reynolds (2011) pointed out that a significant portion of the class should be devoted to questioning. Studies indicate that proficient educators tend to ask a greater number of advanced questions compared to their less effective counterparts, even though most inquiries are still basic. A subject that demands the recall of facts, like multiplication in math, will typically require simpler questions, whereas a topic that explores more complex ideas, such as having students create a science experiment, will necessitate more advanced inquiries. "Nonetheless, it is crucial to incorporate higher-level questions whenever feasible to foster students' critical thinking abilities" (Muijs and Reynolds, 2011, p. 55) (Sieberer-Nagler, 2015).

E. Teacher Effectiveness and Classroom Management

Teachers significantly shape the atmosphere within their classrooms. Although there are numerous factors that affect student learning, studies regarding the influences on student behavior and learning consistently highlight the critical role that teachers play. According to Hattie (2003), the solution to enhancing outcomes for every student

“lies in the individual who calmly shuts the classroom door and engages in the teaching process – the person responsible for implementing the ultimate effects of various policies, who interprets those policies, and who spends time alone with students throughout their 15,000 hours of education” (p 2). Hattie was not the first to recognize the strong impact of educators. A prevailing conclusion in research on resilience is the significant influence a teacher has.

Teachers are often portrayed as offering, in their unique styles and methods, three critical supports for students: supportive bonds, lofty goals, and chances for engagement and contribution. The techniques or methods that educators employ can serve as a collection of effective practices to steer our efforts in classrooms and educational institutions. Nonetheless, akin to all aspects of teaching, it is frequently one’s perspectives on youth, their requirements, the behaviors they display, and the factors influencing those behaviors that propel our actions. “Our views regarding the essence of teaching, learning, and students shape the kind of instruction and discipline present in schools and classrooms” (Freiberg, 1999, p. 14).

While defining teacher effectiveness as a teacher's capacity to enhance student learning based on standardized test scores has some validity, as many would concur that teachers are meant to facilitate learning, such a definition is quite restrictive. Frequently, other significant contributions of teachers towards fostering successful students, communities, and schools are ignored (Goe, Bell, and Little, 2008). In their exploration of effective teaching, Goe, Bell, and Little (2008) assessed a range of discussions found in contemporary literature, as well as in policy papers, standards, and reports. They determined that effective educators maintain high expectations for every student and assist in their learning; they promote favorable academic, emotional, and social results for all learners; they leverage resources to create and organize interactive learning experiences; they aid in nurturing classrooms and schools that embrace diversity and civic responsibility; and they collaborate with fellow educators, administrators, parents, and other education professionals to ensure the success of students (Egeberg et al., 2016).



17

CHAPTER 17: CURRENT TRENDS AND INNOVATIONS IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING (AI, BLENDED LEARNING, ETC.)



A. The Use of Artificial Intelligence in English Language Teaching

The rapid advancement of Artificial Intelligence (AI) has profoundly transformed methodologies in English language teaching, particularly in the contexts of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and English as a Second Language (ESL). Among the most visible innovations is the integration of AI-powered chatbots, such as ChatGPT, into classroom and independent learning practices. These tools provide learners with interactive, simulation-based experiences that mimic authentic conversations with native speakers. This allows students to practice speaking skills at any time and in any setting, without being fully dependent on the teacher's presence. Moreover, AI-driven systems can provide immediate and contextually relevant feedback, which is crucial for developing fluency, accuracy, and self-confidence in language use (Du & Daniel, 2024).

The educational potential of ChatGPT extends beyond oral practice. It also facilitates vocabulary development, reading comprehension, and academic writing. A systematic review conducted by Lo et al. (2024) concluded that ChatGPT fosters learner motivation by offering highly adaptive and responsive interactions. Students perceive these exchanges as personalized, which enhances engagement and ownership of the learning process. In this way, AI functions not only as a supplementary tool but as a collaborative partner that encourages active participation and sustained practice.

Li et al. (2024), in their comprehensive review of the first year of publications on ChatGPT and language education, noted a surge of scholarly interest in AI's role in language learning. They observed that while initial studies reported positive outcomes—particularly in learner engagement and accessibility—there is a pressing need to establish pedagogical frameworks and ethical guidelines. Without clear integration strategies, the use of ChatGPT risks becoming a superficial trend rather than a meaningful enhancement of instructional outcomes. Their analysis underscores the importance of embedding AI within carefully designed curricula that balance technological affordances with human-centered pedagogy.

Nevertheless, adopting AI in English language teaching comes with considerable challenges. Al-khresheh (2024) emphasizes that the implementation of ChatGPT in ELT is a double-edged sword. On the one hand, AI increases accessibility, offers learners opportunities to practice language beyond classroom hours, and supports personalized learning paths. On the other hand, there is a risk of diminishing the teacher's role as the primary facilitator of learning. Teachers provide more than content delivery; they cultivate critical thinking, creativity, cultural awareness, and social interaction skills—qualities that machines are not yet fully capable of replicating.

Another area of concern is the potential for learner overreliance on AI. If students become accustomed to receiving instant answers from chatbots without reflection, they may bypass deeper cognitive processes such as analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. This could ultimately hinder the development of higher-order thinking skills that are central to language mastery. As Al-khresheh (2024) cautions, while AI can democratize access to knowledge and create more personalized learning environments, educators remain indispensable in fostering metacognitive strategies and encouraging independent, critical engagement with content.

Taken together, these opportunities and challenges indicate that the integration of AI into English language education requires a balanced and thoughtful approach. Tools like ChatGPT should be embedded within structured curricula, where technology enhances rather than replaces the instructional role of teachers. Ideally, teachers function as mediators who guide learners to critically reflect on AI-generated input and apply it meaningfully. The future of ELT may therefore lie in hybrid models of instruction that combine the efficiency and adaptability of AI with the human capacity for empathy, contextualization, and critical judgment. Such synergy has the potential to create learning environments that are not only more effective and adaptive, but also more aligned with the needs of students in a digital and interconnected era.

B. Blended Learning and Flipped Classroom in English Language Teaching

Blended Learning has emerged as one of the most significant innovations in modern English language teaching, particularly within the domains of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and English as a Second Language (ESL). This model represents a deliberate integration of traditional face-to-face instruction with technology-mediated learning activities, aiming to create a more flexible, contextualized, and individualized educational experience. The strength of blended learning lies in its ability to merge the benefits of both modalities: the immediacy and interpersonal dynamics of in-class interaction with teachers and peers, and the autonomy and accessibility of digital learning resources that students can revisit as needed. This hybrid structure not only enriches learning but also empowers students to take greater responsibility for their own progress, while still benefiting from direct guidance and scaffolding by instructors (Cao, 2023).

Meta-analytical findings by Cao (2023), which examine blended learning implementations across various countries, highlight its wide-ranging positive impacts. Academically, blended learning improves student performance because digital platforms allow learners to review content repeatedly at their own pace, reinforcing understanding and retention. Attitudinally, it cultivates more positive dispositions toward learning, as students feel liberated from the constraints of rigid classroom schedules and are able to engage in learning that fits their lifestyles. Behaviorally, it fosters deeper engagement, since students are encouraged to actively participate in online forums, collaborative projects, and task-based assignments that extend beyond the classroom walls. These findings suggest that blended learning not only enhances outcomes but also reshapes learner identity by promoting agency, adaptability, and collaborative skills.

Yang and Chano (2025) further emphasize the contribution of blended learning to language proficiency in higher education. Their systematic review underscores that blended learning is particularly effective in enhancing productive skills such as speaking and writing, which often require sustained practice and interaction. With the availability of

multimedia resources—videos, online exercises, interactive quizzes—students gain continuous exposure to English outside the classroom, which complements face-to-face instruction. As a result, class time can be devoted to communicative activities, problem-solving tasks, and critical discussions that build on pre-learned content. This pedagogical shift transforms the classroom from a site of knowledge transmission into an interactive arena for applying and consolidating language skills.

A particularly influential form of blended learning is the Flipped Classroom. This model inverts the traditional teaching sequence: instead of receiving instruction in class and practicing afterward as homework, students first engage with foundational materials independently—through videos, readings, or online modules—and then use classroom time for active learning. Ni, Cheung, and Shi (2023), in their meta-analysis, report that flipped classrooms significantly increase student participation because learners enter the classroom with prior exposure to the material. This prior knowledge allows them to engage more meaningfully in higher-order activities such as analysis, application, and reflection. Teachers, in turn, can allocate more time to facilitating discussions, mentoring, and addressing misconceptions, which deepens comprehension and accelerates skill acquisition.

Chen, Chen, and Wu (2025) expand on this by identifying moderating factors that influence the effectiveness of flipped learning. Their meta-analysis confirms that flipped classrooms not only improve academic achievement but also boost student motivation and engagement. By preparing before class, students gain confidence and feel more competent in contributing to group discussions and collaborative tasks. The model also enables instructors to detect learning difficulties more readily, since classroom sessions are devoted to direct interaction rather than passive lecturing. This dynamic transforms the classroom into a learner-centered environment where differentiation and targeted feedback become integral parts of the learning process.

The benefits of blended and flipped models extend beyond cognitive gains to include affective and behavioral outcomes. Students in these environments often develop greater self-regulation, as they are required to manage their own learning outside class. This autonomy

aligns with the needs of today's digital generation, who are accustomed to on-demand access to information and multimedia content. At the same time, the teacher's role evolves into that of a facilitator and mentor, guiding learners in connecting theoretical knowledge with practical application. Such guidance ensures that digital learning experiences remain meaningful and aligned with pedagogical goals.

Blended learning and flipped classroom approaches should not be viewed merely as temporary trends but as paradigmatic shifts in English language teaching. They represent a move toward learner-centered pedagogy, balancing student autonomy with teacher support, and integrating technology in ways that expand learning opportunities. More importantly, these approaches address the challenges of language education in the digital era—challenges that demand flexibility, personalization, and active engagement. By fostering critical thinking, collaboration, and adaptability, blended and flipped models equip learners with the linguistic and cognitive tools they need to thrive in both academic and real-world contexts.

C. Mobile Learning and Gamification in Language Education

The rise of mobile learning, often referred to as *m-learning*, represents one of the most transformative shifts in the field of language education. With the proliferation of smartphones, tablets, and other portable digital devices, learners are no longer confined to the physical classroom. Instead, they can access educational resources and engage in language practice anytime and anywhere, making the process of language learning more fluid, continuous, and embedded in everyday life. This flexibility is particularly significant in the context of English as a Foreign Language (EFL), where learners often have limited opportunities to interact with the language outside formal settings. Mobile applications, interactive platforms, and educational games therefore serve as gateways to immersive and authentic learning experiences beyond traditional classroom boundaries (Liu, Zhang, & Dai, 2025).

Meta-analytic evidence further confirms the effectiveness of mobile games in supporting second language acquisition. Liu et al. (2025) demonstrated that mobile games are not merely entertaining add-ons

but powerful tools for enhancing language proficiency. Their analysis revealed that mobile gaming improves linguistic skills across domains—listening, speaking, reading, and writing—while also significantly boosting learner motivation and engagement. The combination of interactive gameplay and pedagogical goals creates an environment where students are intrinsically motivated to practice language forms repeatedly. This intrinsic motivation is critical, as sustained engagement is often one of the greatest challenges in language learning.

Gamification, closely linked to mobile learning, refers to the incorporation of game-based mechanics such as points, levels, badges, challenges, and leaderboards into educational activities. In the context of EFL, gamification transforms learning into an engaging and dynamic process. Rather than perceiving vocabulary drills or grammar exercises as monotonous tasks, students experience them as challenges to be completed and milestones to be achieved. The reward structures and progression systems inherent in gamified environments stimulate a sense of accomplishment and competition, which in turn encourages consistent participation (Liu, Zhang, & Dai, 2025).

Beyond motivation, gamification also enhances cognitive retention and skill mastery. Vocabulary acquisition, for example, is significantly improved when learners encounter words repeatedly within meaningful contexts provided by games. Similarly, grammar patterns can be reinforced through interactive scenarios where learners must apply rules to progress through levels or solve in-game problems. This repeated, contextualized exposure strengthens long-term retention, as knowledge is encoded through multiple pathways—visual, auditory, kinesthetic—making it easier for learners to recall and apply language structures in real-world communication.

Mobile learning and gamification also align with the characteristics and preferences of today's digital-native learners. Contemporary students are accustomed to multitasking, instant feedback, and interactive digital environments. By leveraging the familiar format of mobile apps and games, language educators can tap into learners' existing habits and redirect them toward productive educational purposes. In this

way, mobile learning is not simply a technological innovation but a pedagogical strategy that meets learners on their own terms and channels their digital engagement toward language development.

Another key advantage of mobile learning and gamification is their inclusivity and accessibility. Mobile devices are increasingly affordable and widely available, even in regions with limited access to traditional educational infrastructure. As a result, mobile learning provides opportunities for students in diverse contexts to access high-quality English learning materials. In gamified systems, adaptive algorithms can personalize tasks according to a learner's level, ensuring that challenges are neither too easy nor too difficult. This personalization creates a balance of challenge and skill that maintains learner engagement, echoing Csikszentmihalyi's concept of *flow* in educational psychology.

It is important, however, to recognize the limitations and challenges associated with these approaches. Overemphasis on gamification without careful pedagogical design can lead to "points chasing," where learners focus more on external rewards than on genuine mastery of language. Likewise, not all mobile games are designed with strong pedagogical foundations, and some may prioritize entertainment at the expense of meaningful language practice. Therefore, the role of teachers remains crucial in curating, adapting, and integrating mobile learning tools into a coherent instructional framework that supports long-term learning objectives.

Taken together, mobile learning and gamification should not be viewed merely as technological novelties. Instead, they represent a strategic response to the evolving needs of digital generations and a means of bridging formal and informal learning environments. When thoughtfully implemented, these approaches combine the motivational power of games with the pedagogical rigor of structured curricula, creating a learning environment that is engaging, adaptive, and effective in fostering sustainable English language proficiency.

D. Virtual Reality (VR), Augmented Reality (AR), and Extended Reality (XR) in Language Learning

Immersive technologies such as Virtual Reality (VR), Augmented Reality (AR), and their integration into Extended Reality (XR) have gained considerable traction in recent years as innovative tools for English language teaching and learning. These technologies provide learners with opportunities to experience authentic, interactive, and highly contextualized environments that go beyond what can typically be achieved within the walls of a classroom. By immersing students in digital or augmented spaces, VR and AR bridge the gap between theory and practice, giving learners the chance to use English in realistic contexts that mirror real-world communication needs (Christou, Vassiliou, & Parmaxi, 2025).

Augmented Reality (AR), in particular, offers unique pedagogical advantages by overlaying digital information onto the physical world. Learners can use AR applications to point their device cameras at objects and receive immediate translations, contextual vocabulary explanations, or interactive exercises connected to the item in view. This type of situated learning enhances vocabulary acquisition by embedding language within meaningful real-life contexts. As Christou et al. (2025) highlight, AR creates possibilities for designing interactive, context-based learning tasks that are not only engaging but also foster long-term retention by anchoring linguistic input to tangible experiences. For example, a student walking through a virtual museum exhibit with AR support might encounter English descriptions of artifacts, thereby reinforcing subject-specific vocabulary in situ.

Virtual Reality (VR), by contrast, immerses learners in fully simulated environments where they can practice English communication skills without geographical or social limitations. Cowie and Alizadeh (2025) argue that VR holds immense potential to create deeply engaging and authentic learning experiences because it situates learners in environments that closely resemble real-world contexts. Through VR, students can role-play as participants in a business meeting, practice ordering food in a simulated restaurant, or navigate through a virtual airport while communicating in English. Such simulations not only

build language proficiency but also cultivate cultural competence and situational awareness—skills that are critical in today’s globalized world. Importantly, VR environments allow learners to make mistakes in a low-stakes setting, helping them build confidence in speaking English even if they lack access to native-speaking communities in real life.



Figure 17. 1 Virtual Reality (VR)

Extended Reality (XR), which combines elements of both VR and AR, represents the next frontier in immersive learning technologies. Christou, Parmaxi, and Christoforou (2025) emphasize that XR can be particularly valuable in language training for specific purposes, such as workplace English or professional communication in specialized sectors. For instance, XR could simulate healthcare settings where medical students practice patient interactions in English, or engineering environments where learners use English for technical collaboration. By aligning immersive tasks with vocational needs, XR creates highly relevant and targeted learning experiences that prepare learners for real-life professional contexts.

The applicability of immersive technologies is not confined to higher education or adult learners; they are increasingly being inte-

grated into K–12 classrooms as well. Ma et al. (2025), in their systematic review, found that both VR and AR interventions in primary and secondary education significantly improved learners' language skills, particularly in listening and speaking. Younger learners, who are naturally more receptive to interactive and game-like activities, benefit from the playful yet purposeful nature of these tools. The incorporation of collaborative tasks within VR and AR further enhances engagement, as students work together to solve problems, navigate virtual environments, or complete joint projects in English. This collaborative dimension not only strengthens language proficiency but also fosters teamwork, critical thinking, and intercultural communication skills.

Despite their promise, immersive technologies do present challenges. The high cost of VR headsets, the need for reliable internet connectivity, and the technical expertise required for implementation can limit accessibility in certain educational contexts. Additionally, without clear pedagogical frameworks, there is a risk that VR and AR activities may be reduced to novelty rather than meaningful instructional tools. For these reasons, the role of the teacher remains central in curating immersive experiences, scaffolding student interactions, and ensuring that learning objectives are met. When carefully designed and integrated, however, immersive technologies can fundamentally reshape language learning by providing experiences that are not only engaging but also authentic, contextualized, and tailored to learners' real-world needs.

In summary, VR, AR, and XR are not merely futuristic innovations; they are practical pedagogical instruments that enhance language learning by situating it within meaningful contexts, fostering learner engagement, and bridging the divide between classroom instruction and real-world communication. As research continues to validate their effectiveness, it is increasingly clear that immersive technologies will play a pivotal role in shaping the future of English language education.

E. Learning Analytics and Personalized Learning

One of the most notable recent trends in English language teaching is the increasing integration of *learning analytics* as a means of supporting personalized learning experiences. Learning analytics refers to the collection, analysis, and interpretation of data about learners and their contexts, with the purpose of understanding and optimizing the learning process. In English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and English as a Second Language (ESL) contexts, this approach provides educators with insights into how students engage with content, how they progress over time, and where they encounter difficulties. Buckingham Shum et al. (2024) emphasize the importance of *human-centred learning analytics*, which focuses not simply on tracking performance data, but on understanding learners' behaviors, attitudes, and engagement patterns in a way that respects their individuality and supports meaningful educational outcomes.

The core strength of learning analytics lies in its ability to provide actionable insights that enable early intervention. For example, systems equipped with learning analytics can identify learners who participate less actively in online forums or who repeatedly struggle with specific grammar tasks. Teachers can then intervene with targeted support, such as recommending supplementary materials, offering personalized feedback, or redesigning instructional strategies to better suit individual needs. This transforms the role of the teacher from being merely a transmitter of knowledge into that of a facilitator and mentor who leverages real-time data to guide learners more effectively (Buckingham Shum et al., 2024).

Personalized learning, made possible by analytics, significantly enhances student agency. Instead of following a rigid, one-size-fits-all curriculum, learners can progress along individualized pathways that match their strengths, weaknesses, and learning preferences. For instance, a student who demonstrates strong reading comprehension but struggles with oral communication might receive additional speaking-focused activities through the learning platform. Meanwhile, another learner with different challenges could be directed toward vocabulary-building exercises. In this way, analytics-driven personalization creates

a dynamic and responsive learning environment, ensuring that instruction aligns closely with each learner's developmental trajectory.

Furthermore, the integration of Artificial Intelligence (AI) into learning analytics has expanded the potential of personalization in EFL/ESL education. With AI-enhanced systems, learning platforms can not only track student performance but also predict future difficulties and recommend adaptive learning pathways. For example, predictive analytics may identify that a student is at risk of disengagement based on patterns of declining participation. The system could then prompt the teacher to introduce motivational strategies or suggest specific content that aligns with the learner's interests. Such proactive intervention supports sustainable learning progress and reduces dropout rates in language programs.

Learning analytics also empowers learners themselves by making their learning processes more transparent. Dashboards and visual reports allow students to see their progress, compare their performance to their own past achievements, and set realistic goals. This metacognitive awareness encourages learners to take responsibility for their own improvement and fosters a growth mindset. When students can visualize their trajectory—such as the number of new words mastered, or the improvement in listening comprehension scores—they are more likely to remain motivated and engaged.

Despite its advantages, the use of learning analytics in language education raises important ethical and pedagogical considerations. Concerns include data privacy, the risk of reducing learners to numbers, and the possibility of reinforcing biases if algorithms are not carefully designed. Buckingham Shum et al. (2024) stress that a human-centred approach must remain at the core of learning analytics, ensuring that data is used not to control or label students, but to empower them. Teachers must interpret analytics critically, balancing quantitative data with qualitative insights gained from direct classroom interaction.

Looking ahead, learning analytics has the potential to become an integral part of adaptive learning ecosystems that continuously adjust to learners' needs. By combining big data, AI, and pedagogical expertise, future systems could provide even more nuanced personalization—

such as tailoring materials to learners' cultural contexts, cognitive styles, and emotional states. For English language learning, this means creating environments that are not only efficient and data-driven but also supportive, inclusive, and learner-centered.

In summary, learning analytics and personalized learning represent a powerful convergence of technology and pedagogy in English language education. They allow teachers to better understand learners, intervene at critical moments, and design instruction that resonates with individual needs. When implemented responsibly, with careful attention to ethics and human-centred principles, learning analytics can help transform EFL/ESL classrooms into adaptive spaces that prepare students for both academic success and lifelong language development.

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Methodology of Teaching English as a Foreign Language presents a clear and structured discussion about the teaching of English as a foreign language. It opens with an introduction to the position and importance of TEFL in today's interconnected world. The narrative then moves to the history and development of teaching methodologies, showing how different approaches have shaped the way English is taught across time. Fundamental principles of learning a foreign language are explained to give readers a solid base for understanding the process of language acquisition.

The book continues with an exploration of approaches, methods, and techniques used in TEFL, linking theory to classroom practice. Language acquisition theories are discussed with attention to how they can guide teaching decisions. A separate focus is given to teaching grammar, followed by practical strategies for developing reading, writing, listening, and speaking skills. Attention is also given to pronunciation and phonology, recognizing their role in effective communication.

Other chapters highlight the use of media and technology, the teaching of English for specific purposes (ESP), and task-based learning as an engaging and learner-centered approach. The book also offers strategies for managing classrooms effectively, ensuring that teaching and learning can take place smoothly.

In its final part, the book looks at current trends and innovations in English language teaching, such as artificial intelligence, blended learning, and new ways of combining technology with pedagogy. Overall, the book is written to support teachers, students, and researchers who seek both theoretical grounding and practical guidance in teaching English as a foreign language.

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