

FUNDAMENTAL TEACHING ENGLISH

Theory, Practice and Classroom Application

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ISBN: 978-634-7422-96-5

Layouter : Satya Rifa Nayaka Br ginting
Cover Design : Sri Nursanti Sari, M.Pd.
Publisher : CV. Gita Lentera
Perm. Permata Hijau Regency Blok F/1 Kel. Pisang,
Kec. Pauh, Padang
Website: <https://gitalentera.com>
Email: gitalentera.publisher@gmail.com
Members of IKAPI No. 042/SBA/2023

First Printing, January 2026

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PREFACE

Praised be to ALLAH SWT, the Most Gracious and the Most Merciful, for His endless blessings, guidance, and mercy, through which this book entitled “**Fundamental Teaching English: Theory, Practice and Classroom Application**” has been successfully compiled and completed. Peace and blessings be upon Prophet Muhammad SAW, who has guided humanity from ignorance to enlightenment. This book is the result of collective academic dedication and sincere collaboration among lecturers and practitioners in the field of English Language Teaching (ELT), who share a common commitment to advancing the quality of English education, particularly in academic and classroom contexts.

This book is designed to provide comprehensive and systematic insights into the fundamental aspects of teaching English, integrating theoretical foundations, pedagogical practices, and practical classroom applications. It covers a wide range of essential topics, starting from an introduction to English Language Teaching, theories of Second Language Acquisition, approaches and methods in ELT, and the teaching of core language skills—listening, reading, writing, grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation. In addition, it addresses contemporary issues such as instructional technology, artificial intelligence in ELT, classroom management, assessment and evaluation, materials development, lesson planning, as well as teaching English in multicultural and multilingual contexts. Through this structure, the book aims to bridge the gap between theory and practice in meaningful and applicable ways.

Each chapter in this book is authored by experts and scholars with academic and professional experience in their respective fields. Their contributions enrich the discussion with diverse perspectives,

research-based explanations, and reflective classroom implications. The organization of the chapters allows readers to progressively build their understanding—from foundational theories to practical strategies—making this book suitable for undergraduate and graduate students, pre-service and in-service teachers, as well as researchers and practitioners in English education.

Finally, we hope that this book will serve as a valuable reference and guide for those involved in English Language Teaching, inspiring reflective practice, pedagogical innovation, and continuous professional development. Constructive feedback and suggestions from readers are warmly welcomed for the improvement of future editions. May this book contribute positively to the advancement of English education and be beneficial for all who seek knowledge. Ameen.

Authors

SYNOPSIS

This book presents a comprehensive exploration of English Language Teaching (ELT) by examining both theoretical foundations and practical applications within contemporary educational contexts. It begins with an overview of ELT and second language acquisition, introducing key theories and concepts that explain how languages are learned and how these theories inform effective teaching practices. Through a structured and logical progression, the book connects linguistic, cognitive, and pedagogical perspectives to support meaningful language learning.

The subsequent chapters focus on instructional approaches, teaching methods, and the development of essential language skills, including listening, reading, academic writing, grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation. Each section emphasizes learner-centered instruction, contextualized learning, and reflective practice, while also addressing assessment, classroom management, materials development, and lesson planning. The integration of instructional technology and artificial intelligence further illustrates how modern tools can enhance teaching and learning processes in ELT.

Concluding with discussions on multicultural and multilingual classrooms, this book highlights the importance of cultural awareness and local language integration in English instruction. Written in clear and accessible academic language, this book is intended to support students, teachers, and educators in developing a balanced understanding of theory and practice, enabling them to respond effectively to diverse learning needs and evolving educational challenges.

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INTRODUCTION TO ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

By Dian Sartin Tiwery, S.Pd., M.Pd.

1.1 Overview of English Language Teaching (ELT)

English Language Teaching (ELT) refers to the discipline and practice of teaching English to speakers of other languages, whether in contexts where English is a foreign language (EFL), a second language (ESL), or a lingual franc used for international communication. ELT incorporates a wide range of sub fields including methodology, curriculum development, teacher training, assessment, materials design, and applied linguistics.

At its core, ELT is shaped by historical, linguistic, psychological, and sociocultural influences that guide how teachers understand language and how learners acquire it. As Richards and Rodgers (2014) explain, ELT does not exist in isolation but emerges from evolving theories of language, learning, and communication that influence pedagogical decisions in the classroom.

The field also responds to broader global changes such as international mobility, digital transformation, multilingualism, and the growth of English as an international language. These factors have

shifted ELT from prescriptive, teacher-centered practices to dynamic, learner-centered and context-sensitive approaches.

1.2 Theoretical Foundations of ELT

A. Linguistic Theories

Structural Linguistics

Structural Linguistics, prominent in the 1940s–1950s through scholars such as Bloomfield (1933), views language as a system composed of phonological, morphological, and syntactic structures. This theoretical view emphasized observable patterns of language rather than meaning or mental processes. In ELT, Structuralism led to pedagogical approaches focused on teaching grammar patterns systematically through drills and controlled practice. The Audio-Lingual Method (ALM) became the most common embodiment of this theoretical orientation.

Charles Fries (1945) argued that language learning is essentially habit formation, shaped through imitation and repetition. As a result, structural sentences and dialogue memorization were central components of instructional practice. The structural perspective influenced materials development, leading to graded syllabus where linguistic structures were introduced step-by-step, based on frequency and grammatical simplicity.

Generative Linguistics (Chomsky)

Noam Chomsky's generative grammar revolutionized linguistics in the 1950s by shifting the focus from observed behavior to internal mental representations. He argued that humans possess an innate language faculty, which enables them to generate infinite sentences from limited linguistic rules (Chomsky, 1957). Chomsky's distinction between *competence* (knowledge of language) and *performance* (actual language use) had important implications for ELT. It suggested

that fluency alone was insufficient; learners needed underlying structural knowledge.

Unlike structuralists, Chomsky rejected behaviorism, insisting that language is not acquired through habit formation but through cognitive processes driven by universal grammar. This shift gave rise to cognitive approaches in language teaching. Generative Linguistics influenced ELT by encouraging syllabus based on rules, principles, and the mental processes of learning, moving beyond surface-level repetition to deeper understanding.

Functional Linguistics (Halliday)

Michael Halliday's Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) in the 1970s emphasized that language is fundamentally a tool for making meaning in social contexts (Halliday, 1978). Language is viewed not only structurally but functionally. Halliday proposed three meta functions of language—idealization, interpersonal, and textual—which shape how speakers use language to express ideas, negotiate relationships, and organize discourse. This provided a foundation for communicative teaching. Because meaning and use were central concepts in SFL, ELT began focusing more on communication rather than form alone. This shift supported the development of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), functional syllabus, and discourse-based instruction. Functional Linguistics showed that learners must understand not just grammar but also how language functions in real-life contexts such as requesting, apologizing, explaining, and describing.

B. Psychological Learning Theories

Behaviorism

Behaviorism, associated with B.F. Skinner (1957), argued that learning is shaped by stimulus–response conditioning, reinforcement, and habit formation. Learning is observable and measurable, not internal or mental. In ELT, Behaviorism strongly influenced the Audio-

Lingual Method, which used drills, pattern practice, mimicry, and error avoidance strategies. Teachers provided positive reinforcement to strengthen accurate responses. Behaviorism emphasized accuracy, correct pronunciation, and immediate feedback. Errors were discouraged because they were believed to become bad habits. The approach was particularly influential during World War II when rapid language learning for military purposes required practical, efficient training methods.

Cognitivism

Cognitivism emerged as a response to Behaviorism, emphasizing mental processes such as attention, memory, problem solving, and schema. Scholars such as Piaget (1970) and Ausubel (1968) argued that meaningful learning occurs when new information connects to prior knowledge.

In ELT, Cognitivism supports approaches that encourage understanding rather than rote memorization. Learners benefit from explanations, concept mapping, and explicit attention to meaning. Cognitive theories led to comprehension-based teaching such as the Natural Approach (Krashen & Terrell, 1983), where learners acquire language through meaningful input before producing it. The cognitive perspective also supports meta cognition—learners’ awareness of strategies—which is central to modern strategy-based instruction and reading pedagogy.

Constructivism (Vygotsky)

Constructivism, shaped by Lev Vygotsky, posits that learning is fundamentally social. Knowledge is constructed through interaction with others, rather than received passively. Vygotsky introduced the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), the gap between what learners can achieve independently and what they can accomplish with support. Scaffolding is essential for bridging this gap. ELT practices inspired by constructive emphasize group work, pair activities, collaborative

problem solving, and project-based learning. The teacher becomes a facilitator who guides learners to co-construct knowledge. Constructive approaches also support task-based learning, where communication emerges through meaningful engagement rather than direct instruction alone.

Humanistic Psychology

Humanistic theories by Rogers (1969) and Maslow (1970) highlight the importance of emotions, motivation, self-esteem, and learner autonomy. They argue that learning is most effective when learners feel safe, respected, and intrinsically motivated. In ELT, the humanistic movement led to innovative methods such as Community Language Learning (Curran, 1976), Suggestopedia (Lozanov, 1978), and the Silent Way (Gattegno, 1972). These methods prioritize affective factors, reducing anxiety and encouraging learner empowerment. Humanistic teachings value empathy, active listening, and learner choice. Humanistic psychology remains relevant in modern ELT, particularly in promoting positive classroom environments, inclusive pedagogy, and learner-centered practices.

C. Communicative and Sociocultural Theories

Communicative Competence

Communicative competence, introduced by Dell Hymes (1972), expanded the idea of language proficiency beyond grammar to include sociolinguistics and pragmatic knowledge. Learners must know when, where, and how to use language appropriately. Canale and Swain (1980) further refined communicative competence into four components: grammatical, sociolinguistics, discourse, strategic competence. These components became the theoretical foundation for Communicative Language Teaching, which emphasizes meaning, fluency, and interaction over accuracy alone. CLT encourages authentic tasks, information gaps, role plays, and negotiation of meaning, helping learners develop real-life communicative ability.

Sociocultural Theory

Sociocultural Theory, influenced by Vygotsky, argues that language learning is deeply embedded in social context and cultural identity (Lantolf, 2000). Learners do not simply internalize rules; they construct meaning through interaction. According to this theory, language is both a cognitive tool and a cultural practice. Therefore, ELT must consider cultural norms, identities, and communicative values. Classroom implications include collaborative learning, peer scaffolding, group interaction, and the use of meaningful, culturally relevant materials. Sociocultural Theory also supports reflective teaching, where teachers consider learners' backgrounds, motivations, and social realities.

Interaction Hypothesis

Michael Long's Interaction Hypothesis (1983; 1996) proposes that interaction facilitates acquisition when learners negotiate meaning through clarification requests, repetition, and feedback. These negotiation processes help learners modify input into more comprehensible forms and adjust output, leading to greater linguistic development. The hypothesis supports communicative pair work, task-based learning, and conversational activities in the ELT classroom. Long's work emphasizes the importance of meaningful communication rather than mechanical exercises.

Input and Output Theories

Stephen Krashen's Input Hypothesis (1982) argues that language acquisition depends on comprehensible input slightly beyond learners' current level ($i+1$). Anxiety must be low for acquisition to occur. Krashen also proposed the Affective Filter Hypothesis, stating that stress, fear, or demotivate can block learning. This reinforced the need for supportive, low-anxiety classrooms. Merrill Swain (1985) countered that input alone is insufficient. Her Output Hypothesis states that producing language pushes learners to process language

more deeply, test hypotheses, and develop accuracy. Together, these theories justify balanced instruction with both listening/reading input and speaking/writing output activities. They also influenced modern communicative and task-based approaches, which require meaningful production of language.

1.3 Integration of Theories into Modern ELT

Contemporary ELT integrates these linguistic and learning theories rather than relying on a single approach. Richards (2015) notes that effective ELT is eclectic, drawing on structural accuracy, communicative fluency, cognitive depth, and sociocultural relevance. In today's classrooms, ELT is shaped by diverse contexts, learner needs, academic research, and global realities. Teachers blend theories to create holistic, flexible, and culturally responsive instruction suited for the modern world of English as an international language.

Summary

English Language Teaching (ELT) is the discipline focused on teaching English to speakers of other languages across ESL, EFL, and international communication contexts. It encompasses methodology, curriculum design, assessment, teacher education, and applied linguistics. ELT is shaped by historical, linguistic, psychological, and sociocultural developments that influence how teachers view language and how learners acquire it. As global mobility, technology, and multilingualism expand, ELT has shifted from rigid, teacher-centered models to dynamic, learner-centered and context-sensitive approaches.

Linguistic theories have played a foundational role in shaping ELT. Structural Linguistics emphasized language patterns and habit formation, influencing drills and the Audio-Lingual Method. Generative Linguistics, initiated by Chomsky, directed attention to

mental processes and internal grammar, encouraging rule-based and cognitive approaches. Functional Linguistics, particularly Halliday's Systemic Functional Linguistics, shifted the focus toward meaning, communication, and the social functions of language, laying the groundwork for Communicative Language Teaching and discourse-based instruction.

Psychological theories provide additional perspectives on how learners acquire language. Behaviorism highlighted conditioning, repetition, and reinforcement; Cognitivism emphasized mental processes, meaningful learning, and schema; Constructivism stressed social learning through interaction, scaffolding, and collaboration; and Humanistic Psychology focused on motivation, emotions, and learner autonomy. Together, these theories influenced methods ranging from the Audio-Lingual Method to the Natural Approach, task-based learning, and humanistic teaching models that support learners' affective needs. Communicative and sociocultural theories further strengthened ELT's focus on meaningful interaction.

Hymes's communicative competence and Canale & Swain's framework broadened language proficiency to include sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic dimensions. Vygotskian sociocultural theory emphasized learning as socially embedded and culturally mediated, while Long's Interaction Hypothesis and the input-output theories of Krashen and Swain highlighted the importance of comprehensible input, negotiation of meaning, and purposeful language production. Modern ELT integrates these varied theories eclectically, enabling teachers to design instruction that is accurate, communicative, cognitively engaging, and culturally responsive.

Exercise

1. Which of the following best describes the shift in modern ELT?
 - A. From learner-centered to teacher-centered instruction

- B. From prescriptive methods to flexible, context-sensitive approaches
 - C. From communicative focus to structural focus
 - D. From sociocultural views to purely linguistic perspectives
2. Structural Linguistics primarily influenced ELT by promoting:
- A. Social interaction and cultural negotiation
 - B. Rule-based learning and cognitive processes
 - C. Pattern drills, habit formation, and the Audio-Lingual Method
 - D. Task-based learning and collaborative problem-solving
3. Which learning theory emphasizes meaningful input slightly above the learner's current level (i+1)?
- A. Behaviorism
 - B. Constructivism
 - C. Krashen's Input Hypothesis
 - D. Swain's Output Hypothesis
4. According to Communicative Competence theory, effective language use requires:
- A. Memorizing grammar rules only
 - B. Understanding when and how to use language appropriately
 - C. Avoiding interaction to prevent errors
 - D. Focusing solely on pronunciation accuracy
5. Vygotsky's concept of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) highlights the importance of:
- A. Learning through repetition without assistance
 - B. Independent practice without teacher guidance
 - C. Collaborative learning with scaffolding from others
 - D. Memorizing vocabulary through drills

DAFTAR PUSTAKA

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FOUNDATIONS OF SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

By Muhammad Subhan Fikri, M.Pd.

Introduction

Imagine a scene familiar to many: a six-year-old child, after a year in a new country, chatters fluently with friends in the playground, picking up the local language with a natural accent and intuitive grammar. Meanwhile, a highly motivated adult learner, armed with textbooks and apps, diligently studies for years yet often stumbles over verb tenses and pronunciation, feeling the language remains just out of reach. Why does this happen? Is the child simply a better learner? Or does the *process* of acquiring a second language change as we age, think, and interact with the world?

These questions lie at the heart of Second Language Acquisition (SLA), the systematic study of how people learn languages beyond their mother tongue. For the English language teacher, moving beyond anecdote and intuition to engage with SLA research is not an academic luxury—it is a professional necessity. Without an understanding of the underlying *process* of learning, teaching risks becoming a collection of disconnected activities, methods, and tricks. Theory provides the map; it illuminates *why* certain practices work, predicts potential challenges,

and empowers teachers to make informed, principled decisions in curriculum design, classroom instruction, and student support. This chapter aims to provide that essential map, grounding the art of teaching in the science of learning.

To begin our exploration, let's clarify some foundational terms that will recur throughout this book:

- **Second Language (L2) vs. Foreign Language:** While often used interchangeably, a subtle distinction exists. An L2 is typically learned in an environment where it is widely spoken as the primary medium of communication (e.g., a Spanish speaker learning English while living in Canada). A Foreign Language is learned in a setting where it is not the dominant language of the community (e.g., a Thai student learning English in Bangkok). This environmental context profoundly influences access to input and opportunities for use.
- **Acquisition vs. Learning:** A distinction famously proposed by Stephen Krashen separates subconscious acquisition (a natural, implicit process similar to how children pick up their first language, resulting in a "feel" for correctness) from conscious learning (the formal study of rules and structures). While this dichotomy has been debated and nuanced by later research, it usefully highlights two different ways knowledge may develop in a learner's mind.
- **Input vs. Output:** Input refers to the language the learner is exposed to, whether listened to or read. It is the essential raw material for acquisition. Output is the language the learner produces, through speaking or writing. As we will see, SLA research explores how input becomes internalized knowledge and how output acts not just as a product of learning, but as a catalyst for it.

2.1 Major Theoretical Paradigms In Sla

To understand the complex journey of learning a second language, scholars have developed several key theoretical lenses. These paradigms are not mutually exclusive; rather, they highlight different facets of the same intricate process. Familiarity with each provides teachers with a robust toolkit for interpreting learner behavior and designing instruction.

2.1.1 The Cognitive-Process Perspective

This perspective views the language learner as an active processor of information, akin to a sophisticated computer. Learning is seen as the development of increasingly efficient mental procedures and the building of knowledge in memory.

Information Processing: At its core, this approach examines the mental mechanisms of attention, which is a limited resource. Learners must notice linguistic features in the input for them to be acquired (Schmidt, 2001). Skill development involves moving from controlled processing (slow, effortful, and conscious, as when applying a newly learned grammar rule) to automatic processing (fast, effortless, and unconscious, as in fluent speech). This transition is achieved through practice, which strengthens mental pathways. However, learning is not just linear accumulation; it involves restructuring, where the learner's internal language system suddenly reorganizes, leading to new insights but sometimes temporary regression as old knowledge is reconfigured (DeKeyser, 2020).

The Role of Memory: Working memory, the brain's temporary workspace for holding and manipulating information, is critically important. It is where intake from input is processed, where grammatical structures are assembled during production, and where negotiation during interaction occurs. Individual differences in working memory capacity can influence the rate and success of SLA, particularly in formal learning settings (Wen et al., 2023).

CLASSROOM CONNECTION

What does the cognitive perspective mean for teaching?

Drilling & Task Repetition: Controlled practice activities (e.g., structured drills) are not ends in themselves but can help move new knowledge from declarative to procedural memory. Task repetition, asking learners to perform the same communicative task multiple times, frees up cognitive resources (now that the content is familiar) to focus on more accurate and complex language (Bygate, 2020).

Managing Cognitive Load: Teachers must design tasks that do not overwhelm working memory. This involves scaffolding complex activities, presenting language in manageable "chunks," and gradually increasing complexity as automaticity develops.

2.1.2 The Innatist Perspective

Innatist theories posit that humans are biologically predisposed to acquire language. The most famous application to SLA is Stephen Krashen's Monitor Model (1980s), a set of five hypotheses that, while heavily critiqued for their lack of empirical verification, have been profoundly influential in shaping communicative language teaching.

Krashen's Monitor Model: Its central pillar is the Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis (the distinction introduced earlier). Krashen argued that acquired knowledge, not learned knowledge, drives fluent communication. The Monitor is the learned system that can only edit output under certain conditions. Most critically, the Input Hypothesis states that acquisition occurs only when learners understand language that contains structure a bit beyond their current competence, represented as " $i+1$ ". The Affective Filter Hypothesis explains how variables like anxiety, motivation, and self-confidence act as a psychological barrier that can block comprehensible input from reaching the language acquisition device.

The Concept of Comprehensible Input ($i+1$): This enduring concept emphasizes that learners progress not by meticulously sequencing grammar rules, but by understanding messages that are slightly challenging. The " $+1$ " is not deliberately added but is naturally present in rich, meaningful input that the learner accesses through context, extralinguistic information, and prior knowledge.

CLASSROOM CONNECTION

Creating a language-rich, low-anxiety classroom.

Focus on Meaning: Prioritize activities where understanding and communicating messages is central (e.g., storytelling, discussing a video, problem-solving). Use visuals, gestures, and context to make input comprehensible.

Manage the Affective Filter: Establish a supportive classroom community. Reduce anxiety by allowing "silent periods," encouraging risk-taking, and providing positive, content-focused feedback. A stressed learner, Krashen warns, has a "high filter" that impedes acquisition.

2.1.3 The Sociocultural Perspective

Rooted in the work of psychologist Lev Vygotsky, this paradigm shifts the focus from the individual mind to the social and cultural context of learning. Language acquisition is seen as a socially mediated process, where cognitive development, including language learning, first occurs *between* people on an interpersonal plane before it is internalized on an intrapersonal plane (Lantolf et al., 2020).

Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD): This is the cornerstone concept. The ZPD is the gap between what a learner can do independently and what they can achieve with guidance or collaboration. Learning occurs most effectively within this zone.

Learning as Socially Mediated: Knowledge is co-constructed through dialogue and joint activity. **Scaffolding** is the temporary support provided by a teacher or more capable peer to help the learner accomplish a task within their ZPD. This support is gradually withdrawn as the learner gains competence.

CLASSROOM CONNECTION

Designing collaborative tasks and the teacher's role as a scaffold.

Collaborative Tasks: Design activities that require genuine collaboration and dialogue to complete (e.g., jigsaw tasks, collaborative writing, consensus-building discussions). Peer interaction can provide dynamic and finely-tuned scaffolding.

The Teacher as Mediator: Move from being a source of knowledge to a facilitator of interaction. Provide scaffolds such as sentence starters, graphic organizers, or modeling language. Engage in instructional conversations where you guide learners through questioning and feedback within their ZPD, helping them express ideas they could not yet articulate alone.

2.2 Key Factors Influencing SLA

While theoretical paradigms explain the general mechanisms of acquisition, a vast array of individual and affective variables determine the *trajectory*, *rate*, and *ultimate success* of any given learner's journey. Understanding these factors moves us from the universal "how" to the personal "why" and "how well."

2.2.1 Individual Differences

Learners bring unique constellations of characteristics to the classroom, which interact dynamically with the learning process.

Age: The Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH) posits a biologically determined window, closing around puberty, for achieving native-like proficiency, particularly in phonology and morphosyntax. Evidence shows that younger learners generally achieve higher ultimate attainment in pronunciation and intuitive grammar (Muñoz & Singleton, 2011). However, the debate is nuanced. Older adolescents and adults often exhibit faster initial rates of learning due to superior cognitive skills, metalinguistic awareness, and learning strategies (Ortega, 2014). The implication is not that "younger is universally better," but that age dictates different learning profiles. Teachers of younger learners should maximize rich, implicit input, while teachers of adults can effectively leverage explicit instruction and problem-solving.

Motivation: A cornerstone of learner success, motivation is now understood as a dynamic, context-sensitive construct. The classic dichotomy of integrative motivation (desire to connect with the L2 community) and instrumental motivation (practical goals like career advancement) remains useful (Gardner, 2019). Contemporary research emphasizes self-determination theory, which prioritizes intrinsic motivation (the drive to learn for inherent satisfaction and personal growth). Fostering autonomy, competence, and relatedness in the

classroom is key to nurturing this powerful, self-sustaining drive (Noels et al., 2019).

Language Aptitude: Distinct from general intelligence, language aptitude is a specific talent for language learning. Modern models, like LLAMA (Meara, 2005) or Hi-LAB (Linck et al., 2013), measure components such as:

- **Phonetic coding ability:** Discriminating and remembering sounds.
- **Grammatical sensitivity:** Inductively inferring rules from language.
- **Rote memory:** Associating sounds and meanings.
- **Analytical ability:** Manipulating language structures.

Aptitude interacts with instruction; some learners may benefit more from explicit, rule-based teaching, while others thrive in implicit contexts (Li, 2016).

Learning Styles & Strategies: While popular notions of fixed "learning styles" (e.g., visual, auditory) are largely discredited in rigorous SLA research, the strategic behaviors learners employ are crucial. Language Learning Strategies are conscious actions to improve learning. Oxford's (2017) taxonomy includes:

- **Metacognitive strategies** (planning, monitoring, evaluating).
- **Cognitive strategies** (practicing, analyzing, summarizing).
- **Social strategies** (asking questions, cooperating with others).
- **Affective strategies** (managing emotions).

Effective teaching involves strategy-based instruction, explicitly training learners to deploy a flexible repertoire of strategies appropriate to different tasks.

2.2.2 The Affective Domain

Learning is not a purely cognitive act; it is saturated with emotion and identity. The affective domain can either fuel or freeze the acquisition process.

Affective Filter Revisited: Krashen's metaphor is powerfully resonant. A "high filter" caused by anxiety, low motivation, or low self-confidence impedes the processing of comprehensible input, preventing it from becoming intake. Modern interpretations view this not as a static barrier but as a dynamic, interactive state that teachers can actively work to lower (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2019).

Anxiety: Language anxiety is a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, and behaviors related to classroom learning. We distinguish debilitating anxiety, which paralyzes performance and avoids risk-taking, from facilitating anxiety, which can provide a positive edge of alertness. The goal is to minimize the former. Anxiety is most damaging when it focuses on performance evaluation rather than meaningful communication (Horwitz, 2010).

Identity and Investment: Moving beyond psychological traits, scholars like Norton (2013) argue that learning is shaped by the learner's social identity and their investment in the target language. A learner's race, gender, class, and migration status affect how they are positioned in the classroom and society. Investment refers to the socially and historically constructed commitment to learning, which is tied to the anticipated return—not just economic, but in terms of symbolic capital, social belonging, and the right to speak. A student may be highly motivated but not invested if they perceive the classroom practices as denying their identity.

CLASSROOM CONNECTION

Building a low-anxiety classroom, fostering motivation, and differentiating instruction.

Lowering Anxiety: Normalize mistakes as learning opportunities. Use cooperative, low-stakes tasks before high-stakes individual performance. Provide clear expectations and models. Incorporate elements of play and humor.

Fostering Motivation: Connect lessons to learners' personal goals and interests. Provide choices in topics or task types. Create a classroom community of relatedness. Celebrate effort and specific progress, not just perfection.

Differentiating Instruction: Acknowledge diverse aptitudes and strategies. Offer multiple pathways to achieve learning objectives (e.g., through analysis, pattern recognition, or collaborative dialogue). Provide optional challenge extensions and foundational support. Teach strategies explicitly so all learners can develop their toolkit

2.3 Core Constructs In The Acquisition Process

Building on the theoretical foundations and individual factors, we now focus on the fundamental mechanisms that drive acquisition forward. These constructs (input, interaction, output, and the learner's developing system) are the direct levers teachers can influence through classroom practice.

2.3.1 The Centrality of Input

Input, the target language the learner is exposed to, is the indispensable fuel for acquisition. However, not all input becomes intake, the portion that is noticed and processed by the learner's internal mechanisms (Gass, 2018). Two key properties influence what becomes intake:

1. **Frequency:** Learners are highly sensitive to how often they encounter specific linguistic forms. High-frequency items in the input are generally acquired earlier and more robustly (Ellis, 2019). This underscores the value of repeated, meaningful exposure through extensive listening and reading.
2. **Salience:** Forms that are perceptually or communicatively prominent are more likely to be noticed. This can be due to stress, placement at the beginning of an utterance, visual enhancement (e.g., bolding text), or communicative necessity. Teachers can

strategically enhance salience through verbal emphasis or task design to draw attention to less obvious features.

2.3.2 The Role of Interaction

Michael Long's (1996) Interaction Hypothesis posits that it is not input alone, but interactional modifications triggered by communication problems, that are crucial for acquisition. During negotiation for meaning (e.g., "What do you mean?", "Can you repeat that?"), input is made comprehensible, attentional resources are focused on problematic forms, and learners receive immediate feedback. A key component of this feedback is corrective feedback, which comes in various forms:

- **Recasts:** Implicitly reformulating the learner's erroneous utterance correctly (e.g., Learner: "He go yesterday." Teacher: "Yes, he *went* yesterday."). These are frequent but not always noticed by learners.
- **Prompts:** Eliciting a correction from the learner (e.g., clarification requests like "Pardon?", or metalinguistic clues like "It's in the past.").
- **Explicit Correction:** Clearly indicating an error and providing the correct form.

Research suggests that prompts, which push for self-repair, can be more effective for long-term development as they engage deeper cognitive processing (Lyster & Saito, 2013).

2.3.3 The Importance of Output

Merrill Swain's (2005) Output Hypothesis argued that producing language (output) is not merely a sign of acquired knowledge but a *cause* of learning. It serves three key functions:

1. **Hypothesis Testing:** Learners try out new structures to see if they work.

2. **Noticing the Gap:** The attempt to produce pushes learners to notice what they *want* to say versus what they *can* say, highlighting gaps in their interlanguage.
3. **Metalinguistic Reflection:** Output allows learners to consciously reflect on language form and rules, solidifying knowledge. Thus, activities that require pushed output, production that stretches linguistic resources, are essential for grammatical development and fluency.

2.3.4 Interlanguage & Error Analysis

Learners do not switch from L1 to L2 knowledge. Instead, they construct a systematic, evolving linguistic system known as **interlanguage**. This system has its own rules, which are influenced by the L1, the target language, and universal learning processes.

Errors as Developmental Signs: From this perspective, errors are not failures but vital evidence of the learner's current hypotheses and an inevitable byproduct of a creative, rule-governed system. Error analysis helps teachers diagnose the stage of development rather than merely penalizing mistakes.

Fossilization: This refers to the persistent plateau where certain errors become permanent despite ample exposure and instruction. It is often linked to a stabilization of communicative ability that satisfies the learner's needs, combined with a lack of continued focused attention on form (Han, 2013). Addressing potential fossilization requires conscious effort: raising learner awareness of the fossilized feature, providing focused feedback, and creating contexts where accurate use of that feature is essential for task success.

CLASSROOM APPLICATION

Designing an SLA-Informed Lesson Cycle

Phase 1: Rich, Salient Input (Activating Intake)

Activity: Introduce a theme (e.g., urban planning) via an engaging, slightly challenging video or article. Use visuals and pre-teach key vocabulary. Ask comprehension questions that require understanding of both content **and** the target structure (e.g., modal verbs for suggestions: "What *should* the city do?").

Rationale: Provides frequent, contextualized exposure. Enhances salience by highlighting the target form.

Phase 2: Meaningful Interaction (Negotiation & Feedback)

Activity: A structured pair/small-group task (e.g., "Design a park for our neighborhood"). The goal is consensus, requiring genuine negotiation. The teacher monitors, providing interactional feedback, primarily prompts (e.g., "Can you say that as a suggestion?") to encourage self-correction.

Rationale: Creates a need to communicate, triggering negotiation. Provides implicit, contingent feedback within the ZPD.

Phase 3: Pushed Output (Consolidation & Hypothesis Testing)

Activity: Groups present their final proposal to the class (spoken) or write a formal email to the mayor (written). This requires polished, accurate use of the target language to achieve a new goal.

Rationale: Forces learners to move from comprehension to accurate production, testing hypotheses and noticing gaps.

Phase 4: Constructive Feedback (Addressing Interlanguage)

Activity: Post-task, the teacher provides focused feedback on a few common errors observed, using a mix of recasts and explicit explanation. Learners then do a brief, focused editing task on their written output or re-record part of their presentation.

Rationale: Draws conscious attention to form after a meaning-focused task, helping to restructure interlanguage and combat fossilization.

2.4 From Theory To Classroom Practice: Implications And Applications

The journey through SLA theory and research ultimately finds its purpose in the classroom. This final section synthesizes the key insights from the previous pages into actionable principles, clarifies common misunderstandings, and models how to critically evaluate teaching practices through an SLA lens.

2.4.1 Principles for Effective L2 Teaching

Drawing on the major paradigms and core constructs, we can distill the following evidence-informed principles for teaching English as a second or foreign language:

1. **Prioritize Comprehensible Input at an Appropriate Level:** Learning requires a constant diet of language that learners can largely understand. This does not mean overly simplified language, but rather rich, engaging spoken and written texts made accessible through context, visuals, and scaffolding. The goal is to provide ample $i+1$ to fuel the acquisition process (Krashen, 1982; Lightbown & Spada, 2021).
2. **Create Abundant Opportunities for Meaningful Interaction:** Language is a tool for communication, and it is honed through use. Classroom tasks must require learners to exchange real information, negotiate meaning, and collaborate to achieve a goal. This interaction drives the cognitive processes of attention, hypothesis testing, and feedback reception central to Long's (1996) Interaction Hypothesis.
3. **Push for Pushed, Coherent Output:** Fluency and accuracy develop when learners are required to produce language that stretches their current competence. Tasks should move beyond single-word answers or formulaic exchanges, encouraging learners to produce connected, longer stretches of discourse to express their own ideas, thereby activating the noticing and metalinguistic functions of output (Swain, 2005).
4. **Provide Developmentally-Sensitive Feedback:** Feedback should be tailored to the learner, the task, and the error. Implicit feedback like recasts may work for salient errors, while prompts that lead to self-correction are powerful for engaging deeper processing and are more effective for learners with higher analytic ability (Lyster & Saito, 2013). The timing is also crucial; feedback is often most useful during or after meaning-focused tasks, not as an interruption.
5. **Attend to Learner Affect and Individual Differences:** A learner's motivation, identity, anxiety, and aptitude are not peripheral concerns; they are central to the learning process. Effective

instruction differentiates content, process, and product to honor diverse learner profiles and actively builds a classroom community that lowers the affective filter and fosters a growth mindset (Dewaele et al., 2019).

6. **View Learner Errors as Windows into the Interlanguage System:** Errors are not to be feared or merely corrected. They are vital diagnostic data. Systematic error analysis reveals the learner's current hypotheses and developmental stage, allowing the teacher to provide targeted, principled support that moves the interlanguage forward, rather than simply imposing external rules (Han, 2023).

2.4.2 Debunking Popular Myths

Several persistent myths about language learning can misguide teaching practice. It is essential to address these with evidence.

Myth: "Languages are learned just like the first language (L1)."

Reality: While both processes draw on similar cognitive mechanisms, L2 acquisition is fundamentally different. Adults have a fully developed L1 system (which can both facilitate and interfere), greater metalinguistic awareness, varied motivations, and, crucially, less time and immersion. Teaching must account for these differences, leveraging adults' strengths while compensating for the lack of a child's immersive environment (Ortega, 2014).

Myth: "Practice makes perfect."

Reality: Not all practice is equal. Mindless, mechanical drill practice often leads to inert knowledge that doesn't transfer to communication. Effective practice is deliberate practice: focused, meaning-embedded, and designed to address specific gaps in performance, with clear goals and feedback (DeKeyser, 2020). It is the quality and context of practice, not just the quantity, that matters.

Myth: "The younger, the better."

Reality: This is a dangerous oversimplification of the age factor. While younger learners may achieve more native-like ultimate attainment in phonology, older learners have significant advantages in rate of learning, especially in early stages, due to cognitive maturity and learning strategies. The key implication is that optimal instruction varies with age, focusing on implicit, playful acquisition for children and balancing implicit exposure with explicit instruction and strategy use for adolescents and adults (Muñoz & Singleton, 2011).

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APPROACHES AND METHODS IN ELT

By Novika Amalia, M.Pd.

3.1 Overview of Approaches and Methods in ELT

English Language Teaching has developed through a wide range of approaches and methods that reflect changing views about the nature of language, how languages are learned, and how they should be taught. An understanding of these approaches and methods is essential for teachers because they shape classroom practices, instructional decisions, and learning outcomes. Rather than prescribing fixed procedures, contemporary ELT views approaches and methods as resources that teachers can adapt to specific teaching contexts and learner needs (Brown, 2014; Harmer, 2007).

a. Definition of approach, method, and technique

In ELT literature, a clear distinction is often made between approach, method, and technique. An approach refers to a set of assumptions and beliefs about the nature of language and language learning. It is theoretical in nature and provides the foundation for teaching decisions. A method is a systematic plan for presenting language material in the classroom, based on a particular approach. It outlines the roles of teachers and learners, the types of activities used, and the sequencing of instruction. Techniques are the specific classroom practices or activities that teachers use to implement a

method, such as drills, role plays, or information gap tasks (Freeman and Freeman, 2008; Brown and Lee, 2015). This hierarchy highlights that techniques are classroom level actions, while methods and approaches operate at broader conceptual levels.

b. Historical development of ELT methods

The history of ELT methods reflects broader developments in linguistics, psychology, and education. Early methods, such as the Grammar Translation Method, were strongly influenced by classical language teaching traditions and emphasized written language and formal grammar. In the mid twentieth century, structural linguistics and behaviorist psychology led to methods such as the Audio Lingual Method, which focused on habit formation through repetition and drills. Later, dissatisfaction with purely structural approaches contributed to the rise of communicative approaches, which emphasized meaning, interaction, and real world language use (Richards and Renandya, 2002). This historical progression shows that methods often emerge as responses to perceived weaknesses in earlier practices rather than as complete replacements.

c. Relationship between language theory, learning theory, and teaching practice

Approaches and methods in ELT are closely linked to theories of language and learning. Language theory addresses what language is, for example as a system of structures or as a tool for communication. Learning theory explains how languages are acquired, such as through habit formation, cognitive processing, or social interaction. Teaching practice translates these theories into classroom procedures and activities. For instance, structural views of language combined with behaviorist learning theory produced highly controlled, form focused instruction, while functional views of language and interactionist

learning theories encouraged communicative and task based practices (Brown, 2014; Surkamp and Viebrock, 2018). Understanding these relationships helps teachers evaluate why certain methods emphasize specific skills or activities.

d. From teacher centered to learner centered instruction

Over time, ELT has moved from teacher centered instruction toward learner centered approaches. Traditional classrooms positioned the teacher as the primary source of knowledge and authority, with learners expected to memorize and reproduce language forms. Contemporary approaches emphasize learners' active participation, individual differences, and communicative needs. Teachers are increasingly seen as facilitators who design meaningful learning opportunities and support learner autonomy (Harmer, 2007; Brown and Lee, 2015). This shift reflects broader educational trends that value engagement, collaboration, and the development of communicative competence rather than mere grammatical accuracy.

3.2 Traditional and Structural Methods

Traditional and structural methods played a foundational role in the development of ELT and continue to influence classroom practices today. These methods are characterized by a strong focus on language forms, accuracy, and systematic instruction. While often criticized for their limitations, they provide important insights into how language teaching has evolved and why newer approaches emerged.

a. Grammar Translation Method

The Grammar Translation Method is one of the earliest and most enduring methods in language teaching. It was originally developed for teaching classical languages such as Latin and Greek and later applied to modern foreign languages. The primary focus of this method is on reading and writing, with little attention given to

speaking and listening. Instruction typically involves the explicit teaching of grammatical rules, memorization of vocabulary lists, and translation of texts between the target language and the learners' first language (Freeman and Freeman, 2008).

One strength of the Grammar Translation Method is its systematic treatment of grammar, which can help learners develop analytical skills and a strong understanding of sentence structure. It is also relatively easy to implement in large classes and contexts where resources are limited. However, the method has significant limitations in modern communicative classrooms. Learners often gain little ability to use the language for real communication, and lessons may become teacher centered and monotonous. As Brown (2014) notes, the lack of attention to oral skills and meaningful interaction makes this method insufficient for developing communicative competence.

b. Audio Lingual Method

The Audio Lingual Method emerged in the mid twentieth century, influenced by structural linguistics and behaviorist psychology. Language was viewed as a system of habits, and learning was believed to occur through stimulus response reinforcement. As a result, classroom instruction emphasized listening and speaking before reading and writing, with extensive use of drills, pattern practice, and repetition (Richards and Renandya, 2002).

Typical Audio Lingual classrooms involve dialogue memorization, substitution drills, and minimal use of the learners' first language. Errors are discouraged because they are seen as the formation of bad habits. One advantage of this method is its focus on pronunciation and automaticity, which can help learners gain confidence in producing correct language forms. However, critics argue that it neglects meaning and creativity, and that learners may be unable to transfer practiced patterns to real communicative situations.

Research on second language acquisition later challenged the behaviorist assumptions underlying the method, leading to a decline in its popularity (Brown and Lee, 2015).

c. Direct Method

The Direct Method developed as a reaction against the Grammar Translation Method. It emphasizes direct exposure to the target language, with instruction conducted entirely in that language. Oral communication is prioritized, and grammar is taught inductively through examples rather than explicit explanations. Vocabulary is introduced through demonstration, pictures, and real objects, aiming to create a natural learning environment similar to first language acquisition (Harmer, 2007).

The Direct Method encourages active learner participation and helps develop listening and speaking skills more effectively than earlier traditional methods. Its emphasis on meaning and use makes it more engaging for learners. However, it also has practical limitations. It requires highly proficient teachers, small class sizes, and significant time, which may not be feasible in many educational contexts. Additionally, the lack of explicit grammar instruction can be challenging for learners who prefer analytical explanations (Freeman and Freeman, 2008).

Overall, traditional and structural methods provide valuable historical and pedagogical insights. While they may not fully meet the demands of contemporary ELT, understanding their principles allows teachers to make informed decisions and selectively integrate useful elements into modern, communicative classrooms.

3.3 Communicative and Functional Approaches

Communicative and functional approaches represent a major shift in English Language Teaching from a primary focus on linguistic

forms to an emphasis on meaning, use, and communication. These approaches are grounded in the view that language is best learned through using it for authentic purposes rather than through isolated practice of grammatical structures. They respond to the limitations of traditional and structural methods by prioritizing learners' ability to communicate effectively in real life contexts (Harmer, 2007; Richards and Renandya, 2002).

a. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

Communicative Language Teaching is one of the most influential approaches in modern ELT. Its central goal is the development of communicative competence, which includes not only grammatical knowledge but also sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competence. Learners are encouraged to use language to express meaning, negotiate understanding, and accomplish communicative goals in realistic situations (Brown, 2014).

In CLT classrooms, real life language use is emphasized through activities such as role plays, simulations, discussions, and problem-solving tasks. Authentic materials, including newspapers, videos, and everyday texts, are commonly used to expose learners to natural language. The teacher's role shifts from being the sole authority to a facilitator who creates opportunities for interaction and guides learners in using language meaningfully (Brown and Lee, 2015).

A central issue in CLT is the balance between fluency and accuracy. Fluency refers to the ability to communicate smoothly and effectively, even if errors occur, while accuracy involves the correct use of grammatical forms and vocabulary. CLT generally prioritizes fluency, especially in the early stages of communication, allowing learners to focus on meaning before form. However, accuracy is not ignored. Instead, it is addressed through feedback, focused practice, and reflection, often after communicative activities have taken place.

This balanced view acknowledges that effective communication requires both meaningful interaction and sufficient control of language forms (Harmer, 2007).

b. Functional Notional Approach

The Functional Notional Approach emerged as part of the broader communicative movement and focuses on what learners do with language rather than on the structures they learn. Language is organized around functions, such as requesting, apologizing, or suggesting, and notions, such as time, quantity, or location. This approach reflects the idea that language learning should be closely aligned with learners' communicative needs (Richards and Renandya, 2002).

In this approach, syllabus design is based on an analysis of learners' purposes for learning English. For example, learners who need English for academic study may focus on functions such as describing processes or presenting arguments, while learners in workplace contexts may prioritize functions related to giving instructions or negotiating. This needs-based orientation makes the Functional Notional Approach flexible and context sensitive.

One strength of this approach is its relevance to real world communication. Learners can immediately see the practical value of what they are learning. However, critics argue that focusing too narrowly on functions may lead to insufficient attention to grammatical development. As a result, many teachers integrate functional notions with form focused instruction to ensure balanced language development (Brown, 2014).

c. Task Based Language Teaching (TBLT)

Task Based Language Teaching is a further development of communicative principles, placing tasks at the core of instruction. A

task is defined as an activity in which learners use language to achieve a meaningful outcome, such as solving a problem, planning an event, or completing a project. The focus is on meaning rather than on explicit language forms during task performance (Brown and Lee, 2015).

In TBLT, learning is believed to occur through meaning focused interaction. As learners work together to complete tasks, they negotiate meaning, notice gaps in their language knowledge, and modify their output. This process supports language acquisition by connecting form and meaning in authentic contexts. Typically, TBLT lessons include a pre task phase, a task cycle, and a post task phase, allowing for preparation, interaction, and reflection (Richards and Renandya, 2002).

While TBLT offers strong support for communicative development, it also presents challenges. Designing appropriate tasks and assessing learning outcomes can be demanding, particularly in exam-oriented contexts. Nevertheless, TBLT remains a widely adopted approach because of its strong theoretical foundation and practical relevance to real life language use.

3.4 Learner Centered and Humanistic Methods

Learner centered and humanistic methods emphasize the role of the learner as an active participant in the learning process. These methods are based on the belief that language learning is not only a cognitive activity but also a social and emotional experience. Attention is given to learners' needs, interests, feelings, and personal development, which are seen as crucial factors in successful language learning (Brown, 2014; Surkamp and Viebrock, 2018).

a. Cooperative Language Learning

Cooperative Language Learning focuses on group work, collaboration, and social interaction as key mechanisms for language

development. Learners work together in pairs or small groups to complete tasks, solve problems, or create shared products. This approach is grounded in social interactionist views of language learning, which emphasize the importance of interaction and negotiation of meaning (Brown and Lee, 2015).

In cooperative classrooms, each learner has a role and responsibility, promoting positive interdependence and individual accountability. Group activities encourage learners to use language for authentic communication while developing social skills such as teamwork and conflict resolution. Research suggests that cooperative learning can increase motivation, reduce anxiety, and create a supportive learning environment. However, effective implementation requires careful planning, clear instructions, and active teacher monitoring to ensure equal participation and meaningful interaction (Harmer, 2007).

b. Content Based Instruction

Content Based Instruction integrates language learning with subject matter content, such as science, history, or social studies. Language is not taught as an isolated subject but as a medium for learning and understanding content. This approach reflects the idea that language is best learned when it is used for meaningful and cognitively engaging purposes (Richards and Renandya, 2002).

In Content Based Instruction, learners develop language skills while acquiring knowledge in other areas. This integration can enhance motivation because learners see language as a tool for accessing information and expressing ideas. It also supports academic language development, particularly for learners who need English for educational or professional contexts. Challenges include the need for teachers to balance language and content objectives and to provide adequate support for learners with limited language proficiency

(Brown, 2014).

c. Humanistic approaches

Humanistic approaches place strong emphasis on affective factors, motivation, and learner autonomy. These approaches recognize that emotions, attitudes, and self confidence significantly influence language learning. Creating a positive, low anxiety classroom environment is therefore considered essential (Freeman and Freeman, 2008).

In humanistic classrooms, learners are encouraged to take responsibility for their own learning, set goals, and reflect on their progress. Activities often involve personal expression, reflection, and meaningful interaction. The teacher's role is that of a facilitator rather than an authority figure, guiding learners and supporting their personal and linguistic development. While humanistic approaches may be difficult to implement in highly structured or exam focused contexts, their principles continue to inform modern ELT practices by highlighting the importance of learner engagement, autonomy, and emotional well being.

3.5 Post Method Pedagogy and Classroom Application

The development of post method pedagogy marks a significant stage in the evolution of English Language Teaching. After decades of adopting and replacing methods, scholars and practitioners increasingly recognized that no single method can adequately address the diverse realities of language classrooms. Teaching contexts vary widely in terms of learners' backgrounds, institutional demands, cultural expectations, and available resources. As a result, post method pedagogy emphasizes principled flexibility and teacher agency rather than strict adherence to prescribed methods (Brown, 2014; Richards and Renandya, 2002).

a. Limitations of method-based teaching

Method based teaching assumes that a particular method can be applied universally and produce predictable outcomes. In practice, this assumption often fails. Methods are typically developed in specific sociocultural and educational contexts, which may not align with local classroom realities. Teachers may also feel constrained by rigid procedures that limit their responsiveness to learners' needs. Freeman and Freeman (2008) argue that methods can oversimplify the complex nature of teaching by reducing it to a set of techniques. Additionally, strict reliance on methods may discourage teacher creativity and critical reflection, leading to mechanical instruction rather than meaningful learning experiences.

b. Principles of post method pedagogy

Post method pedagogy proposes an alternative framework grounded in three key principles, namely particularity, practicality, and possibility. Particularity emphasizes that language teaching must be sensitive to specific contexts, including learners' linguistic, social, and cultural backgrounds. What works in one classroom may not be effective in another. Practicality highlights the importance of teachers generating knowledge from their own practice rather than relying solely on external theories. Teachers are viewed as reflective practitioners who develop context relevant strategies through experience and inquiry (Brown and Lee, 2015). Possibility focuses on the broader social and ideological dimensions of language teaching. It encourages teachers to consider how language education can empower learners, support identity development, and address issues of equity and access. Together, these principles position teachers as active decision makers rather than passive users of methods.

c. Eclectic and adaptive teaching

In classroom practice, post method pedagogy often results in eclectic and adaptive teaching. Eclecticism involves selecting techniques and procedures from different approaches based on their suitability for specific teaching goals and learner characteristics. Rather than combining methods randomly, principled eclecticism requires teachers to make informed choices grounded in theory and reflection (Harmer, 2007). Adaptive teaching further emphasizes responsiveness to learners' progress, feedback, and emerging needs. For example, a teacher may begin a lesson with a communicative task, provide explicit grammar support when difficulties arise, and later use cooperative activities to reinforce learning. This flexible approach allows teachers to balance fluency and accuracy, meaning and form, and structure and creativity.

d. Implications for teachers

Post method pedagogy has important implications for teachers' professional roles. Teachers are expected to engage in reflective practice by analyzing their teaching decisions, classroom interactions, and learning outcomes. Reflection helps teachers identify what works, what does not, and why. Informed decision making also requires a solid understanding of language learning theories, teaching approaches, and learner variables. Brown (2014) emphasizes that effective teachers are those who can justify their pedagogical choices based on both theory and classroom evidence. Ultimately, post method pedagogy promotes teacher autonomy, professionalism, and continuous development.

3.6 Summary

Here is the summary of the chapter, presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Summary of Approaches and Methods in ELT

Level	Category	Key Characteristics	Examples
Theory	Language Theory	View of what language is and how it functions	Structural, Functional, Interactional
	Learning Theory	Explanation of how languages are learned	Behaviorist, Cognitive, Social, Humanistic
Approach	Traditional / Structural	Focus on language forms, accuracy, and structure	Structural approach
	Communicative / Functional	Focus on meaning, use, and communication	Communicative approach
	Learner Centered / Humanistic	Focus on learner needs, emotions, and autonomy	Humanistic approach
	Post Method Pedagogy	Context sensitive, flexible, teacher driven	Eclectic approach
Method	Grammar Translation Method	Emphasis on grammar rules, translation, reading and writing	Translation exercises
	Audio Lingual Method	Habit formation through drills and repetition	Pattern practice
	Direct Method	Target language use, oral communication	Question answer practice
	Communicative Language Teaching	Real life communication and interaction	Role play, discussion
	Functional	Language functions	Needs based

	Notional Approach	and notions	syllabus
	Task Based Language Teaching	Meaning focused tasks as instruction core	Problem solving tasks
	Cooperative Learning	Collaborative learning through interaction	Group projects
	Content Based Instruction	Language learned through subject content	Theme based units
Technique	Classroom Practices	Specific activities used by teachers	Drills, tasks, games, projects

3.7 Reflection

Read the classroom scenario below and complete the reflection tasks that follow. This activity is designed to help you apply the concepts of approaches, methods, and post method pedagogy discussed in this chapter to a realistic teaching context.

Classroom scenario

You are teaching English in a secondary school classroom with the following characteristics.

- Students have mixed proficiency levels.
- The curriculum is exam oriented, with strong emphasis on grammar and reading.
- Students are reluctant to speak English and show low confidence in oral activities.
- Class time is limited, and classes are relatively large.

Reflection tasks

1. Identifying relevant approaches and methods

- Which traditional or structural methods are currently reflected in this classroom practice.
 - Which communicative or learner centered approaches could help address the lack of speaking confidence.
2. Selecting teaching strategies
 - Identify one communicative activity that could be realistically implemented in this context.
 - Suggest one way to integrate grammar instruction into a communicative or task-based activity.
 3. Applying post method principles
 - How does the principle of particularity influence your choice of teaching strategies for this class.
 - In what ways can you adapt methods to suit learners' proficiency levels and exam demands.
 4. Teacher reflection and decision making
 - What challenges might arise when implementing more communicative activities.
 - How would you evaluate whether the adapted approach is effective for your students.

Use your responses to reflect on how informed, flexible, and context sensitive teaching decisions can support both language learning goals and classroom realities.

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TEACHING LISTENING SKILL

by Fahmi Hidayat, M.Pd.

4.1 The Complex Nature of Listening: Micro-Skills and Processing

Jack C. Richards fundamentally views listening not as a single, passive reception skill, but as a complex act requiring the simultaneous deployment of numerous micro-skills (Richards, 2005). These include highly specific abilities such as identifying the rhythmic stress in a sentence, recognizing the emotional tone carried by a speaker's intonation, and segmenting continuous speech into meaningful phrases and sentences. His theoretical framework suggests that effective listening demands the rapid, fluent execution of these micro-skills, often performed subconsciously, distinguishing skilled listeners from those who struggle to keep up with the pace of authentic spoken English.

Richards fundamentally views listening not as a single, passive reception skill, but as a complex act requiring the simultaneous deployment of numerous micro-skills. These specific abilities such as distinguishing phonemes, recognizing rhythmic stress, and identifying the speaker's illocutionary intent are performed rapidly to decode incoming speech. Furthermore, Park et al. discuss how frontal top-down signals can enhance the auditory processing of speech by

increasing the coupling of auditory oscillations, particularly when the input is less intelligible (Park et al., 2015). Such findings affirm Richards' notion that both processing types must work harmoniously for effective comprehension, underscoring the significance of active engagement and prediction in the listening process.

a. Bottom-Up Processing

Richards' primary theoretical contribution is the classification of listening into two complementary cognitive pathways. The first is Bottom-Up Processing, which involves the listener building meaning from the smallest units of language upwards. This begins with decoding individual sounds (phonemes), combining them into words, recognizing grammatical structures, and eventually interpreting the literal meaning of a message. This process is crucial because if learners cannot accurately perceive the sounds and words being spoken, they cannot effectively move to deeper comprehension.

1. Practical Application: A Focus on Bottom-Up Instruction

The practical application of Richards' theory requires systematically developing these micro-skills. To enhance bottom-up processing, teachers should incorporate tasks that force learners to focus intensely on the acoustic signal. This involves activities like selective listening for function words (e.g., the, an, is), which are often unstressed and difficult to catch, or focused exercises on suprasegmental features like pitch and rhythm. The goal is to make the decoding process more automatic, freeing up cognitive resources for higher-level comprehension.

2. Classroom Activity for Bottom-Up Skill Development

A powerful classroom activity for boosting bottom-up skills is "Vowel and Consonant Discrimination." The teacher prepares sentences containing minimal pairs (e.g., "The light was too late for the

show"). Students listen to the sentence and must identify and circle the two specific words that are differentiated by a single sound. A variation is using "Intonation Identification," where students listen to a spoken sentence like "You're going to the party?" (spoken with rising or falling intonation) and simply indicate whether the speaker is asking a question or making a statement.

b. Top-Down Processing

The second pathway is Top-Down Processing, where the listener uses context, general knowledge, cultural awareness, and expectations (or schemata) to interpret and predict the message's content. Instead of starting with the sounds, the listener begins with an overall sense of what they expect to hear, allowing them to fill in gaps and anticipate the speaker's direction. According to Richards, both bottom-up decoding and top-down interpretation must be trained explicitly, as proficiency in one does not automatically guarantee proficiency in the other; fluent comprehension relies on their dynamic, synchronized interaction.

1. Practical Top-down Instruction

To practice top-down processing, a highly effective classroom sequence is the "Predictive Pre-Listening Task." Before playing an audio (e.g., a news report on climate change), the teacher provides the title, accompanying headline image, and a list of three potential sub-topics. Students then spend two minutes in pairs discussing what vocabulary they expect to hear and which of the three sub-topics is most likely to be addressed first. After listening for the gist (the main idea), they check their predictions, supporting the use of prior knowledge and context as a comprehension aid, which is key to Richards' methodology.

2. Classroom Activity for Top-Down Skill Development

In a Jigsaw Listening activity, the focus is placed on using context and expectation to build overall meaning. The teacher first divides a narrative or informational audio into several segments (A, B, C, etc.). Each group of students receives the text/transcript of only one of the segments (e.g., Group 1 gets segment A, Group 2 gets B). Students read their segment and, based on its content, must predict and discuss what is likely to happen next in the story or what information the speaker is likely to convey next. After this prediction phase, the entire audio is played. The class then checks their predictions against the actual audio. This process encourages students to actively engage their schema (prior knowledge and expectations) to bridge the information gaps, thus strengthening the crucial top-down cognitive process.

4.2 Focus on Acoustic-Phonetic Processing

John Field's significant theoretical contribution to English Language Teaching (ELT) focuses squarely on the fundamental cognitive bottlenecks that second language (L2) listeners encounter (Field, 2009). His research highlights that comprehension breakdown frequently occurs not at the high level of interpreting meaning or context (Top-Down processing), but at the initial, foundational stages of processing the actual sound. Specifically, he identifies the core challenges as difficulties in acoustic-phonetic processing and the ability to correctly perceive and categorize the sounds of English and lexical segmentation, which is the critical skill of distinguishing and separating individual words within the rapid, continuous flow of spoken speech

In the field of English Language Teaching (ELT), a significant challenge arises from conventional approaches to second language (L2) listening instruction, which often overlook the intricate acoustic dimensions of language comprehension. According to Field, the prevalent "listen-and-test" paradigm emphasizes immediate

assessments of overall comprehension without addressing the root causes of learners' difficulties in processing spoken language. This framework highlights the importance of understanding comprehension breakdowns that typically occur at a level below individual word. Field argues for a shift in instructional focus to the micro-skills of perception, which include recognizing phonemes, understanding unstressed function words, and deciphering features of connected speech like elision (Vandergrift, 2004) (Wong et al., 2015).

Research validates Field's assertions, emphasizing that successful listening requires diagnosis of specific perceptual challenges faced by learners. For instance, Vandergrift suggests that comprehensive listening instruction should involve teaching students not simply to listen but to "learn to listen," thereby enhancing their ability to connect sounds and meanings (Vandergrift, 2004). This echoes the findings of Wong et al., who provide evidence that ESL learners struggle with reduced forms and connected speech, emphasizing the need for targeted instruction in recognizing such phonological features to improve overall comprehension (Wong et al., 2015).

a. Practical application

The practical application of Field's principles transforms classroom listening practice. Teachers are encouraged to incorporate diagnostic listening tasks where learners listen to very short segments of speech and are asked to articulate precisely where their understanding concluded. This is often followed by intensive practice aimed at training the internal "parser" the cognitive mechanism responsible for decoding to process rapid speech more efficiently and automatically, thereby addressing the root cause of the difficulty.

b. Classroom activity

Key classroom activities based on Field's work involve exercises

that draw intense attention to the acoustic signal and features of connected speech. One such activity is "transcribing what you think you hear," where the emphasis is on accurately representing the sound, not the meaning, of a short phrase. Other practices include focused tasks on word-spotting and recognizing frequently unstressed but grammatically crucial function words (e.g., a, the, is, have), which L2 listeners often filter out due to their low acoustic which is important in natural speech.

4.3 Teaching Listening through Metacognition

Larry Vandergrift is the leading figure encouraging for a metacognitive approach to L2 listening instruction. His central theory is that effective listening is not merely about possessing strong linguistic skills, but rather about the listener's conscious awareness and management of their own cognitive processes. He suggests that skillful listeners are those who can plan, monitor, evaluate, and manage their listening strategies actively. Consequently, Vandergrift argues that the true measure of effective listening instruction lies in teaching learners how to listen, rather than simply offering more passive exposure to spoken language (Goh and Vandergrift, 2012).

Vandergrift's framework of metacognition in listening categorizes it into three essential components: Person knowledge, Task knowledge, and Strategy knowledge. Each of these elements plays a critical role in enhancing listeners' effectiveness and engagement in listening activities.

1. Person Knowledge

Person knowledge requires learners to develop an awareness of their individual listening strengths and weaknesses. Vandergrift emphasizes this facet, noting that "listeners who have a clear understanding of their capabilities and limitations as listeners are better equipped to approach listening tasks" (Vandergrift, 2003). This level of self-

awareness enables learners to recognize, for example, "I am good at catching the gist but struggle with technical details," allowing them to implement appropriate strategies tailored to their needs.

2. Task Knowledge

Task knowledge involves learners accurately discerning the objective of a listening activity. Recognizing whether they are listening for specific facts or the overall main idea fundamentally alters how learners approach listening tasks. Vandergrift's research articulates that "successful listeners analyze task requirements to activate relevant listening processes" (Vandergrift, 2003). This understanding is paramount as it guides learners to utilize the right strategies depending on the task at hand, reinforcing their overall comprehension.

3. Strategy Knowledge

Strategy knowledge represents the learner's awareness of various techniques that can enhance listening effectiveness. Vandergrift posits that employing specific cognitive strategies, such as inferring, predicting, and pausing, is essential for navigating complex auditory material (Vandergrift, 2007). The integration of these strategies into listening instruction is supported by evidence that metacognitive strategies significantly enhance listening comprehension, allowing learners to monitor and evaluate their listening processes actively (Goh, 2008).

The empirical study conducted by Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari further clarifies that a metacognitive approach markedly improves L2 learners' listening capabilities by systematically guiding them through processes of prediction, monitoring, and evaluation in listening (Vandergrift & Tafaghodtari, 2010). This approach is crucial for fostering a deeper, more strategic engagement with auditory texts.

a. Practical application

The practical application of Vandergrift's theory is centered on guiding students through an explicit Metacognitive Cycle for every listening task. This cycle is structured into three phases to encourage conscious engagement. The Pre-listening phase involves planning and predicting based on the topic and context. The During-listening phase requires constant monitoring of comprehension and proactive identification of problems (e.g., "I missed a key word; I should pause and infer"). The Post-listening phase involves critical evaluation of both the final comprehension result and the effectiveness of the strategies used.

b. Classroom activity

A practical classroom application of these metacognitive tools is the "Guided Reflection and Strategy Workshop." In this activity, students first complete a simplified version of the MALQ to identify their current listening habits, such as whether they translate word-for-word or visualize the scene. Following this, the teacher performs a "Teacher Think-Aloud," modeling the internal dialogue used when encountering a difficult audio clip (e.g., "I don't know that word, but the speaker's tone sounds angry, so it must be a complaint"). Students then work in pairs to practice their own Think-Alouds with short, challenging recordings, taking turns listening and verbalizing their thought processes. By discussing these reflections in small groups, learners move from passive listening to active, strategic management of their comprehension, allowing them to turn identified weaknesses into targeted goals for future practice.

4.4 The Dynamics of Academic Listening and Spoken Discourse

Tony Lynch's theoretical framework addresses the unique challenges of academic listening, distinguishing it from reading due to

the ephemeral nature of spoken language. Reading allows for revisiting and reanalyzing static texts, whereas listening requires immediate comprehension and response to fleeting auditory input, as emphasized by Lynch (Levelt et al., 1999). He points out that in real-time communication, listeners face cognitive challenges that involve processing incomplete and sometimes disordered speech, characterized by features such as hesitations, self-corrections, and accents (Pickering & Garrod, 2013).

1. The Dynamic Nature of Listening

Lynch suggests that academic listening should be viewed as a dynamic, interactional process rather than a passive reception of sound. This aligns with contemporary perspectives on language processing that highlight the predictive aspects of listening. For instance, Pickering and Garrod describe how listeners engage in covert imitation and forward modeling, where predictions about upcoming utterances help in processing speech effectively (Pickering & Garrod, 2013). This notion insists that successful listening involves active participation in inferencing and anticipating spoken content, thus differentiating it from the more passive engagement often associated with reading (Vidal, 2011).

2. The Role of Authentic Speech

Moreover, Lynch's advocacy for authentic speech in language education stresses that learners often encounter "messy" realities in real-world conversations that differ significantly from the polished recordings typically presented in textbooks. The need for students to train in handling these real-life complexities is echoed by Macdonald et al., who argue for the importance of integrating authentic listening experiences into English for Specific Purposes (ESP) curricula to develop more competent listeners (Vidal, 2011). This integration

reinforces the idea that exposure to genuine communication patterns is crucial for fostering the skills necessary for academic success, as it compels students to adapt to the unpredictability of spoken language.

3. Cognitive and Social Demands in Listening

The cognitive load of managing brief acoustic signals without visual aids adds a layer of complexity to academic listening. Lynch's framework positions listening as an interaction that requires not only cognitive focus but also an awareness of social cues and contextual nuances. This multifaceted nature of listening echoes findings published by Vandergrift, who emphasizes the necessity of teaching students to "learn to listen" effectively to enhance their academic abilities in various linguistic contexts (Nagle, 2017).

a. Practical application

To prepare students for these challenges, Lynch suggests for a shift away from sophisticated textbook recordings in favor of authentic, unscripted discourse. This practice involves exposing learners to speech that includes natural pauses, fillers, and "repair" strategies used by native speakers. The goal is to help students move beyond literal decoding and begin recognizing illocutionary force the speaker's underlying intent, such as whether they are offering a subtle critique or a tentative suggestion while also training them to follow the structural "signposts" or organizational markers (e.g., "Turning now to...") that characterize academic lectures.

b. Classroom activity

A highly effective classroom activity based on Lynch's principles is the "Lecture Signpost Mapping" task. Students are given a partially completed outline or flow chart and listen to a five-minute segment of an unscripted guest lecture or a real university seminar. Instead of listening for specific facts, students must focus on

identifying the organizational markers and transitions used by the speaker (e.g., "The point I'm making is...", "Let's move on to..."). As a follow-up, students work in pairs to discuss where the speaker made "false starts" or changed their mind mid-sentence, helping them develop the resilience to stay focused despite the "noise" and unpredictability of natural academic speech.

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TEACHING READING SKILL

By Elisna Huan, S.Pd., M. Hum.

5.1. Introduction

Reading is a fundamental skill in English language learning, particularly in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) contexts. For many learners, reading serves as the primary means of accessing information, expanding vocabulary, and developing overall language proficiency. In academic settings, especially in higher education, learners rely heavily on reading to understand course materials, follow arguments, and engage with academic texts. Therefore, teaching reading goes beyond helping learners recognize words; it involves developing the cognitive and strategic skills required for effective comprehension (Grabe, 2009; Grabe & Stoller, 2011).

In many EFL contexts, including Indonesia, learners have limited opportunities to use English outside the classroom. As a result, exposure to English often occurs mainly through written texts such as textbooks, academic readings, and online materials. Reading thus becomes a major source of language input and plays a crucial role in English learning (Nation, 2009). Effective reading instruction supports language development and promotes learner autonomy, enabling students to learn independently and engage critically with a wide range of texts (Nunan, 2003).

Teaching reading is a complex process that involves several interrelated skills. Learners need to activate background knowledge, understand unfamiliar vocabulary, recognize text organization, and apply appropriate reading strategies based on their reading purposes. Reading is therefore an interactive process that integrates bottom-up skills, such as word recognition, with top-down skills, such as making predictions and drawing on prior knowledge (Anderson, 2003; Brown, 2007). To support these processes, teachers must design reading instruction that is theoretically informed, pedagogically sound, and responsive to learners' proficiency levels and needs.

5.2. Theoretical Perspective on Reading

5.2.1 Definition of Reading

Reading is widely viewed as a meaning-making process rather than a simple act of recognizing printed words. It involves active engagement in which readers construct meaning by integrating linguistic knowledge, background knowledge, and appropriate reading strategies. Grabe (2009) explains that effective reading requires rapid word recognition, efficient language processing, and the use of prior knowledge, showing that linguistic and cognitive skills operate simultaneously during reading.

From a cognitive perspective, reading involves both lower-level and higher-level processes. At the initial stages, readers need to decode written symbols to recognize words and understand sentence-level meaning. However, successful reading extends beyond decoding. It includes higher-level processes such as *interpreting ideas, making inferences, and connecting information within and across texts*, which enable readers to build coherent meaning (Nunan, 2003; Snow, 2002).

Reading is also understood as an interactive process between the reader and the text. Anderson (2003) emphasizes that readers actively interpret information based on their reading purposes,

background knowledge, and the context of the text. This interaction combines bottom-up processes, such as word recognition and grammatical analysis, with top-down processes, such as predicting meaning and activating prior knowledge. Meaning, therefore, emerges from the interaction between the reader and the text rather than from the text alone (Grabe & Stoller, 2011).

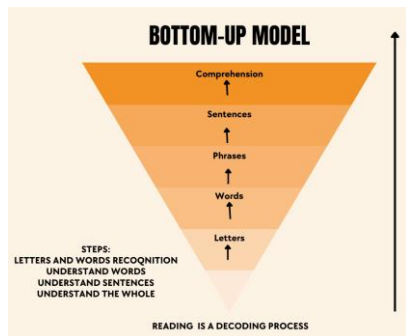
In EFL classrooms, reading becomes more challenging because learners process texts in a non-native language. EFL learners must deal with unfamiliar vocabulary and grammatical structures while simultaneously understanding the writer's ideas. When instruction focuses only on decoding, comprehension may remain limited. Therefore, effective reading instruction in EFL contexts requires an understanding of reading as both a linguistic and cognitive activity.

5.2.2 Major Reading Models

Several models have been proposed to explain how readers process written texts. In general, reading models are commonly categorized into three types, they are:

a. Bottom-up Model

The bottom-up model views reading as a process that starts with the recognition of the smallest linguistic units and gradually moves toward overall meaning. In this model, readers process letters, morphemes, syllables, words, phrases, grammatical cues, and discourse markers before constructing an understanding of the text as a whole (Brown, 2001). Meaning is achieved through accurate



decoding, with comprehension developing as each linguistic unit is successfully processed.

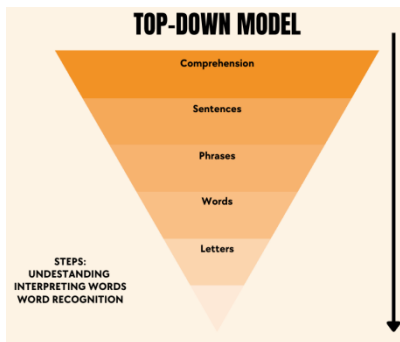
Gough describes bottom-up reading as a step-by-step decoding process in which comprehension occurs after successful word recognition. From this perspective, reading is largely text-driven, and readers depend heavily on their knowledge of vocabulary, grammar, and spelling to construct meaning. For beginning or lower-proficiency EFL learners, bottom-up processing plays an important role because limited language knowledge may restrict comprehension without strong decoding skills.

In EFL classrooms, bottom-up instruction typically focuses on vocabulary development, grammatical explanation, and recognition of textual features. Classroom activities such as phonics practice, vocabulary exercises, and close reading tasks can help learners improve accuracy and build essential reading foundations. These skills are particularly important for developing reading fluency and expanding learners' lexical knowledge.

However, the bottom-up model alone cannot fully explain how skilled readers comprehend texts. Proficient readers do not process texts word by word in a slow and linear manner; instead, they recognize words rapidly and draw on multiple sources of information to support comprehension. When reading instruction relies too heavily on bottom-up processing, learners may focus excessively on individual words and grammatical forms while missing the main ideas or overall meaning of the text (Brown, 2007). Therefore, although bottom-up skills are essential—especially for accuracy and vocabulary development—they need to be integrated with other reading processes to support effective comprehension.

b. Top-down Model

In contrast to the bottom-up model, the top-down model views reading as a reader-driven process. In this model, readers use background knowledge, prior experiences, and expectations to construct meaning from a text. Rather than focusing on every word, readers generate predictions about the content and continually confirm or revise these predictions as they read (Anderson, 2003).



Top-down reading emphasizes the role of meaning and context in comprehension. Readers approach a text with a clear purpose and draw on clues such as the title, topic, text type, and their existing knowledge to understand the message. Even when readers do not recognize all vocabulary items or grammatical structures, they may still achieve comprehension by relying on contextual information and overall meaning. This perspective highlights reading as a purposeful, meaning-oriented activity rather than a purely linguistic task.

In EFL classrooms, top-down processing is commonly supported through *pre-reading* activities that activate learners' background knowledge and set clear reading purposes. Activities such as discussing the topic, predicting content based on headings or visuals, and setting reading goals help learners focus on main ideas. For learners with limited vocabulary, top-down strategies can facilitate comprehension by reducing the need to understand every word.

However, the top-down model also has limitations when applied in isolation. Excessive reliance on background knowledge without sufficient attention to textual information may lead to misinterpretation or the neglect of important details. In EFL contexts, limited language proficiency can further restrict learners' ability to

confirm their predictions accurately. Therefore, while top-down processing supports global comprehension and reading fluency, it needs to be balanced with attention to linguistic forms to ensure accurate understanding.

c. Interactive Model

Both bottom-up and top-down models offer valuable insights into the reading process; however, when applied separately, they provide only a partial explanation of how readers construct meaning. The bottom-up model emphasizes accurate decoding and linguistic knowledge, while the top-down model highlights the role of background knowledge, reading purpose, and contextual interpretation. In actual reading situations, readers do not rely on a single type of processing. Instead, they draw simultaneously on textual information and prior knowledge. This view forms the basis of the interactive model of reading.

The interactive model conceptualizes reading as a dynamic process in which bottom-up and top-down processes operate together. Readers process words, grammatical structures, and textual features while at the same time activating prior knowledge, making predictions, and monitoring comprehension. Meaning is constructed through ongoing interaction between the reader and the text rather than through a fixed or linear sequence of steps (Grabe & Stoller, 2011).

In EFL contexts, the interactive model is widely considered the most suitable framework for understanding and teaching reading. EFL learners often experience limited language exposure and vocabulary knowledge, making it necessary to support both decoding skills and meaning-focused strategies. Through interactive processing, learners can use background knowledge to compensate for unfamiliar language while still attending to important linguistic cues in the text.

From a pedagogical perspective, the interactive model suggests that effective reading instruction should balance attention to language form and meaning. Teachers are encouraged to design reading activities that develop vocabulary and grammatical awareness while also promoting comprehension, inference, and strategic reading. Activities such as guided reading, explicit strategy instruction, and discussion-based tasks enable learners to engage actively with texts and apply multiple reading processes. By integrating bottom-up and top-down approaches, the interactive model supports flexible and effective reading comprehension in EFL classrooms.

5.3 Cognitive and Affective Factors in Reading Comprehension

Reading comprehension is influenced not only by linguistic knowledge and reading models but also by a range of *cognitive* and *affective factors*. These factors shape how learners process texts, apply reading strategies, and respond to reading tasks.

5.3.1 Cognitive Factors in Reading Comprehension.

Cognitive factors refer to the mental processes involved in constructing meaning from written texts. One of the most influential cognitive factors is background knowledge, commonly discussed in relation to *schema activation*. **Schema** refers to the mental frameworks that readers use to organize and interpret information. By drawing on prior knowledge and experiences, readers connect new information with what they already know, enabling them to make inferences and understand relationships within the text more effectively (Grabe, 2009). When relevant schema are activated, comprehension tends to be more efficient and accurate.

Conversely, limited or inappropriate background knowledge can hinder comprehension, even when readers are able to decode the text accurately. Anderson (2003) emphasizes that comprehension occurs when readers actively relate textual information to existing schema.

Without this connection, readers may struggle to understand a text despite recognizing individual words. For example, a learner may correctly identify all the words in a passage but fail to grasp its meaning if the topic is unfamiliar. To address this issue, teachers often begin reading lessons with pre-reading activities such as topic discussions, visual prompts, or guiding questions. These activities help activate relevant schema and prepare learners to interpret the text more effectively.

Vocabulary knowledge is another crucial cognitive factor in reading comprehension. Readers rely on vocabulary knowledge to access meaning, identify key ideas, and understand relationships within a text. For EFL learners, limited vocabulary frequently becomes a major barrier to comprehension, even when basic decoding skills are present. Insufficient vocabulary can overload cognitive processing and reduce learners' ability to focus on overall meaning (Nation, 2009). In addition to vocabulary, other cognitive processes such as working memory, attention, and inference-making play important roles. Readers must retain information, integrate new ideas with previous ones, and draw conclusions beyond what is explicitly stated. These processes work together to support meaning construction during reading.

Another important cognitive factor is metacognitive awareness, which refers to readers' ability to plan, monitor, and evaluate their comprehension. Skilled readers are aware of their level of understanding and can recognize when comprehension breaks down. They respond by adjusting their reading strategies, such as rereading, slowing down, or using contextual clues. Research indicates that explicit instruction in metacognitive strategies can significantly improve reading comprehension, particularly in EFL classrooms where learners benefit from guided strategy use (Anderson, 2003).

5.3.2 Affective Factors in Reading Comprehension

Affective factors relate to learners' *emotions, attitudes, and feelings* toward reading activities. Among these factors, motivation is particularly influential. Motivated learners are more likely to engage actively with texts, persist when facing difficulties, and read more extensively, all of which contribute to better comprehension (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000). In contrast, learners with low motivation often avoid reading tasks or rely on surface-level processing, which limits understanding.

Other affective factors, such as *anxiety, confidence, and reading attitudes*, also shape learners' reading performance. Many EFL learners experience anxiety when reading English texts, especially those containing unfamiliar vocabulary or cultural references. High levels of anxiety can reduce concentration and interfere with meaning construction. Conversely, learners who feel confident and hold positive attitudes toward reading are more willing to apply reading strategies, take risks, and interact meaningfully with texts (Day & Bamford, 1998).

Teachers play a crucial role in managing affective factors in the reading classroom. Reading anxiety can be reduced by selecting texts that match learners' proficiency levels, providing adequate scaffolding, and creating a supportive and non-threatening learning environment. Motivation can be enhanced by using reading materials that are relevant to learners' interests, experiences, or academic fields, as well as by offering meaningful reading tasks. When affective needs are addressed alongside cognitive demands, learners are more likely to develop positive reading habits and achieve deeper comprehension.

5.3. Reading Types and Sub-skills

In EFL classroom, understanding different types of reading and the sub-skills involved allows teachers to design lessons that support comprehension and strategic reading.

5.3.1 Intensive and Extensive Reading

a. Intensive Reading

Intensive reading refers to careful and detailed reading of relatively short texts with the aim of understanding language features, specific information, or particular ideas. Richards (2001) describes intensive reading as a classroom-based approach in which learners closely examine vocabulary, grammatical structures, and text organization in order to develop accuracy. The texts used in intensive reading are typically short passages, paragraphs, or selected excerpts chosen for specific instructional purposes.

In classroom practice, intensive reading is particularly useful for helping learners understand complex sentence structures, acquire new vocabulary, and develop comprehension skills in a systematic way. Teachers typically guide learners through the text by providing explanations, asking comprehension questions, and drawing attention to important linguistic and textual features. Through this guided process, learners develop greater accuracy and awareness of how English functions in written form.

However, because intensive reading requires sustained attention and detailed analysis, it can become tiring or demotivating if overused. Therefore, intensive reading should be balanced with other types of reading activities that allow learners to read more naturally and fluently.

b. Extensive Reading

Extensive reading involves reading longer texts for general understanding, enjoyment, and increased exposure to language. Day and Bamford (1998), who are widely recognized for promoting

extensive reading, argue that learners acquire language more naturally when they read large amounts of material that is easy, interesting, and appropriate to their proficiency level. Unlike intensive reading, the primary goal of extensive reading is the development of reading fluency rather than linguistic accuracy.

Extensive reading activities may include reading graded readers, short stories, novels, news articles, or online texts. Learners are encouraged to choose texts that interest them, read independently, and build regular reading habits over time. Extensive reading supports vocabulary growth, increases reading speed, and enhances learners' confidence as readers. It also promotes learner autonomy, as students read by choice rather than solely to complete classroom tasks.

5.3.2 Skimming and Scanning

Skimming and scanning are two important strategies used to locate information quickly and efficiently. Both are essential for academic reading and everyday tasks, especially when dealing with longer texts or have limited time for reading.

a) Skimming. Skimming is a reading strategy used to quickly grasp the general idea or overall meaning of a text. Nuttall (2005) explains that skimming enables readers to obtain the *gist* of a passage without focusing on specific details. When skimming, readers typically pay attention to *titles, subtitles, headings, topic sentences*, and other textual cues that signal the main ideas. Skimming is especially useful for previewing a text, determining its relevance, or gaining an overview before reading more carefully. For EFL learners, this strategy helps reduce reading anxiety and builds confidence when dealing with unfamiliar texts, as the focus is on global understanding rather than complete or detailed comprehension.

b) Scanning. Scanning is a reading strategy used to locate specific information in a text quickly. Rather than reading every word,

readers move their eyes rapidly to find particular words, phrases, or details. Scanning is commonly applied when *reading timetables, tables, online information, or academic texts that require searching for precise information*. According to Grellet (1981), scanning is an efficient strategy because it allows readers to ignore irrelevant information and focus only on what is needed. In classroom practice, teachers can develop learners' scanning skills by assigning tasks such as *locating dates, names, definitions, or numerical data within a text*. This strategy helps learners read more purposefully and manage academic reading tasks more effectively.

5.3.3 Reading Sub-skills

Reading comprehension involves a combination of smaller skills that help learners interpret, evaluate, and construct meaning from texts. The reading sub-skills are:

a. Predicting. Predicting is a reading sub-skill that involves using textual clues, such as titles, pictures, headings, or topic sentences to anticipate what a text will be about. Wallace (1992) explains that prediction activates readers' prior knowledge and prepares them to process new information. When learners make predictions, they read more actively and purposefully. Teachers can encourage this skill by asking questions such as *What do you think this text will discuss?* or *What might happen next?* Predicting is particularly effective in the *pre-reading* stage and can also be used during reading to maintain engagement and focus.

b. Inferring. Inferring refers to the ability to understand information that is implied rather than explicitly stated. This sub-skill requires readers to combine textual clues with background knowledge to construct meaning. Smith describes inference as "*reading between the lines,*" a process that allows readers to grasp implicit ideas, emotions, and relationships within a text. In classroom practice, inference skills can be developed through questions that prompt learners to deduce

motives, causes, or implications based on textual evidence. This skill is essential for deeper comprehension, especially in narrative and argumentative texts.

c. Identifying Main Ideas and Supporting Details. The ability to identify main ideas is a key component of academic reading. Skilled readers are able to distinguish central ideas from supporting details that explain, exemplify, or reinforce them (Koda, 2005). This skill enables learners to summarize texts, organize information, and engage in critical reading. Teachers can support learners by demonstrating how topic sentences, headings, and recurring themes signal main ideas. Supporting details, such as examples, explanations, or statistical information, help clarify and strengthen the text's central message.

d. Understanding Text Structure. Texts are organized differently depending on their purpose and genre. Understanding text structure helps readers anticipate the flow of information and recognize relationships between ideas. Meyer (1985) identifies several common text structures, including description, comparison, cause and effect, problem–solution, and chronological order. Teaching learners to recognize these organizational patterns can significantly enhance comprehension, particularly when reading complex academic texts. Graphic organizers such as charts, diagrams, and concept maps are effective tools for helping learners analyze and visualize text organization.

e. Vocabulary Building through Reading. Vocabulary development is closely connected to reading comprehension. Nation (2001) emphasizes that learners acquire vocabulary more effectively when they encounter words repeatedly in meaningful contexts. Through reading, learners are exposed to a wide range of vocabulary, collocations, and expressions that may not appear in isolated vocabulary exercises. Teachers can support vocabulary learning by encouraging learners to notice unfamiliar words, infer meanings from

context, and record new vocabulary for later review. Extensive reading, in particular, plays an important role in vocabulary growth by providing large amounts of comprehensible input.

5.4. Teaching Approaches and Strategies

Teaching reading requires a thoughtful combination of approaches and strategies that help learners engage with texts, process information, and develop comprehension skills.

5.4.1 Teaching Approaches

Teaching approaches commonly applied in EFL classrooms that support effective reading instruction are as follow:

a. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) emphasizes meaningful communication as the central goal of language learning. Richards (2006) notes that CLT encourages learners to use language through real-life tasks and authentic interaction. When applied to reading instruction, CLT views texts not merely as linguistic objects to be analyzed, but as sources of meaningful communication.

In a CLT-oriented reading lesson, learners read texts for specific communicative purposes. For example, they may read a news article to discuss current issues, read instructions to solve a problem, or read stories to express opinions about characters and events. The focus is not limited to answering comprehension questions, but extends to how learners use information from the text. Activities such as discussion, pair work, and collaborative tasks typically follow the reading stage. Overall, CLT supports the view that reading should be purposeful, contextualized, and closely connected to learners' real-life needs, thereby making reading activities more engaging and meaningful.

b. Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT)

Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) places tasks at the center of language instruction. Ellis (2003) defines a task as an activity in which learners use language to achieve a specific outcome, such as solving a problem or completing a project. In reading instruction, TBLT encourages teachers to design tasks that reflect real-world literacy practices.

For instance, learners may read hotel descriptions to select suitable accommodation, compare product reviews to make decisions, or read multiple texts to prepare a presentation. These tasks require learners to process texts with a clear purpose, thereby strengthening comprehension and critical thinking skills.

c. Genre-based Approach

The genre-based approach, widely implemented in many Asian EFL contexts, including Indonesia, focuses on helping learners understand how texts are structured and how language functions within different genres. Martin and Rose (2007) explain that genres are shaped by social purposes, such as recounting events, explaining processes, or presenting arguments.

In reading instruction, this approach supports learners in recognizing common organizational patterns, for example: **Narrative texts** typically follow *an orientation–complication–resolution structure*, **Expository texts** often employ *cause–effect or compare–contrast patterns*, and **Procedural texts** are organized around sequential steps. Understanding these structural features, help learners to predict information, identify key ideas, and comprehend texts more effectively.

5.4.2 Teaching Strategies

Reading comprehension develops through purposeful, guided interaction with texts. Effective instruction includes three main phases: **before reading, while reading, and after reading.**

a. Pre-reading Strategies

Pre-reading strategies are designed to prepare learners for a text and to establish a clear purpose for reading. They are:

1. Schema Activation. Schema activation is a crucial pre-reading strategy because comprehension improves when learners connect new information with their existing knowledge. Schema theory suggests that readers interpret texts by relating incoming information to prior experiences and knowledge structures (Anderson & Pearson, 1984). In classroom practice, teachers can activate learners' schema through guiding questions, visual prompts, short discussions, brainstorming activities, or by inviting learners to share personal experiences related to the topic. These activities help learners anticipate content, set expectations, and approach the text with greater confidence.

2. Previewing Vocabulary. Limited vocabulary knowledge remains one of the main challenges for EFL learners in reading comprehension. Previewing key vocabulary before reading helps learners focus on meaning rather than struggling with unfamiliar words during the reading process (Nation, 2001). At this stage, teachers typically introduce a small number of essential words that are central to understanding the text. These words may be presented through brief definitions, examples in context, or visual support, ensuring that learners are not overwhelmed before reading.

3. Predicting. Predicting encourages learners to make informed guesses about a text based on available clues such as titles, headings, images, or opening sentences. This strategy promotes active reading and increases learner engagement because students read with the purpose of confirming or revising their initial expectations (Wallace, 1992). By making predictions, learners become more involved in the reading process and are better able to monitor their comprehension as they compare their predictions with the actual content of the text.

b. While-reading Strategies

While-reading strategies are applied as learners interact directly with a text. At this stage, reading is no longer predictive but **process-oriented**, requiring learners to actively construct meaning, monitor comprehension, and organize information as they read. Common while-reading strategies include:

- 1) **Highlighting.** *Highlighting* is a simple yet effective strategy that helps learners identify key ideas, important terms, and central arguments in a text. When used selectively, highlighting directs learners' attention to essential information rather than encouraging them to mark excessive details, which may interfere with comprehension. Teachers play an important role in modeling effective highlighting practices, such as underlining topic sentences, marking signal words, or highlighting transitions that indicate shifts in ideas. When applied appropriately, highlighting promotes purposeful reading and increases learners' awareness of textual importance and organization.
- 2) **Note-Taking.** *Note-taking* supports comprehension by encouraging learners to process information actively and record it in their own words. Research suggests that note-taking promotes deeper cognitive processing because learners must summarize, organize, and evaluate information while reading (Brown, 2007). Various note-taking formats such as *bullet points, charts, concept maps, or the Cornell note-taking system* can be introduced depending on learners' proficiency levels and the type of text. This strategy is particularly beneficial for academic reading, where learners are expected to synthesize information and retain key concepts for later discussion or writing.
- 3) **Text Mapping.** *Text mapping* involves visually representing the organizational structure of a text. This strategy helps learners recognize relationships among ideas, such as cause–effect,

sequence, comparison, or problem–solution patterns. *Graphic organizers*, including mind maps, flowcharts, Venn diagrams, and story maps, support learners in identifying how information is arranged within a text. Understanding text structure plays a significant role in reading comprehension. Meyer (1975) argues that when readers are aware of organizational patterns, they are better able to anticipate information and integrate new ideas effectively. As a result, text mapping enhances both comprehension and recall, particularly when learners work with complex or information-dense texts.

c. Post-reading Strategies

Post-reading strategies are implemented after learners have completed the text. At this stage, the focus shifts from understanding the content to **consolidating meaning, evaluating information, and connecting ideas to prior knowledge or personal experience**. Common post-reading strategies include:

- 1) **Summarizing.** *Summarizing* requires learners to identify the main ideas and essential supporting details while excluding less relevant information. This skill demonstrates deep comprehension because readers must synthesize information and restate meaning in their own words. Koda (2005) notes that the ability to summarize is closely related to effective reading comprehension and academic literacy development. Teachers can scaffold summarizing skills through activities such as *writing short paragraph summaries, producing one-sentence summaries, completing summary frames, or organizing key points using graphic organizers*. These tasks help learners distinguish between main ideas and details while reinforcing their understanding of text organization.
- 2) **Discussion.** *Discussion* allows learners to share interpretations, clarify misunderstandings, and respond to different perspectives.

Through discussion, reading becomes a **social and interactive process**, enabling learners to engage critically with the text rather than simply answering comprehension questions. Pair work or group discussions encourage collaborative meaning-making and support learners who may feel less confident in individual written responses. Discussion activities also help learners practice expressing opinions, justifying ideas, and linking textual information to broader issues or real-life contexts.

- 3) **Reflection.** *Reflection* encourages learners to think about what they have learned, how the text relates to their experiences, and which strategies supported their comprehension. Reflective activities may include *journal writing, short response paragraphs, learning logs, or oral reflections*. By reflecting on both content and process, learners develop greater awareness of themselves as readers. Reflection strengthens comprehension by connecting cognitive understanding with affective engagement, making reading a more meaningful and personal learning experience.

5.5 Classroom Application of Teaching Reading Skills

Reading strategies and instructional approaches in practical classroom settings, can be applied by:

5.5.1 Structuring a Reading Lesson

A well-designed reading lesson typically follows three stages: *pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading*. Each stage serves a specific instructional purpose and supports learners' comprehension development.

At the *pre-reading* stage, teachers introduce the topic and activate learners' background knowledge. Activities such as brainstorming, discussing guiding questions, or previewing key vocabulary help learners approach the text with clear expectations.

This stage is especially important for EFL learners, who may lack cultural or contextual familiarity with the text.

During the *while-reading* stage, learners interact directly with the text. Teachers can guide learners to skim for main ideas, scan for specific information, highlight key points, or take notes. The focus at this stage is on meaning construction rather than word-by-word translation. Strategic guidance helps learners become active readers who monitor their understanding as they read.

At the *post-reading* stage, learners consolidate and extend their understanding of the text. Activities such as summarizing, discussion, and reflection encourage learners to synthesize information, evaluate ideas, and relate the text to personal experiences or real-life contexts. This stage reinforces comprehension and supports higher-order thinking skills.

5.5.2 Integrating Communicative and Task-Based Activities

Reading instruction becomes more meaningful when it is connected to communicative purposes. In line with Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), reading activities should encourage learners to use information from texts to communicate ideas, express opinions, or solve problems. For example, after reading a short article, learners may discuss its main message, agree or disagree with the author's viewpoint, or relate the topic to their own experiences. Pair and group work promote interaction and reduce anxiety, allowing learners to negotiate meaning collaboratively.

Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) further supports reading development by engaging learners in goal-oriented tasks. Teachers can design tasks that require learners to read for a clear outcome, such as selecting information, making decisions, or producing a simple product. Tasks such as comparing two short texts, completing a table,

or preparing a brief presentation help learners read with purpose while developing critical thinking skills.

5.5.3 Using Text Types and Genres in the Classroom

Selecting appropriate texts is a key component of effective reading instruction. Texts should match learners' proficiency levels, interests, and learning goals. Authentic or semi-authentic texts, such as short news articles, advertisements, instructions, or narratives, can increase learners' motivation when supported with suitable scaffolding.

A genre-based approach can be applied by explicitly teaching text structures and language features. For instance, teachers may guide learners to identify the orientation, complication, and resolution in narrative texts, or recognize cause–effect patterns in expository texts. Understanding these patterns helps learners predict content, locate key ideas, and comprehend texts more efficiently.

5.5.4 Reciprocal Teaching

Reciprocal teaching is an interactive reading strategy developed by Palincsar and Brown (1984) in which students take turns leading the reading process by applying four key comprehension skills: *predicting*, *questioning*, *clarifying*, and *summarizing*. This approach shifts learners from passive recipients of information to active constructors of meaning.

Students usually work in small groups, and leadership roles rotate so that each learner practices all four strategies. This structure promotes metacognitive awareness, as students continuously monitor their comprehension and adjust their strategies while reading. Reciprocal teaching has been shown to improve reading comprehension because it combines strategy instruction with collaborative learning. It is particularly effective for texts that require

higher-level thinking or contain dense information, such as expository texts, academic articles, or subject-area readings in EFL contexts.

5.5.5 Using Local Texts as Contextual Reading Materials

Incorporating local or culturally familiar texts into reading instruction can make learning more meaningful and relevant for EFL learners. When students read texts that reflect their social and cultural environment, they are more likely to engage with the content, activate prior knowledge, and interpret meaning more effectively. Local texts provide familiar contexts that help bridge the gap between learners' lived experiences and English as a foreign language.

One example of local texts that can be used in reading instruction is folklore. Folklore offers rich narratives that convey cultural values, beliefs, and identities while also providing authentic language input. In the Indonesian EFL context, folklore from various regions can serve as valuable reading materials. For instance, in Nusa Tenggara Timur (NTT), stories such as *Legenda Fulan Fehan*, *Batu Badaun*, *Si Amarus*, *Lai Tosi*, as well as folk narratives from Sumba, Flores, Rote, and Alor, can be adapted for classroom use. These stories not only support language learning but also strengthen students' cultural awareness and appreciation.

The use of local texts in reading instruction offers several pedagogical benefits, including: **Increased engagement**, as learners connect with familiar settings and characters, **Authentic schema activation**, since cultural knowledge supports comprehension, **Preservation of local wisdom**, through the use of English as a medium.

Teachers can adapt local stories by rewriting them in accessible English, simplifying complex language, or designing guided reading tasks. Such texts are particularly suitable for activities such as: analyzing narrative structure, developing vocabulary, discussing moral values, evaluating characters, and storytelling or retelling tasks. At the

university level, local folklore can also be used to introduce text genres, model narrative writing, or stimulate critical and cultural discussions. By centering reading instruction on learners' cultural backgrounds, the use of local texts promotes a more inclusive, engaging, and meaningful reading experience.

5.5.6 Integrating Digital Tools in Reading Instruction

Digital literacy is increasingly important in EFL classrooms, and when used thoughtfully, technology supports both independent and collaborative reading.

- a. **Online Reading Platforms** such as StoryWeaver, British Council LearnEnglish, Newsela, ReadTheory, or open-access journal repositories provide learners with access to texts at various proficiency levels. These platforms often include vocabulary support, comprehension tasks, and leveling features. Learners can use them for extensive reading outside the classroom, while teachers may assign specific texts for guided or task-based reading activities.
- b. **Annotation Apps.** such as Kami, Hypothes.is, Google Docs comment features, or PDF annotators enable learners to highlight key ideas, take notes, ask questions, and share interpretations directly on digital texts. These tools make the reading process more interactive and visible. Through highlighting and commenting, learners can focus on important information and reflect on their understanding. At the same time, teachers can observe learners' reading processes and provide focused feedback based on students' annotations.
- c. **Multimodal Support** is another advantage of digital reading tools. Audio, video, and visual elements can be integrated alongside written texts to support comprehension. Learners may listen to audio versions of texts, watch short contextual videos before

reading, use online dictionaries instantly, or access visual glossaries.

5.5.7 Teacher's Role in Supporting Reading Development

In EFL classrooms, the teacher plays a crucial role as a facilitator and guide. Rather than dominating the lesson, teachers support learners by modeling reading strategies, providing clear instructions, and offering timely feedback. Modeling how to skim a text, identify key information, or summarize ideas helps learners internalize effective reading behaviors. Teachers should also encourage strategic independence by gradually reducing support as learners become more confident readers. Creating a supportive classroom atmosphere where mistakes are viewed as part of learning is essential for developing learners' confidence and motivation in reading.

5.6 Challenges and Recommendations in Teaching Reading

5.6.1 Common Challenges in Indonesian EFL Classrooms

a. Limited Vocabulary Knowledge. Limited vocabulary remains one of the most persistent barriers to reading comprehension. Many students struggle with unfamiliar words, particularly academic and abstract vocabulary frequently found in textbooks. When the **vocabulary load is too heavy**, learners tend to **focus on decoding individual words** rather than constructing overall meaning. This condition often slows reading speed, reduces comprehension, and increases dependence on dictionaries, which disrupts reading flow and limits the use of contextual clues.

b. Lack of Motivation and Reading Habits. Motivation plays a crucial role in reading development; however, many Indonesian EFL learners perceive reading in English as difficult and uninteresting. Some students read only when required for assignments or examinations. Limited access to engaging reading materials, both printed and digital,

further weakens reading habits. Moreover, reading activities in the classroom often emphasize answering comprehension questions rather than fostering curiosity or enjoyment, which may reduce learners' intrinsic motivation.

c. Cultural Mismatch between Texts and Learners' Backgrounds. Another challenge arises from the cultural distance between English texts and learners' lived experiences. Many textbooks contain contexts, values, and references unfamiliar to Indonesian students, making comprehension more difficult. Cultural mismatch may prevent learners from understanding implied meanings or underlying assumptions in the text. In regions such as NTT, where local culture and oral traditions are strong, the absence of culturally relevant materials can make reading activities feel disconnected from students' realities.

5.6.2 Solutions and Recommendations

a. Strengthening Vocabulary Instruction. Teachers can address vocabulary challenges by combining explicit and implicit vocabulary instruction. Pre-teaching key vocabulary before reading helps reduce cognitive load, while activities such as word mapping, synonym–antonym exercises, and contextual guessing promote deeper word knowledge. Encouraging learners to keep vocabulary journals or digital word banks also supports long-term vocabulary development. Gradually reducing dependence on dictionaries can help students develop inference skills and reading fluency.

b. Building Reading Motivation and Habits. Reading motivation can be enhanced by providing a wide range of interesting and level-appropriate materials, including short stories, graded readers, online articles, comics, and other authentic texts. Allowing students to choose what they read increases ownership and engagement. Classroom practices such as literature circles, reading challenges, and

peer recommendations can foster a positive reading culture. Recognizing students' progress, even small achievements, helps build confidence and sustained interest in reading.

c. Incorporating Culturally Relevant and Local Texts. Integrating culturally familiar texts can help bridge comprehension gaps and increase learner engagement. Local stories, folklore, and texts related to students' environment such as legends or narratives from NTT can serve as meaningful reading materials. These texts allow learners to draw on existing cultural knowledge and can be used as stepping stones before introducing more culturally distant materials. When students see their own culture reflected in reading materials, they are more likely to feel valued and motivated.

d. Using Scaffolding and Differentiated Instruction. Teachers can provide guiding questions, graphic organizers, or structured prediction activities to support comprehension. Differentiated instruction such as offering texts at varying levels of difficulty or alternative task formats ensures that all learners can participate meaningfully. As learners develop greater independence, scaffolding can gradually be reduced to promote autonomous reading.

e. Integrating Technology to Support Reading Development. Technology offers valuable support for reading instruction, especially in contexts with limited physical resources. Digital reading platforms, e-books, and annotation tools provide features such as built-in dictionaries, audio support, and highlighting functions that facilitate comprehension. Learning Management Systems (LMS) can be used to distribute reading materials, monitor progress, and encourage online discussions.

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ACADEMIC WRITING PROCESS

By Rahmadila Eka Putri, S.Pd., Gr., M.App.Ling.

Academic writing is a complex cognitive, rhetorical, and epistemological process through which knowledge is constructed and communicated. In higher education, it serves as a central mode of learning, critical thinking, and scholarly participation rather than merely assessment. As a recursive process shaped by genre, discipline, and audience, academic writing integrates critical engagement, strategic organization, and ethical responsibility, enabling students to produce coherent, credible texts and participate confidently in academic and professional discourse.

6.1 Academic Writing as a Mode of Knowledge Construction

Academic writing is widely understood not as a purely technical skill, but as a socially situated mode of knowledge construction that is reinforced through collaborative problem-solving and feedback-mediated writing practices, enhancing learners' linguistic competence, socio-emotional development, and writing proficiency while enabling the construction, evaluation, and communication of knowledge within academic communities (Chen, Zhang, & Zheng, 2023; Howitt, Wilson, & Higgins, 2022; Putri, 2025). It actively shapes the development and

connection of ideas by requiring writers to negotiate between personal understanding and disciplinary conventions, functioning in higher education as both a cognitive and dialogic process that fosters synthesis, critical thinking, and scholarly positioning through engagement with existing literature, and ultimately extending beyond linguistic accuracy to embody an academic stance that contributes to ongoing scholarly inquiry.

6.2 Academic Writing as a Process Rather Than a Product

Traditional product-oriented writing instruction prioritizes the finished text and formal correctness, often overlooking the cognitive processes of idea development, whereas contemporary academic literacy conceptualizes writing as a recursive and developmental process of meaning-making. Within this framework, revision is understood not merely as surface correction but as a cognitively rich stage that reveals learners' developing reasoning while being effectively supported by rubric- and exemplar-based feedback, which is scalable to large classes and enhances students' writing and genre awareness (Ke & Zhou, 2024; Peltzer et al., 2024). Writing proceeds through non-linear cycles of planning, drafting, revising, and reflecting, in which arguments, claims, and evidence are continually refined, with this recursion signaling advanced academic thinking rather than inefficiency. Writing development thus emerges gradually through practice, reflection, and feedback, positioning revision as intellectual refinement and encouraging students to use writing as a site of critical engagement, conceptual exploration, and epistemic agency.

6.3 Pre-writing as Cognitive and Rhetorical Framing

Pre-writing is a crucial phase of academic writing that frames a text's purpose, scope, audience, and epistemic stance, enabling writers to organize prior knowledge, refine key arguments, identify

gaps, and anticipate audience expectations in order to produce coherent, persuasive, and credible scholarly writing.

1. Defining Purpose, Audience, and Positioning

Pre-writing centers on clarifying purpose, audience, and scholarly position. By defining clear analytical goals and identifying the expectations and knowledge of an academic readership, writers determine scope, depth, terminology, and argumentative structure. At this stage, pre-writing also encompasses preparatory strategies such as brainstorming, idea exchange, outlining, and free writing, which function to generate, refine, and organize ideas prior to drafting the final text (Ahmed, Hasan, & Ameen, 2023; Suprpto et al., 2022). At the same time, pre-writing enables writers to position themselves within scholarly debates by selecting an analytical stance, foregrounding key concepts, and anticipating counterarguments. Through these strategic decisions, pre-writing establishes the foundation for focused argumentation, effective source integration, and a meaningful academic contribution.

2. Genre Awareness and Disciplinary Expectations

Academic writing is governed by genre conventions that reflect disciplinary views of knowledge, evidence, and authority, with genres functioning as socially established responses to specific scholarly purposes rather than neutral forms. Different genres prioritize distinct rhetorical demands such as critical evaluation, methodological rigor, or analytically framed personal experience, demonstrating that academic writing is inherently contextual rather than uniform. Developing critical genre awareness enables writers to understand and strategically adapt to these underlying norms, particularly in interdisciplinary and hybrid contexts. Genre awareness facilitates academic text comprehension and writing proficiency by enabling students to understand and apply genre features and variations (Deng

et al., 2024; Tardy et al., 2022; Thaksanan & Chaturongakul, 2023). When applied at the pre-writing stage, genre awareness enhances flexibility, transferability, and rhetorical effectiveness, allowing writers to produce credible and purpose-driven academic texts.

6.4 Research and Academic Reading as Critical Engagement

In academic writing, research and reading are central intellectual practices that shape scholarly credibility, as writing develops through critical engagement with sources as part of an ongoing disciplinary dialogue, enabling writers to position their arguments within evolving bodies of knowledge.

1. Research Beyond Information Gathering

In academic writing, research is not a mechanical accumulation of sources but a critical, analytical engagement with existing scholarship aimed at developing a well-informed and defensible position within scholarly dialogue. This process involves strategic selection of credible, relevant, and discipline-appropriate sources, recognition that academic fields contain competing theories and debates, and comparative engagement with these perspectives to identify convergence, tension, and points of intervention. Educational research is a systematic, methodologically rigorous inquiry into educational processes aimed at improving effectiveness while ensuring transparency, reproducibility, and relevance, emphasizing how knowledge is produced as well as what is concluded (Akudjedu et al., 2026; Hamid, 2025). Through this critical engagement, sources are used to support, challenge, or refine arguments, positioning research as a means of intellectual contribution rather than mere reproduction of existing work.

2. Critical Reading and Interpretive Literacy

Critical reading is fundamental to effective academic writing

because it enables writers to engage with texts interpretively and evaluatively rather than at the level of surface comprehension. Critical reading involves engaging with the author's perspective through analytical and evaluative thinking to support problem-solving, decision-making, and persuasion in academic contexts (Hilario et al., 2025; Royani & Arwida, 2021; van Klink, 2023). It involves analyzing how arguments are constructed, identifying underlying assumptions, examining whose perspectives are emphasized or marginalized, and questioning the framing of evidence and claims. In this way, critical reading and research function as epistemic and dialogic practices through which writers transform reading into inquiry and participate meaningfully in scholarly discourse, forming the foundation for informed, critical, and original academic writing.

6.5 Drafting as Meaning-Making and Argument Construction

Drafting is a core stage of academic writing where meaning is actively constructed through intellectual exploration. It allows writers to shape abstract ideas into structured arguments, test tentative claims against evidence and logic, and refine understanding as writing itself functions as a mode of thinking.

1. Drafting as Exploratory Writing

Drafting in academic writing is best understood as an exploratory process rather than a definitive stage, where early drafts function as working texts for clarifying analytical direction, testing claims, reorganizing arguments, and evaluating coherence. During this stage, writers transform main ideas into coherent paragraphs by developing topic, supporting, and concluding sentences, and through revisiting and revising these drafts, they enhance clarity, coherence, and overall textual quality (Subandowo, Sárdi, & Thresia, 2025; Suprpto et al., 2022). At this stage, writers should prioritize clarity of reasoning over linguistic accuracy, as excessive focus on surface-level

correctness can limit intellectual risk-taking and hinder the development of complex ideas. Coherence of ideas should take precedence over stylistic refinement, with attention directed to how arguments develop logically and cumulatively. Likewise, depth of analysis is more important than sheer quantity of content, since concise yet interpretive writing strengthens academic argumentation more effectively than information-heavy drafts.

2. Paragraphing and Logical Development

At the level of textual organization, academic paragraphs function as units of reasoning that advance specific analytical points in direct support of the overall argument. Mastery of paragraph structure is essential to writing proficiency, as paragraphs organize ideas into coherent units that sustain logical flow, academic tone, and appropriate grammatical and lexical use (Agbevi et al., 2025; Du & Hashimoto, 2025; Putra, Rohim, & Zanzali, 2025). A well-developed paragraph is structured around a clear conceptual focus, typically signaled by a topic sentence, and integrates evidence purposefully to substantiate the claim. However, argumentation depends not on evidence alone but on explicit analytical commentary that explains the relevance, significance, and implications of that evidence. Coherence is further sustained through logical connections and transitions that clarify relationships between ideas across paragraphs. Through exploratory drafting and disciplined paragraphing, writers transform emerging ideas into structured, persuasive arguments, establishing a coherent foundation for subsequent revision and refinement.

6.6 Revision as Critical Re-seeing

Revision is the most intellectually demanding stage of academic writing because it requires writers to step back from their own text and re-examine it through a critical, reader-oriented lens, reassessing

meaning, argumentation, and structure rather than merely correcting surface errors. This process involves a metacognitive shift from text producer to evaluator, prompting writers to recalibrate their thinking by refining the thesis, strengthening the relationship between claims and evidence, deepening analysis, addressing counterarguments, and ensuring a coherent progression of ideas (Nurkhamidah, Lustyantie, & Chaeruman, 2024; Radtke & Rummel, 2025). Ultimately, revision links writing development with intellectual growth, as re-seeing the text clarifies positions, strengthens arguments, and advances responsible participation in scholarly discourse.

6.7 Editing and Proofreading: Precision and Academic Authority

Editing and proofreading constitute the final yet essential stages of the academic writing process, transforming intellectual work into linguistically precise and conventionally credible texts. Whereas revision focuses on re-examining meaning and strengthening argumentation, editing and proofreading refine how ideas are articulated at sentence and surface levels, thereby shaping academic authority and reader trust. At this stage, editing and proofreading are widely recognized as crucial to academic quality, with AI-powered tools increasingly supporting accuracy and clarity through automated editing and language assistance (Mlundi, 2024; Raitskaya & Tikhonova, 2024). Through editing, writers enhance clarity, coherence, and disciplinary appropriateness by refining sentence structure, ensuring logical relationships are clearly signposted, maintaining terminological consistency, and aligning tone and register with academic norms. Together, these stages ensure that rigorous thinking is matched by precise, consistent, and professional presentation, completing the academic writing process.

6.8 Academic Integrity as Epistemic Responsibility

Academic integrity is often reduced to procedural concerns such as avoiding plagiarism, yet this narrow view overlooks its deeper epistemic role in academic writing as a commitment to responsible, ethical knowledge production. Academic integrity is a moral virtue in academic contexts, defined by honesty, truthful scholarship, proper authorship, and the rejection of plagiarism, fabrication, and academic dishonesty (Davis, 2023; Mejía & Garcés-Flórez, 2025). It governs not only citation practices but also how knowledge is represented, requiring writers to acknowledge intellectual influences accurately, engage critically with sources, and avoid distortion or oversimplification. Central to this commitment is critical source integration, in which multiple perspectives are synthesized into a coherent analytical framework that demonstrates intellectual agency rather than mere reproduction of authority. Ultimately, academic integrity unites ethical practice with analytical rigor, strengthening scholarly credibility and enabling meaningful participation in academic discourse beyond mere compliance with formal rules.

6.9 Reflection and Metacognitive Development

Reflection transforms academic writing from a task-focused activity into a sustained learning practice by fostering metacognitive awareness of how and why writers make rhetorical, cognitive, and strategic choices. Reflective writing goes beyond expressing critical views or themes by engaging personal experience to support professional development, reflective practice, and effective learning and decision-making (Marshall et al., 2022; Sudirman et al., 2024; Zhai et al., 2023). Through reflecting on drafting, feedback, research decisions, and revisions, writers identify recurring patterns and weaknesses, move from reactive habits to deliberate strategies, and develop targeted approaches for improvement. Reflection also enables the transfer of core writing principles such as argumentation,

evidence use, and coherence across genres, disciplines, and contexts, supporting long-term academic growth. Ultimately, reflection integrates all stages of the writing process into a coherent understanding of effective practice, strengthening both textual outcomes and the development of resilient, self-directed scholarly writers.

6.10 Academic Writing in Professional and Applied Contexts

Academic writing functions as a central mode of scholarly communication and academic assessment, requiring writers to integrate cognitive, metacognitive, linguistic–discursive, emotional, and sociocultural strategies shaped by multiple interacting contextual factors (Escorcia et al., 2025; Zubir, Ghazali, & Suryani, 2025). Its emphasis on analytical reasoning, evidence-based argumentation, and structured discourse directly supports professional tasks such as decision-making, accountability, and strategic communication in areas including policy development, corporate and public communication, journalism, research, and organizational management. Its process-oriented nature (planning, drafting, revising, and reflecting) aligns closely with high-stakes professional writing, where clarity, precision, and audience awareness are crucial. Consequently, academic writing functions not merely as an academic requirement but as a foundational, lifelong competence that bridges education and professional practice in knowledge-intensive environments.

6.11 Conclusion

The academic writing process is a recursive, intellectually demanding practice that integrates cognitive, rhetorical, and ethical dimensions, positioning writing as a mode of knowledge construction rather than mere text production. Through sustained engagement with pre-writing, research, drafting, revision, and reflection, writers

refine analytical thinking, develop a clear academic voice, and cultivate critical awareness, while acquiring transferable competencies such as evidence-based argumentation and structured communication. Viewed as an evolving practice, academic writing also fosters adaptability and lifelong learning, enabling learners to respond to shifting disciplinary boundaries and complex professional demands, and equipping them to sustain intellectual growth and communicative effectiveness across diverse academic and professional contexts.

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TEACHING GRAMMAR IN CONTEXT

By Haslinda Mora, M.Pd.

7.1 Introduction

Grammar has long occupied a central position in English language teaching. For decades, grammar instruction in many educational systems was dominated by a structural and form-focused paradigm, in which learners memorized rules, practiced substitution drills, and translated decontextualized sentences. Although this approach can foster short-term mastery of rules, it often fails to support learners in applying grammar in real communication. Students may be able to complete grammar exercises accurately, yet struggle to express ideas fluently and meaningfully in authentic interactions.

Over the last three decades, shifts in second language pedagogy have emphasized communication, meaning, and learner engagement. The rise of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) challenged the belief that fluency must follow a long period of grammar mastery. Instead, CLT advocates that learners develop grammatical accuracy *while* participating in meaningful communication. This pedagogical evolution led to a rethinking of

grammar's role: grammar should not disappear from teaching, but it should serve communicative purpose rather than dominate instruction.

One response to this paradigm shift is the approach known as Teaching Grammar in Context. Rather than presenting rules first and asking learners to apply them, grammar is introduced through meaningful contexts, allowing students to observe how grammatical structures operate in real language use. Context may include:

- texts (stories, articles, conversations)
- media (songs, advertisements, films)
- classroom interactions
- real-world tasks and experiences

In contextual grammar teaching, meaning becomes the starting point, and grammar is examined as a tool for expressing that meaning. Students experience grammar as something functional — as a system that helps speakers achieve purposes such as narrating events, making requests, expressing probability, comparing ideas, describing sequences, or giving opinions.

This shift does not imply that explicit grammar explanation is unnecessary. Instead, it suggests that explanation should support understanding that learners have already begun to develop through contextual exposure. When learners first notice grammar in meaningful input, then analyze the structure, then practice using it in communicative tasks, the result is more durable, transferable learning.

Today, teaching grammar in context is widely viewed as a bridge between traditional grammar teaching (which emphasizes accuracy) and communicative approaches (which emphasize meaning and fluency). Research increasingly shows that when grammar instruction, is meaningful, draws attention to form after exposure, promotes authentic use and integrates feedback strategically, students develop both fluency and accuracy, rather than sacrificing one for the other. In

summary, teaching grammar in context is grounded in the belief that: Learners acquire grammar best when it is embedded in purposeful communication rather than isolated mechanical practice.

This chapter explores the theoretical foundations, guiding principles, instructional stages, classroom strategies, example lesson plans, and assessment practices associated with teaching grammar in context. It also addresses challenges teachers may face and offers realistic solutions for different classroom situations.

7.2 Theoretical Foundations

Effective grammar instruction in the 21st-century language classroom is not built on intuition alone; it is grounded in well-established theories of second language acquisition (SLA) and modern language pedagogy. Understanding the theoretical foundations allows teachers to make informed decisions about when, why, and how to integrate grammar meaningfully into communicative learning. Four major theoretical perspectives underpin the approach of teaching grammar in context: Communicative Language Teaching, Constructivist Learning Theory, Systemic Functional Linguistics, and SLA Input–Output–Interaction Hypotheses

7.2.1. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

Communicative Language Teaching emerged as a response to teaching approaches that treated grammar as the primary goal of language learning. CLT argues that the main purpose of language instruction is to develop learners' ability to use language for **real communication**, not merely to manipulate forms. From this perspective, grammar is important only insofar as it supports communication. CLT emphasizes:

- communicative competence rather than grammatical perfection,
- negotiation of meaning,

- meaningful tasks that reflect real-life language use,
- learner interaction as a central mechanism for learning.

Within CLT, grammar is interwoven into authentic communication, rather than taught in isolation. For example, instead of teaching the past tense through verb tables, a teacher might engage students in telling personal stories, then guide them to notice how the past tense is used to sequence events. This contextual approach helps learners connect grammar to communicative goals and real-life linguistic functions.

7.2.2. Constructivist Learning Theory

Constructivism views learning as an **active process** in which learners build their own understanding based on experience, social interaction, and reflection. Applied to grammar teaching, constructivism challenges the idea that learners simply absorb rules from direct explanation. Instead, they internalize grammar when they experience language in context, recognize patterns, and form, and revise hypotheses about language use.

Constructivist grammar learning is therefore discovery-based. Rather than being told a rule first, learners observe language in use, detect regularities, and deduce meaning. The teacher still plays an important role—not as the sole source of knowledge, but as a facilitator who guides attention, encourages exploration, and provides explicit explanation when learners are ready to understand it.

This means grammar explanations remain valuable, but they come after comprehension is emerging, not before. The result is deeper cognitive engagement and stronger long-term retention.

8.2.3. Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL)

Systemic Functional Linguistics, associated with M. A. K. Halliday, views language primarily as a meaning-making system rather

than a set of abstract rules. The theory emphasizes that grammar choices depend on context — who is speaking, to whom, for what purpose, and in what situation.

According to SFL, grammar fulfills three main functions in communication:

- a. Ideational — expressing experiences and ideas
- b. Interpersonal — shaping relationships and attitudes
- c. Textual — organizing messages so they are coherent

From this viewpoint, grammar is not taught as “correct forms” but as resources for expressing meaning. For example:

- Modal verbs (“might,” “should,” “must”) express certainty, obligation, or advice.
- Passive voice may be used to focus on events rather than agents.
- Connectors (“however,” “therefore,” “on the other hand”) shape text cohesion and logical flow.

SFL strongly supports contextual grammar instruction because it helps learners understand why a structure is used—not only how it is formed.

8.2.4. Input, Output, and Interaction Hypotheses

Research in second language acquisition (SLA) highlights three mechanisms that support grammar development: input, output, and interaction.

Hypothesis	Key Researcher	Relevance to Grammar
Input Hypothesis	Stephen Krashen	Learners acquire grammar when exposed to meaningful, comprehensible language in context.

Hypothesis	Key Researcher	Relevance to Grammar
Output Hypothesis	Merrill Swain	Learners refine grammar when they attempt to express precise meanings (speaking/writing).
Interaction Hypothesis	Michael Long	Grammar develops when learners negotiate meaning through interaction and feedback.

A contextual grammar lesson naturally engages all three processes:

- **Input** → through reading, listening, and real communication
- **Output** → through speaking and writing tasks requiring target structures
- **Interaction** → through pair/group work, clarification questions, and peer feedback

This interaction-rich environment allows learners to notice gaps in their language, experiment with new structures, and integrate grammar into communicative competence.

Summary

Together, these theoretical perspectives offer a coherent foundation for teaching grammar in context. They emphasize that:

- grammar should serve communication,
- learners construct understanding through meaningful exposure,
- grammar is functional and context-dependent,
- interaction and purposeful production accelerate acquisition

By grounding classroom practice in these theories, teachers do not merely “teach grammar”—they help learners use grammar to

engage confidently and meaningfully with the English language.

7.3 Principles of Teaching Grammar in Context

Teaching grammar in context is not simply a matter of using texts or tasks that contain grammatical structures. It requires a deliberate instructional orientation in which grammar is positioned as a resource for meaning-making rather than an isolated set of linguistic rules. Several key principles guide the implementation of contextual grammar instruction. These principles translate theory into classroom practice and help teachers design learning experiences that integrate meaning, form, and use in a balanced and effective manner.

7.3.1. Begin with Meaning, Not Rules

A fundamental departure from traditional approaches is the decision to begin instruction with contextual meaning, rather than with explicit explanation of grammatical rules. Learners are first exposed to language that is rich, meaningful, and purposeful, allowing the target grammatical structure to be encountered naturally within communication. By starting with meaning:

- learners build curiosity and awareness,
- grammar becomes motivated by communicative need,
- understanding grows from real language rather than theory.

This principle aligns with research showing that learners grasp grammar more deeply when it is experienced before explained.

7.3.2. Use Authentic or Semi-Authentic Texts as Input

Authentic or semi-authentic texts play a vital role in contextual grammar teaching. “Text” here encompasses a wide range of input:

- short stories, conversations, news reports
- podcasts, speeches, films, and advertisements

- posters, infographics, brochures, vlogs, social media posts

Texts provide natural and meaningful contexts in which grammar operates to achieve communicative purposes. They allow learners to:

- see how structures behave in real discourse,
- observe patterns across multiple examples,
- connect grammar with genre, context, and audience.

When authentic texts are too difficult, teachers may adapt them to meet learners' proficiency levels while retaining contextual integrity.

7.3.3. Highlight Grammar After Exposure (Inductive Approach)

In contextual instruction, grammatical explanation does not disappear, but its timing changes. After learners have engaged with input and identified examples of grammar in use, the teacher facilitates reflection and analysis. Students examine:

- how the structure is formed,
- what meanings it expresses,
- why speakers/writers choose it in that context.

This inductive process promotes deeper cognitive engagement and encourages learners to make connections between form, meaning, and function. When explicit grammar explanation is introduced after noticing, it confirms and strengthens understanding, rather than replacing it

7.3.4. Emphasize the Form–Meaning–Use Connection

Traditional grammar instruction often focuses on **form** periences, recent events, or changes over time. When learners understand how grammar contributes to meaning in context, they are more likely to transfer it to real communication. alone (rules, patterns,

conjunction). However, learners also need to understand:

- meaning → what idea the structure expresses
- use → when, why, and in what contexts it is appropriate

A contextual lesson consistently links these three dimensions.

For example, the present perfect tense is not only: a form: *has/have + past participle* but also a meaning of connecting past with present relevance and use reporting life experiences, recent events, or changes over time.

7.3.5. Provide Meaningful Practice and Communicative Production

Practice is still essential, but practice must go beyond mechanical sentence drills. Effective grammar learning requires:

- guided practice that reinforces the target structure with contextual support, and
- communicative production that allows learners to use grammar freely to express personal meaning

Progression typically moves from controlled to semi-controlled and finally to open-ended tasks, ensuring learners develop confidence and accuracy in stages. Communicative production tasks — such as discussions, problem-solving, writing based on real purposes, role play, and information-gap activities — give learners genuine opportunities to use grammar intentionally rather than perform it artificially.

7.3.6 Feedback that Supports Communication Rather Than Interrupts It

Corrective feedback remains valuable; however, in contextual grammar teaching it must support fluency and confidence rather than inhibit expression. Effective feedback prioritizes meaning before form,

clarity before perfection, and learner self-monitoring and reflection rather than teacher dominance.

Depending on the goal of the task, feedback may be:

- implicit (recasts, prompts, clarification requests),
- explicit (brief rule reminders after communication),
- delayed (feedback during post-task reflection or mini-lesson).

The aim is to help learners notice and refine grammar while maintaining motivation and communicative intent.

Summary

These principles transform grammar from a subject to be memorized into a tool for social interaction and meaning-making. They emphasize:

- contextual richness,
- discovery and reflection,
- meaningful production,
- responsive feedback.

When consistently applied, these principles foster grammatical accuracy, communicative fluency, and learner autonomy — the core goals of effective language education.

7.4 Stages of Contextual Grammar Instruction

Teaching grammar in context follows a systematic instructional cycle that integrates exposure, awareness, analysis, practice, and communicative production. While classrooms may vary in approach, successful contextual grammar instruction typically progresses through six interconnected stages. These stages ensure that learners experience grammar as a functional component of meaning-making, not merely as a structural pattern to memorize

7.4.1. Exposure to Grammar in Meaningful Context

The instructional cycle begins with **comprehension-based exposure**. Learners engage with input—spoken, written, or multimodal—in which the target grammatical structure appears naturally and repeatedly. During this stage, the primary goal is not to focus on grammar, but to understand the message. Input may take the form of:

- a short reading or dialogue,
- a video clip,
- a photo story,
- a class conversation,
- a listening passage,
- or a real-world document (e.g., brochure, news headline, social media post).

The teacher ensures that the input is comprehensible and relevant, enabling students to focus on meaning without unnecessary cognitive overload. Effective exposure is rich enough that learners unconsciously encounter the grammatical form multiple times before formal analysis

7.4.2. Stage 2: Noticing the Target Structure

After exposure, the lesson shifts toward drawing learners' attention to grammar. In this “noticing” stage, students become aware of the structure's presence and begin to connect it with meaning. The process may be guided through activities such as:

- highlighting or underlining examples in a text,
- matching sentences with meanings or time references,
- listening for specific phrases,
- sequencing sentences in a narrative.

The teacher's role is to focus attention without interrupting

communication. Rather than simply pointing out rules, the teacher prompts observation: *What do you notice about the verbs in this article? Why does the speaker repeat “will”? How does this connector change the meaning of the sentence?*

This stage bridges subconscious exposure and conscious learning.

7.4.3. Exploration and Guided Analysis

Once learners have noticed the structure, they engage in an explicit examination of how and why it works. This is where form, meaning, and use are analyzed. Learners may explore:

- how the structure is formed (form),
- what it expresses (meaning),
- the communicative purpose it serves (use),
- why this structure is more appropriate than another in the given context.

Guided questions and mini-tasks support discovery. The teacher confirms learners’ developing understanding with clear and concise explanations, charts, timelines, or visual scaffolding. In this stage, rules are not delivered as abstract theory, but as insights arising from context.

7.4.4. Controlled and Semi-Controlled Practice

After understanding the grammar conceptually, learners need opportunities to practice it in supported situations. This stage reinforces accurate production while minimizing anxiety and cognitive overload. Examples of practice activities include:

- sentence completion using contextual clues,
- rewriting a text from another point of view,
- combining sentences with connectors,
- information-gap activities that require specific forms,

- guided pair speaking tasks.

Practice moves progressively from highly controlled (one correct answer) to semi-controlled (multiple possible answers depending on context). The goal is to help students internalize the structure while continuing to link form to meaning.

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7.4.5. Communicative Production

Communicative production is the stage where learners use the target structure freely and spontaneously to express their own ideas, opinions, intentions, or experiences. At this point, grammar is no longer the focus; communication is. However, the learning task is designed so that the target structure naturally becomes necessary. Examples of communicative tasks include:

- discussions or debates,
- problem-solving tasks,
- presentations,

- personal narrative writing,
- role play or simulations,
- email or message writing for a real purpose.

In this stage, grammar becomes a communicative resource rather than an end goal. Students engage in authentic meaning-making, reinforcing the functional value of the target structure.

7.4.6. Assessment and Reflection

The final stage involves evaluating how well learners have integrated grammar into meaningful communication. Assessment should reflect the goals of contextual learning—not only accuracy, but also appropriateness and clarity of meaning. Assessment may include:

- performance-based evaluation (speaking or writing),
- rubrics focused on meaning + accuracy + fluency,
- teacher feedback,
- peer review,
- self-assessment checklists.
- Reflection promotes metacognitive awareness. Students consider:
 - where and why the grammar structure is useful,
 - what progress they have made,
 - what challenges remain.

This reflective element encourages learners to develop autonomy and responsibility for their ongoing grammar development.

Summary

The six stages—exposure, noticing, exploration, controlled practice, communicative production, and reflection—form a dynamic cycle that balances comprehension, analysis, and expression. The model ensures that grammar is not learned as an isolated system but

as part of real language in meaningful use. Over time, this integrated approach helps learners build both accuracy and communicative confidence, which are essential for proficient language use.

7.5 Classroom Strategies and Techniques

The success of contextual grammar instruction depends not only on theoretical understanding but also on teachers' ability to translate principles into practical classroom strategies. The following techniques provide actionable ways to integrate grammar meaningfully into language learning. Each strategy positions grammar as a tool for communication rather than as an isolated subject, while still supporting accuracy and explicit understanding.

7.5.1 Text-Based Grammar Instruction

Text-based instruction uses spoken or written texts as the foundation for grammar learning. Texts serve as authentic environments where grammar naturally performs communicative roles. Students observe how structure interacts with vocabulary, discourse patterns, genre conventions, and communicative purpose. Possible classroom applications include:

- analyzing tense and aspect in a narrative,
- examining modality and hedging in opinion articles,
- identifying cohesive devices in academic texts,
- comparing active and passive voice in news reports.

The teacher helps learners notice how grammar **shapes meaning and tone** across different genres. Text-based grammar is especially effective because it mirrors real-world reading and writing experiences.

7.5.2 Task-Based Grammar Instruction

Task-based instruction places **communication at the center** of learning, with grammar emerging from interaction and problem-solving. Learners are challenged to complete tasks in which the target structure becomes necessary for success. Examples of tasks include:

- planning a community event using future tense forms,
- conducting a survey and reporting results using quantifiers and comparatives,
- debating solutions to a social issue requiring modal verbs for obligation and advice.

Grammar insights can be drawn during or after the task through a mini-lesson. This approach nurtures both fluency and accuracy by allowing learners to experiment with grammar in real-time communication.

7.5.3 Mini-Lessons After Activities (Responsive Grammar Teaching)

Mini-lessons are short, targeted grammar explanations delivered after learners have participated in meaningful activities. They respond to learners' actual needs rather than predetermined grammar sequences. Mini-lessons are effective when:

- learners repeatedly make similar errors during a task,
- a grammar form becomes relevant for expressing a specific meaning,
- learners show curiosity or confusion about a structure encountered in input.

These lessons are concise and practical, focusing on patterns and usage rather than lengthy rule memorization. The timing ensures that grammar instruction is directly connected to communicative purpose.

7.5.4. Visual Scaffolding

Visual tools help learners understand grammar by making abstract or complex patterns more concrete. Examples include:

- timelines for tense and aspect,
- flowcharts or trees for complex sentence structures,
- information tables for form–meaning–use distinctions,
- infographics summarizing modal functions or connectors.

Visual scaffolding is particularly helpful for visual learners and multilingual classrooms. It supports accurate production without relying on lengthy theoretical explanations

7.5.5. Contextual Drills

While mechanical drills have limited communicative value, contextual drills maintain the benefits of repetition while linking responses to meaning and context. In contextual drills:

- prompts are meaningful,
- multiple responses are possible depending on context,
- learners must interpret communicative intent to choose correct forms.

For example, choosing modal verbs based on levels of certainty (“He ___ be at home now.”) requires adjusting grammar choices to meaning rather than memorizing fixed substitution patterns.

7.5.6. Role Play and Simulation

Role play and simulation provide highly immersive environments for contextual grammar use. Students take on real or imagined identities to interact in structured yet dynamic communication. Examples include:

- practicing conditional sentences in a crisis simulation (“What would we do if ...?”),
- using polite requests and softening strategies in customer

service scenarios,

- writing and responding to complaints or emails in professional settings.

These activities develop pragmatic competence while reinforcing grammar in socially realistic contexts.

7.6 Assessment for Contextual Grammar

Assessment in contextual grammar teaching must reflect the chapter's core claim: grammar exists to serve meaning. Therefore, assessment should evaluate not only *form* (accuracy) but also *use* (appropriateness) and *impact on communication* (clarity, purpose). This section outlines assessment types, sample rubrics, diagnostic tools, and feedback strategies aligned with contextual pedagogy.

7.6.1. Principles of Assessment for Contextual Grammar

- a. Performance-oriented: Assess grammar through tasks that simulate real language use (speaking, writing, presentations).
- b. Integrated criteria: Combine accuracy, fluency, and appropriateness in rubrics.
- c. Formative emphasis: Use frequent low-stakes checks to guide learning (diagnostics, peer review, journals).
- d. Transparent standards: Give clear rubrics and exemplars so students know expectations.
- e. Reflective and developmental: Encourage self-assessment and reflection to foster autonomy.
- f. Balance: Prepare learners for high-stakes tests where necessary, but prioritize communicative competence.

7.6.2 Types of Assessment

- a. Formative Assessment (ongoing, low-stakes)
 - Observation checklists during pair/group tasks (teacher

notes on target forms used).

- Exit slips: one-sentence use of target grammar at end of class.
 - Grammar journals/portfolios: learners collect examples, reflections, teacher comments over time.
 - Peer feedback sessions guided by a checklist.
 - Mini-quizzes focused on noticing and meaning (short, context-based).
- b. Summative Assessment (high-stakes / end-of-unit)
- Performance tasks: presentations, role-play simulations, project reports graded with analytic rubrics.
 - Extended writing tasks: essays, reports where grammar is assessed alongside content and cohesion.
 - Integrated skills tests: reading/listening with follow-up production tasks that require target grammar.
 - Portfolios judged holistically over time for demonstration of growth.
- c. Diagnostic Assessment
- Pre-tests to identify existing knowledge and needs before a unit.
 - Error analysis of student writing to spot recurring patterns for targeted teaching

7.7 Classroom Challenges and Solutions

Although contextual grammar instruction has strong theoretical support and proven pedagogical benefits, its implementation in real classrooms is not without challenges. Teachers often face practical constraints such as limited time, exam-oriented curricula, mixed

proficiency levels, and students' expectations shaped by traditional grammar teaching. This section discusses major classroom challenges and provides realistic solutions grounded in research and professional practice. Each issue is followed by practical strategies and classroom examples.

a. Challenge 1 : Students Expect Rule-Based Grammar Teaching

In many EFL/ESL contexts, learners are accustomed to explicit grammar instruction delivered through explanations and gap-fill exercises. When teachers shift to contextual grammar, students may initially feel confused or anxious, believing they are “not really learning grammar.”

Underlying causes

- Years of learning through formula memorization and drilling
- Pressure from high-stakes exams focusing on isolated grammar items
- Cultural beliefs equating “learning” with teacher explanation and note-taking

Solutions.

- Explain the rationale openly. Share with students how contextual grammar helps long-term mastery and real communication.
- Start with a balanced approach. Include short explicit explanations *after* context activities to reassure learners.
- Show quick success. Allow students to compare their writing / speaking before and after a contextual lesson to notice growth.

Example classroom move

After a narrative retelling task, the teacher highlights how students naturally used time markers and sequencing. Then the

teacher explains past continuous vs simple past based on the story, helping students feel both guided and empowered.

b. Challenge 2 : Time Constraints and Tight Syllabi

Many teachers feel contextual grammar takes more time than traditional explanation + exercises. With limited class hours, covering the curriculum becomes a concern.

Underlying causes

- Packed curriculum and weekly learning targets
- Large class sizes slowing down group work and feedback
- Administrative requirements (lesson plans, reporting, projects)

Solutions

- Use integrated skills tasks. Reading, speaking, and writing activities can all reinforce grammar simultaneously.
- Apply mini-lessons strategically
Short 7–10 minute grammar focus segments can target recurring errors without interrupting flow.
- Create reusable frameworks
Activities like “retell → expand → evaluate” can be applied to any grammar topic.

Example classroom move

Instead of a 40-minute explicit presentation on passive voice, the teacher uses a news article, highlights passive patterns in context, then assigns a short news-style report — achieving reading + grammar + writing in the same session.

c. Challenge 3: Mixed Proficiency Levels in the Same Classroom

Learners with different grammar backgrounds and skill levels

can make differentiated instruction difficult.

Underlying causes

- Diverse educational backgrounds
- Different learning speeds and cognitive styles
- Unequal exposure to English outside the classroom

Solutions

- Open-ended tasks. Allow multiple response levels (e.g., “describe what happened” can produce beginner and advanced answers).
- Tiered support. Provide word banks, timelines, example sentences, or sentence stems only to students who need them.
- **Flexible grouping.** Alternate between mixed-ability pairs (peer scaffolding) and same-ability pairs (comfort zone practice).

Example classroom move

In a conditional debate, higher-level students use mixed conditionals and hedging; lower-level students use second conditionals only. All participate meaningfully in the same activity.

7.8 Closing Summary

Teaching grammar in context represents a paradigm shift from rule memorization toward the meaningful use of language for real communication. Rather than isolating grammar as a set of forms to be mastered, contextual grammar instruction recognizes grammar as a system of linguistic choices shaped by social purpose, audience, and setting. When learners see how grammar helps people express ideas, attitudes, and relationships, it becomes more relevant, memorable, and engaging.

Throughout this chapter, several key principles emerged. First, grammar learning is most effective when meaning precedes form. Students need opportunities to interact with texts — spoken, written, or multimodal — before analyzing the grammar embedded within them. The cycle of *exposure* → *noticing* → *guided practice* → *real communication* allows learners to gradually internalize grammar structures while maintaining focus on authentic communication.

Second, grammar cannot be dissociated from context. The same structure may perform different functions depending on the situation, genre, social relations, or communicative intention. Teachers, therefore, play an important role in designing tasks that help learners notice how grammar operates within meaningful language use. This includes selecting authentic materials, highlighting patterns, and prompting learners to make functional interpretations (e.g., why a speaker uses passive voice or why modal verbs change tone and politeness).

Third, contextual grammar instruction benefits from using varied strategies — including discourse-based teaching, task-based learning, text reconstruction, consciousness-raising tasks, input enhancement, and communicative output. These strategies transform grammar lessons into interactive learning experiences rather than isolated drills. Importantly, explicit explanation still has a role, but only after students have first engaged with contextual meaning, ensuring that grammar rules become *answers to learners' curiosity* rather than *abstract information imposed from the outside*.

Fourth, practical classroom implementation matters. The sample lesson plans demonstrated how contextual grammar can operate across skill levels and learning objectives, whether through storytelling, information gaps, project-based writing, or multimedia texts. Assessment, likewise, must go beyond traditional grammar tests. Evaluating grammar through performance tasks, portfolios,

rubrics, and real-world communication outcomes ensures alignment between instruction and learning goals.

Finally, although challenges exist — such as limited time, exam pressure, and mixed levels of proficiency — many solutions are readily accessible to teachers. With thoughtful classroom management, differentiated scaffolding, and teacher creativity in task design, contextual grammar instruction can be implemented even in large and diverse classrooms.

In conclusion, teaching grammar in context strengthens not only grammatical accuracy, but also fluency, confidence, and communicative effectiveness. By presenting grammar as a meaningful resource for constructing messages rather than a list of rules to memorize, educators empower learners to use English purposefully in academic, professional, and everyday situations. Ultimately, contextual grammar teaching supports the broader goal of English education: enabling students to communicate with clarity, precision, and social awareness in a global world.

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TEACHING VOCABULARY AND PRONUNCIATION

By Ambalegin, S.Pd., M.Pd.

8.1 Teaching and Learning

Teaching is the way of a teacher to guide the students to acquire knowledge and skills. This process involves transferring information, fostering critical thinking, and supporting individual growth. However, teaching in digital era means being an innovative teacher who are able to utilize technology, develop critical thinking, collaboration, and creativity, build the students' characters, and guide the students in facing global challenges. As a facilitator and mentor in a student-centered environment, this teaching process empowers the students to take ownership and an active, collaborative role in their own learning journey.

Learning is a lifelong process of acquiring knowledge, skills, and behaviours through study and instruction in and out of the classroom and self-experience. Learning process results in relatively permanent changes in a learner's understanding and allows the learners to adapt to their environment and solve problems.



Figure 1. An Interactive Teaching and Learning Process

Teachers and students should build together the physical comfort, strong relationships, and psychological support in the classroom to maintain positive physical, social, and psychological environments. Therefore, it is important for the teachers and the students to know what, why, and how they teach and study.

The process of teaching any knowledge and skills has its own method and technique. However, the aim of teaching of knowledge and skills is that they are able to be applied in real-life situation at home, at work, and in solving everyday problems (Finch, 2023). English is one of the skills that is taught in formal or informal institutions. As an international language, English is needed to be mastered. However, there are several problems faced by the teachers and students especially for those whose English is not their first or second language.

To learn English, the English learners must know how to listen, write, read, and speak. To teach these skills, it needs different methods and techniques but basically the English learners must know vocabulary (words), grammar (rules), and pronunciation (sounds). They are the important pillars for achieving clear, effective, and confident communication. Without words, communication fails; without grammar, sentences become confusing; and without proper

pronunciation, meaning is lost.

Vocabulary and pronunciation cannot be separated. After learning English vocabulary, the learners must learn English pronunciation because English pronunciation is important for clear communication, mutual understanding, and effective listening. For the English learners, pronunciation is the hardest part of learning English due to inconsistent spelling-to-sound rules, silent letters, and complex rhythm. In English, it is impossible to pronounce the words just by looking at the spelling because English pronunciation is only known by listening.

There are several studies that discussed how difficult it was for the English learners to learn English especially vocabulary and pronunciation. Harselina et al. (2024) revealed that the university students have difficulty remembering and using new vocabulary in appropriate contexts. Kaphle (2024) delved the challenges and strategies of vocabulary learning in the context of English language education. Laoli et al. (2025) found that many English Education students still have difficulty mastering vocabulary. Uyen and Diem (2023) reported that almost all freshmen of English face to problems in their pronunciation. And Muammalah and Misnadin (2023) also found that the university students faced difficulties in learning pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary, however they offered the strategies to solve the problems.

Due to the difficulties in learning English, teachers must understand what needs teaching and who is learning so they will know how to teach. Focusing on learners' goals and prior knowledge, the teachers should know and design the approach or philosophy, strategy or plan, method or specific procedure, and technique or concrete skill or task which are needed in teaching and learning process.

As this chapter discusses the way of teaching vocabulary and pronunciation, firstly, it is important to know what vocabulary is and

what pronunciation is. **Vocabulary** is the collection of words known and used by a person or in a particular language, which is essential for communication, reading comprehension, and expressing complex ideas. **Pronunciation** is the way a word or language is pronounced, involving the production of sounds, including individual sounds; vowels and consonants, stress, rhythm, and intonation, to create meaning, often compared to a particular standard or dialect.

8.2 Teaching Vocabulary

In communication, the information which is conveyed oral or written with the words is arranged into correct and structured words, phrases, or sentences. To have a collection of words or vocabulary is important for the writers or speakers. Vocabulary is also known as lexicon and lexis. Lexicon is the entire collection of words in a language or specific field such as a dictionary, while Lexis refers to the vocabulary system which is often used to describe the word-stock of a language or a specific subset used by people.

These words can be mastered from the surrounding in an autodidactic way. However, for second or foreign languages, such as English, the language learners should learn vocabulary in a formal institution with a particular approach, strategy, method, and technique of teaching. English has complicated spellings hence the writers must carefully write the words to avoid the misspelling.

There are several techniques for teaching vocabulary such as visuals and realia, mime and anecdotes, eliciting and contexts, synonyms and antonyms, translation, and dictionaries.



Figure 2. Learning Vocabulary

8.2.1 Visuals and Realia

Teaching vocabulary with visuals and realia means teaching vocabulary by demonstrating pictures and actual objects in the classroom. The use of visuals and realia explains the meaning of new words in a factual manner, makes more impact, and is more motivating than dry explanations. Harmer (2015) agreed that objects that are intrinsically interesting can provide a good strategy point for a variety of language work and communication.

Teaching vocabulary with visuals and realia are used a lot in classes of young learners. It is caused the vocabulary is mostly taught at elementary levels. However, older learners also like and benefit from looking at the pictures. Pictures can help the learners retain the meaning of abstract as well as concrete words.

Direct presentation teaching strategy focuses on creating a strong association between a physical object and its corresponding word through multi-sensory engagement. This method leverages physical experience to build strong memory connections, so it is

effective for young learners and those who acquire a new language.

The Activity

- a. Choose common objects that are easy to touch and relevant to the lesson or students' daily lives.
- b. Hold up the actual object so that all students can see it clearly.
- c. Say the name of the object slowly and clearly and repeat several times.
- d. Encourage students to interact with objects using various senses, example;
 1. Let them hold, feel the texture, or handle the object.
 2. Let them smell it.
 3. Let them listen to it.
 4. Let them taste it.

Using visuals is a simple and versatile when teaching vocabulary. This activity is suitable for the young learner classroom, although some of the activities could also be used with for lower-level adult classes. Pictures or flash cards are a very practical and useful resource at every stage of learning. Pictures or flashcards are a great way to present, practice, and review vocabulary. There are several ways for teaching vocabulary in the classroom such as memory tester, invisible flash cards, reveal the word, and point or race to the flash cards.

The Activity

The other activities of teaching vocabulary using pictures or flashcards are:

1. Match pictures to words or to other related images
2. Describe the picture while others guess the word
3. Use a sequence of pictures to build a narrative

8.2.2. Mime and Anecdotes

Mime and anecdotes are used to elicit certain words and phrases from the students. Additionally, it is also common to associate

gestures with words to help the students remember vocabulary better. Gestures and mime can be helpful in classroom situations, and using them can assist both the teacher and students.

Verbs, adverbs and adjectives are indeed suitable for mime and anecdotes. To mime words such as run and walk, teaches actions. It is also easy to use mime to teach adverbs of manner such as quickly, slowly, or happily with performing actions. And getting students to mime various facial expressions to show the emotion is great fun and a good way of making the adjectives memorable. The example activities of teaching vocabulary in the classroom are mime a scene and guess the emotion.

Another way of presenting vocabulary is to tell a short anecdote containing the new words. This gives the words a context and helps students understand not only the core meaning, but also how the words might be used. It is simple to recycle the words within an anecdote so that students hear the same word more than once. The more often students hear a word, the more likely they are to remember it.

8.2.3 Eliciting and Contexts

Eliciting words is a teaching technique which is designed to get the students actively produce speech or writing. It leads to student-centered learning in order to encourage the students to speak English. The students actively participate during classroom interaction by providing some information rather than giving it directly to them. This activity is suitable for the middle-level adult classroom.

The techniques used include the use of visuals, pantomime, definitions, synonyms, stories, or word games to encourage students to produce their own target language, so that learning becomes more impactful and student-centered.

a. Visuals→ show pictures, flashcards, or realia and ask the students

to name them.

- b. Mime and Gestures→ act out actions or concepts to elicit verbs, animals, or common phrases.
- c. Definitions and Context→ give a definition or a sentence with a blank and ask the students to fill in the word.
- d. Synonyms and Antonyms→ ask for words that mean the same or the opposite.
- e. Questions and Recommendations→ use questions to guide the students to answer.
- f. Mind Maps→ start with a topic and have the students brainstorm related to words to build vocabulary collaboratively.
- g. Stories and Videos→ use engaging narratives or media to introduce and elicit new vocabulary relevant to the context.

8.2.4 Synonyms and Antonyms

The use of synonyms and antonyms is a very effective elicitation technique used to help the students remember or infer the meaning of words by relating them to familiar vocabulary. The teachers use this to help the students expand their vocabulary, understand nuances, and improve reading comprehension by encouraging them to actively use the words in context. Practicing with synonyms and antonyms regularly helps the students build a richer and more flexible vocabulary.

To teach vocabulary with synonyms and antonyms, the teachers can use the interactive activities such as sentence stretching, creating synonym or antonym charts, playing memory or matching games with word cards, doing scavenger hunts in texts, and using think-pair-share to explore word nuances, focusing on adjectives and verbs first to build deeper meaning and writing skills.

8.2.5 Translation

Translation is a technique which benefits to clarify meaning,

connect L1 and L2, develop analytical skills, and improve comprehension. This activity is suitable for the middle-level adult classroom.

- a. Clarifies meaning→ Directly explains new words using the learner's native language (L1) to build understanding quickly.
- b. Connects L1 and L2→ Bridges the gap by allowing comparison, helping students see similarities and differences in language structures.
- c. Develops analytical skills→ Encourages deeper cognitive processing by comparing linguistic nuances and cultural contexts.
- d. Improves comprehension→ Aids in understanding complex texts, idiomatic expressions, and grammatical concepts.

Successful translation demands a deep understanding of both the source and target languages, including their grammar, vocabulary, and cultural nuances, to faithfully transmit the intended message. The method of translation activity narrative texts can develop students' English vocabulary. The activity of translation narrative texts can be an effective method in developing students' English vocabulary. The process of translation helps students expand their vocabulary and improve students' understanding and use of English (Imran et al., 2024; Syamsia & Jie, 2024).

8.2.6 Dictionaries

One of the easiest ways of learning about new words is by using a dictionary. The use of dictionary is a widely recognized and effective technique for teaching and learning vocabulary. It is a key strategy for developing students' independence and covers multiple aspects of word knowledge, though it is most effective when integrated with other methods. This activity is suitable for all level classroom.

The teachers should encourage the students to use a dictionary in the classroom when reading a text. A dictionary activity to develop

vocabulary is to get the students to find a word they have learnt and read the definition. Dictionaries are essential tools that help the students become self-sufficient learners.

Dictionaries provide comprehensive information about words which cover various areas.

- a. Meaning and Definition→ Students can look up unknown words to find the appropriate definition for a specific context.
- b. Spelling and Form→ Flipping through a dictionary helps students learn the correct spelling and the word's grammatical form.
- c. Pronunciation→ Dictionaries often provide phonetic scripts, helping learners understand how to say new words correctly.
- d. Contextual Examples→ Many modern dictionaries include example sentences, which is crucial for understanding how a word is used naturally.
- e. Related Words→ On the same page as a target word, students may encounter other unknown words, thus incidentally expanding their vocabulary further.

Teachers can incorporate dictionaries into lessons through various activities and techniques such as dictionary races, definition chains, dictionary skills training, and contextual integration.

8.3 Teaching Pronunciation

The information which is conveyed orally must be pronounced correctly. The incorrect pronunciation when speaking causes the listener to misinterpret the meaning of the information. English is one of the languages which has difficult pronunciation due to its inconsistent pronunciation. Thus, English pronunciation must be studied formally because explicit instruction has been shown to be highly effective in achieving clear and understandable communication, which is a core component of language proficiency.

The reasons for formal pronunciation study are to

1. ensure intelligibility and prevents misunderstanding
2. builds speaker confidence
3. enhance listening comprehension
4. improve professional and academic opportunities
5. address unique challenges
6. provide structured feedback

To help the students improve their pronunciation skills is to encourage them to speak English as much as they possibly can. Introduce the idea that even when doing homework, the students should be reading aloud. Learning to pronounce English well takes muscle coordination. To study English pronunciation;

1. the beginning level students should study syllable stress, voiced and voiceless consonants, silent letters, and silent final e,
2. intermediate level students should study the use of minimal pairs, word stress patterns, and introduction of stress and intonation,
3. Advanced level students should refine understanding of stress and intonation, and use of register and function.

There are several techniques for teaching pronunciation such as phonetics, mimicry, minimal pairs, tongue twisters and rhymes, and role-plays and dialogue.



Figure 3. Learning Pronunciation

8.3.1 Phonetics

Phonetics is the science of speech sounds and it is a fundamental approach to teaching pronunciation. By building understanding of sounds, the teachers can help the students to articulate words accurately. Teaching English pronunciation with phonetics involves breaking down phonemes using International Phonetic Alphabet to show mouth positions, using visual aids, focusing on articulatory phonetics, practicing minimal pairs, and addressing rhythm, stress, and intonation for clearer communication, moving from individual sounds to words, phrases, and sentences for practical application. The concepts to teach pronunciation using phonetics are articulation, phonemes, and segmental and suprasegmental features.

The activity in the classroom should be started with introduction of phonetic symbols and the International Phonetic Alphabet to the students. The teachers teach the students to recognize and produce the distinct sounds. Finally, the students should practice tongue placement, lip rounding and other articulatory features. Ear training by listening to songs and rhymes is a fun way to internalize rhythm and sound pattern.

8.3.2 Mimicry

Mimicry involves students listening to and imitating native speakers. This technique focuses on sounds, rhythm, intonation, and body language to develop a more natural, confident, and accurate speaking style. Mimicry such as repeating short phrases, shadowing, and linking words with gestures builds language patterns.

This technique gives several benefits such as to reduce accent, boost confidence, improve fluency, and contextualize language. The activity in the classroom should be started by playing to a short audio or video clip such as movie or podcast. The teachers ask the students

to repeat sentences, pay close attention to their intonation, stress and rhythm. The teachers can encourage the students to mimic the speaker's tone and inflection. Imitating native speakers can help the students acquire the natural intonation and rhythm of a language, resulting in more fluent and understandable speech.

8.3.3 Minimal Pairs

Teaching English pronunciation with minimal pairs involves using pairs of words e.g., seat/sit or cap/cab to highlight specific sound contrasts. It helps the students develop phonemic awareness. It also improves listening discrimination, and accurately produce challenging English sounds, especially vowels and consonants.

This technique gives several benefits such as to boost phonological awareness, improve accuracy, and enhance fluency. (Rakat et al., 2024) stated that practicing pronunciation through minimal pairs can develop students' pronunciation, listening, and vocabulary skills. Simply, the teachers can provide a list of word pairs. The teachers instruct the students to listen carefully when the teachers say the word pairs and identify the differences. Then, the students practice pronouncing the word pairs to differentiate the sounds.

8.3.4 Tongue Twisters and Rhymes

Tongue twisters and rhymes are the technique for teaching pronunciation. It builds clarity, fluency, and muscle memory by focusing on specific sounds, rhythm, and intonation through fun, repetitive practice, moving from slow, and clear articulation to faster speeds. The methods involve starting slow, repeating difficult sections, identifying tricky sounds, recording oneself, and creating custom twisters for sounds like 's' and 'sh' or 't' and 'th' or consonant clusters.

There are several steps to use tongue twisters and rhymes

activities. The teachers write or display a twister, and demonstrate pronouncing it slowly and clearly, and emphasizing particular sounds. Then, the teachers can ask the students to repeat it slowly, focusing on each sound, then gradually increase the speed. The students can challenge themselves to say it 3-5 times quickly without mistakes. Finally, the teachers point out certain sounds and the students practice them separately.

8.3.5 Role-Plays and Dialogue

Role-plays and dialogues are excellent for teaching English pronunciation by providing contextual, communicative practice that boosts confidence, fluency, and accuracy in a fun and engaging way. Role-plays and dialogues allow the students to mimic sounds, and practice intonation, stress, and rhythm through realistic scenarios.

The teachers guide the process, focusing on specific sounds, vocabulary, and sentence structures within these interactive, and imaginative activities.

This activity gives benefits such as vocabulary reinforcement, contextual practice, increased confidence, and fluency and rhythm. The activities in the classroom can take the form of restaurant role-play, story adaptation, or problem-solving scenarios.

The examples activities in the classroom such as realistic scenarios and dialogue practice. In realistic scenarios, the students create role-plays based on everyday situations. This helps the students practice pronunciation in contexts they might actually encounter. In dialogue practice, the teachers give the students short passages of dialogue and ask them to practice and deliver these scripts in pairs or small groups.

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INSTRUCTIONAL TECHNOLOGY IN ELT

By Dedy Arianto Bannus, S.Pd., M.Ed.

9.1 Introduction to Instructional Technology in ELT

The use of technology in education is not a new phenomenon. Researchers and educators have long recognized the importance of integrating technology into teaching and learning processes. In the field of English Language Teaching (ELT), technology has become an important part of learners' English learning activities. Since the 1960s, computers have been used for English learning purposes, starting at the University of Illinois in the United States. This development marked the beginning of Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) in ELT.

In today's digital era, Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) are developing very rapidly. As a result, instructional technology can be divided into two main categories: web-based and non-web-based learning technologies (Nazara, 2019). The main difference between these two types is internet connectivity. Web-based learning technologies require access to the internet, while non-web-based technologies can be used without an internet connection.

Non-web-based technological tools, such as projectors and speakers, are still widely used by EFL teachers in the classroom. These tools are usually supported by offline software programs, including PowerPoint and Microsoft Word. Although these technologies are simple, they remain useful for presenting learning materials, especially in classrooms with limited internet access.

On the other hand, web-based learning technologies offer easier access and greater flexibility. They mainly rely on digital applications such as social media platforms and Artificial Intelligence (AI)-based tools. Many of these applications can be used on mobile phones, which has led to the development of a new learning approach known as Mobile-Assisted Language Learning (MALL). Through MALL, learners can practice English beyond the classroom and at any time.

9.2 Technology Integration in ELT Practice

Technology integration in English Language Teaching (ELT) has become an essential practice for improving students' engagement and language skills. Research from various EFL contexts shows that technology supports listening, speaking, reading, and writing through multimedia input and interactive learning (Faoziah et al., 2019; Ismaili, 2021). The use of ICT helps shift classrooms from traditional teacher-centered instruction to more engaging learning environments, where students are exposed to authentic language use and diverse learning resources.

In classroom practice, teachers commonly integrate technology through Learning Management Systems and social media-based applications. Studies conducted in Morocco and Indonesia report that tools such as YouTube, WhatsApp, Padlet, and Kahoot are widely used to support vocabulary learning, classroom discussion, and formative assessment (Faoziah et al., 2019; Ismaili, 2021). These technologies increase student participation and motivation, although their use is

often limited to basic functions and still controlled mainly by teachers.

Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) is another important form of technology integration in ELT, particularly in higher education settings. Research in the Yemeni context shows that EFL teachers generally have positive attitudes toward CALL and believe that it can improve students' motivation and overall language proficiency (Ahmed et al., 2020). However, the study also highlights a gap between teachers' positive perceptions and their actual classroom practices, mainly due to limited access to ICT tools, weak internet connections, and insufficient teacher training.

Teachers' perceptions and experiences strongly influence how technology is used in ELT classrooms. A study conducted in Thailand indicates that teachers who feel confident using technology are more likely to integrate networked educational tools into their lessons (Boonmoh et al., 2021). Conversely, teachers with limited digital skills or lack of institutional support tend to avoid technology or use it only occasionally. This finding suggests that professional development is a key factor in successful technology integration.

More recently, artificial intelligence tools such as ChatGPT have emerged as part of technology integration in ELT, especially in writing instruction. According to Barrot (2023), AI-based tools can provide immediate feedback, language models, and writing support for second language learners. However, the study also warns about potential challenges related to academic integrity and overreliance on AI. Therefore, teachers need to guide students carefully so that AI tools support learning rather than replace critical thinking and writing skills.

9.3 Teachers and Students Attitude Towards Instructional Technology in ELT

Teachers' attitudes play a key role in the successful integration of instructional technology in English Language Teaching (ELT). Several

studies show that most EFL teachers have positive attitudes toward the use of ICT because they believe it can improve teaching effectiveness and student engagement. For example, studies in Iraq and Vietnam report that teachers view technology as a useful tool for presenting materials, managing classrooms, and supporting different learning styles (Abbood & Dakhil, 2021; Vuong, 2024). Positive teacher attitudes often lead to more frequent and confident use of technology in ELT classrooms.

However, teachers' positive attitudes are sometimes influenced by their level of digital literacy and professional training. A study on teachers' attitudes toward digital literacy found that teachers who have sufficient training and experience with technology tend to show stronger confidence and willingness to use ICT in their teaching (Pratolo & Solikhati, 2020). In contrast, teachers with limited technical skills may feel anxious or hesitant, even if they recognize the potential benefits of instructional technology. This suggests that attitude is closely connected to competence and institutional support.

Students generally show highly positive attitudes toward instructional technology in ELT. Research conducted with Indonesian university students indicates that learners believe ICT makes English learning more interesting, interactive, and flexible (Bannus & Emeral, 2023). Many students prefer learning activities that involve videos, audio materials, and online platforms because these tools help them understand lessons more easily and stay motivated. As a result, students' positive attitudes often encourage greater participation in English learning activities.

Despite their positive attitudes, students' use of instructional technology is not always balanced across language skills. Bannus & Emeral (2023) found that Indonesian EFL students mostly use ICT to improve receptive skills such as listening and reading, while fewer students use technology to practice speaking and writing. This shows

that although students value instructional technology, they still need guidance from teachers to use it more effectively for productive language skills.

Overall, both teachers and students show positive attitudes toward instructional technology in ELT, but several challenges remain. Teachers' attitudes depend on training, access to facilities, and digital competence, while students' attitudes are shaped by perceived usefulness and ease of use. Therefore, to maximize the benefits of instructional technology, ELT institutions should provide continuous professional development for teachers and clear pedagogical guidance for students.

9.4 The Challenges for Integrating Instructional Technology in ELT

Teachers encounter significant challenges when implementing instructional technology in English Language Teaching (ELT). One major issue is limited digital competence, particularly when teachers are required to shift from traditional instruction to technology-integrated learning. Many EFL teachers are expected to design online materials, use digital platforms, and manage virtual classrooms without sufficient training. This situation often leads to difficulties in lesson planning, classroom interaction, and assessment. Irdianto et al., (2023) report that the sudden transition to digital learning environments requires teachers to develop digital literacy and pedagogical adaptation skills that many of them do not yet fully possess.

Another challenge faced by teachers relates to inadequate infrastructure and unequal access to technology. Limited availability of devices, unstable internet connections, and lack of institutional technical support hinder effective technology integration. Even teachers with positive attitudes toward technology struggle to implement it meaningfully due to these external barriers. Bannus &

Emeral (2025) found that Indonesian EFL teachers frequently experience technical problems, limited tools, and poor internet connectivity, which reduce the effectiveness of ICT-based instruction.

Students also face various challenges in technology-supported English learning. One of the most common issues is unequal access to digital devices and internet services. Students from disadvantaged backgrounds may not have personal devices or reliable connections, which limits their participation in online learning activities. Purwati et al., (2024) emphasize that financial barriers and technical issues significantly affect students' ability to engage with instructional technology in EFL learning contexts.

In addition to access issues, psychological factors present further challenges for students. Technological anxiety, lack of confidence, and unfamiliarity with digital tools often prevent students from fully benefiting from instructional technology. Some students struggle to meet teachers' expectations when using digital platforms for assignments and assessments. Anxiety and limited digital awareness can negatively affect students' learning performance and motivation in technology-integrated EFL classrooms.

The integration of advanced technologies, such as Artificial Intelligence (AI), creates additional challenges for both teachers and students. Teachers must understand how to align AI tools with curriculum goals while addressing ethical concerns, data privacy, and pedagogical balance. Students may also become overly dependent on AI tools, reducing meaningful human interaction and cultural understanding. Kovalenko & Baranivska, (2024) and Rohmiyati, (2025) argue that while AI can personalize learning, its implementation requires careful guidance to ensure it supports not replaces human centered language teaching.

9.5 The Potential of Artificial Intelligence (AI) As Instructional Technology in ELT.

Artificial Intelligence (AI) has strong potential as an instructional technology in English Language Teaching (ELT) because it changes how English is taught and learned. Research shows that AI allows learning to become more personalized and adaptive. AI systems can analyze learners' performance and provide materials that match their language level and learning needs. This personalized approach helps students learn more effectively and actively compared to traditional teaching methods (Akbarani, 2023).

One important benefit of AI in ELT is the provision of immediate and continuous feedback. AI-based tools such as Grammarly, QuillBot, and ChatGPT help learners correct grammar, improve vocabulary, and organize ideas in writing tasks. These tools support students in developing writing, reading, and language accuracy while also reducing teachers' workload. Immediate feedback encourages students to practice English independently and improves learning efficiency.

AI also has significant potential in developing learners' communication skills. AI-powered chatbots and virtual agents provide opportunities for students to practice speaking and conversation without fear of making mistakes. A literature review by Rusmiyanto et al., (2023) indicates that AI technologies support speaking, listening, reading, and writing skills by offering interactive and immersive learning experiences. These tools help learners become more confident and fluent in using English in real-life situations.

Furthermore, AI contributes positively to learners' motivation and self-regulated learning. A study on AI-supported language instruction shows that AI tools can increase learners' engagement, autonomy, and responsibility for learning. Learners can use AI anytime and anywhere, which supports independent learning habits and

continuous practice. AI also helps learners monitor their progress and stay motivated in achieving learning goals (Shaikh et al., 2023).

Despite its many benefits, the use of AI in ELT must be carefully managed. Research highlights that AI should support, not replace, teachers in the learning process. Moreover, AI has both positive and negative impacts depending on how and when it is used. Teachers play a crucial role in guiding students, maintaining academic integrity, and developing critical thinking skills. Therefore, AI should be integrated responsibly as an instructional technology to enhance the quality of English language teaching.

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CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT FOR ELT

By Dr. Tiara Noviarini, M.Pd.

10.1 Introduction to Classroom Management in ELT

a. Definition and Importance

Classroom management in English Language Teaching (ELT) is vital for achieving objectives. It extends beyond maintaining discipline to create a productive environment (Akbari & Bolouri, 2015). In foreign language teaching, it involves coordinating resources, social interactions, and cognitive engagement to facilitate the target language. Effective management transforms groups into cohesive learning communities (Khadka, 2023) and reduces logistical issues, fostering stability for students to take linguistic risks and communicate genuinely.

The evolution of classroom management research shows a shift from strict control to a more humanistic and motivational approach. Since Bagley's 1907 work, focus has moved from incentives and discipline to understanding learners' internal motivations (Akbari & Bolouri, 2015). In modern ELT, educators must balance authority with student autonomy. Perspectives highlight that classroom management demands ongoing decision-making and reflection on

how strategies affect engagement (Keser & Yavuz, 2018). It views students as active contributors, with teachers as facilitators creating effective learning environments.

Managing an ELT classroom involves balancing Teacher Talk Time (TTT) with Student Talk Time (STT). While language learning improves with ample student speech, teachers often struggle to avoid dominating interactions (Thapa, 2017). Effective management requires techniques to 'step back' and promote peer interactions, supporting scaffolding. This highlights the teacher's dual role as behaviour manager and language facilitator (Todorova & Ivanova, 2020). Proper talk time management transforms the classroom into a dynamic communication space, as excessive TTT can harm student confidence and limit language practice.

The ELT classroom also creates a psychological environment where anxiety and 'affective filters' hinder learning. Managing this humanely involves prioritising students' emotional well-being alongside academic progress (Tigert et al., 2022). Teachers must build rapport and foster a safe space where language errors are viewed as natural. This approach reduces anxiety, a major barrier to language acquisition (Macías, 2018). Creating a supportive climate makes management an act of empathy and cultural sensitivity, recognising learners' diverse backgrounds.

The classroom's physical and instructional setup greatly impacts the learning environment. Decisions on seating, visual aids, and tech resources are strategic, not just aesthetic (Khadka, 2023). Organising desks for collaboration can enhance communication and ease transitions. Creating a 'literacy-rich environment' with posters offers learning cues that support teaching (Zein, 2018). Skilled teachers use these elements to signal instructional phases and guide behaviour subtly, making spatial arrangement a supportive, unobtrusive teaching aid that helps achieve pedagogical goals.

Pre-service and novice educators frequently encounter significant challenges in classroom management during the early stages of their careers. Many experience difficulties when their theoretical knowledge clashes with the unpredictable realities of a live classroom setting (Keser & Yavuz, 2018). These challenges often originate from limited practical experience in managing disruptive behaviour or adapting lesson pacing to meet student needs. Reflective practice plays an essential role, enabling teachers to observe and evaluate their management styles, and to make necessary adjustments for future lessons (Farrell, 2021). Through systematic evaluation of effective strategies and areas for improvement, educators can transition from reactive troubleshooting to proactive management. Such professional development is crucial for cultivating the 'management intuition' characteristic of seasoned and effective language instructors.

Instructional management in ELT involves clarifying instructions, setting expectations, and using ICQs to prevent chaos. Clear signals and simplified language help students understand tasks, while poor management can cause disengagement. Effective management saves time, maintains lesson flow, and adapts to cultural contexts, fostering rapport and support. Monitoring student progress during group work balances support and autonomy, providing feedback without disruption. Classroom management is a holistic process that combines pedagogical, psychological, and logistical elements to build confident, creative language users and vibrant learning communities. Developing these skills ensures teachers craft engaging, inclusive classrooms.

Specific Challenges in the Language Classroom

In the context of English Language Teaching (ELT), classroom management faces unique hurdles that directly impact the quality of

language acquisition. Below is an expanded discussion on the two most critical specific challenges: the balance of talk time and the management of psychological barriers.

- **Student Talk Time (STT) vs. Teacher Talk Time (TTT)**

Effective ELT management hinges on the TTT to STT ratio. TTT is the time teachers speak, while STT is when students practice the language (Hasanat, 2018). Excessive TTT can lead to a 'dominating teacher' and passive students, slowing skill development (Aurin, 2017; Adriosh & Osmana, 2022). Instructors should focus on increasing STT to improve speaking skills, avoiding rigid textbook use that boosts TTT (Ali, 2021). Reducing TTT enhances student comprehension and fluency (Mohammed et al., 2020). Teachers should model efficiently and facilitate student talk, balancing their role as guides (Mahato, 2016; Majdina, 2015). "Silent" TTT isn't enough—interaction quality and time management matter. Studies show TTT is often higher than STT in preparatory schools (Annamuradov & Korkut, 2019). Techniques like peer activities and task-based learning shift talking to students, leading to more engagement and incidental learning (Ashari & Budiarta, 2016; Hasanat, 2018).

- **Psychological Barriers and Language Anxiety**

The second major obstacle in ELT management is addressing students' psychological barriers in using a foreign language, which can trigger 'Language Anxiety' (Farokhi Pour et al., 2018). These include internal factors like fear of failure and external ones such as social expectations (Croft et al., 2015). High barriers create a 'stage barrier,' hindering participation regardless of ability (Sannikova, 2017). Management must proactively lower these barriers to foster safe learning, especially for low-SES students who may face greater engagement gaps (Jury et al., 2017). Teachers should humanise

classrooms to reduce the 'affective filter,' helping students overcome mental resistance (Joachim et al., 2018). Effective ELT involves combining pedagogical techniques with psychological support, like dynamic assessment and empathy, tailored to individual emotional needs (Farokhi Pour et al., 2018; Sannikova, 2017). Creating a low-anxiety environment shifts focus from fear to joy of communication, forming a foundation for successful language practice and a more inclusive ELT ecosystem.

10.2 Physical and Virtual Learning Environments

In modern ELT, classrooms are dynamic learning spaces, both physical and virtual, that influence student attention, participation, and social interaction (Hilal, 2014; Nja et al., 2023). Seating arrangements are crucial, and should align with pedagogy to effectively shape student engagement (van Merriënboer et al., 2017).

- **Orderly Rows:** Traditionally used in lecture-style settings, rows are highly effective for focused individual work, formal presentations, or high-stakes assessments. However, this layout often acts as a barrier to student-to-student interaction, as it reinforces a teacher-centered dynamic where the instructor is the sole authority (Hilal, 2014).
- **Circles and Horseshoe (U-Shape):** These formations are ideal for communicative ELT classrooms. By removing the physical barrier of desks between students and the teacher, these layouts promote equality and facilitate constant eye contact, which is essential for whole-class discussions and building a sense of community (Yang et al., 2022).
- **Clusters (Small Groups):** For instructors employing Team-Based Learning (TBL) or Task-Based Learning, clusters are the superior choice. While traditional learning spaces can be difficult to adapt for TBL, clusters allow for immediate collaboration and peer-based

learning (Seet et al., 2022). This arrangement requires the teacher to move actively through the room, shifting their role from a central lecturer to a mobile monitor and facilitator.

Creating a Literate Atmosphere

The physical environment serves as a psychological mediator for student interest and collaboration (Nja et al., 2023). A "literate atmosphere" involves transforming classroom walls into interactive "talking walls." By strategically placing Word Walls (active vocabulary), functional grammar cues, and motivational posters in the target language, teachers provide constant incidental learning opportunities. Furthermore, displaying student work fosters a sense of ownership and pride, which reduces the affective filter and encourages deeper engagement with the language (Haghighi & Jusan, 2012).

Digital and Virtual Learning Management

The definition of a learning space now includes virtual and informal environments (Keppell et al., 2011). In online ELT settings, the student's physical space (e.g., their home) intersects with the teacher's virtual management (Smit et al., 2019).

- LMS Management: Effective management in platforms like Google Classroom or Moodle involves organizing digital resources into intuitive, task-oriented folders. This reduces "cognitive load" and allows students to focus on language acquisition rather than navigating complex digital structures (van Merriënboer et al., 2017).
- Synchronous Interaction: Managing virtual spaces requires strict netiquette for chat boxes and the strategic use of breakout rooms to mirror physical "clusters." Teachers must manage these virtual transitions effectively to ensure that student collaboration remains on task and productive (Yang et al., 2022).

- Safety and Distance: Post-pandemic management also considers "robust seating" that ensures physical distancing while maintaining the social interaction necessary for language practice (Karakose & Dundar, 2024).

Ultimately, whether the classroom is physical or virtual, the teacher's ability to manipulate the environment determines the extent of student collaboration and the overall success of the ELT experience.

10.3 Teacher's Role and Presence

In modern ELT, a teacher's role is fluid, requiring 'pedagogical finesse' to adapt to learners' linguistic and social needs (Adendorff, 2005). Like an actor, the teacher shifts roles to create a learner-centered environment (Ly, 2024).

The Triad of ELT Roles: Controller, Prompter, and Facilitator

The teacher as a Controller is relevant during specific lesson stages, such as explaining complex grammar or giving instructions (Naibaho, 2019). This role keeps the teacher visible and authoritative to ensure accurate input, but over-reliance can lead to a "dominating teacher" issue. Therefore, the ELT manager must also adopt the role of a Prompter, providing subtle cues to help students overcome mental blocks without giving full answers, maintaining student autonomy (Chen et al., 2019). Moving toward student-centeredness, the Facilitator role involves the teacher stepping back to let students manage their cognitive presence and peer facilitation (Chen et al., 2019). This role involves creating opportunities for students to connect form and meaning during tasks (Samuda, 2013). By acting as a facilitator, the teacher fosters human-to-human communication over teacher-led lectures, which is essential for authentic language learning (Berge, 1995).

The Power of Voice and Body Language

Teacher presence is significantly amplified by non-verbal communication and paralinguistic features. In an ELT context, how a message is delivered serves as a secondary layer of comprehensible input.

- Intonation and Pitch: Teachers use vocal variation to signal transitions between lesson stages. For example, a rising intonation can be used as an attention-grabbing signal, while a softer, slower pace can help lower the affective filter during sensitive feedback sessions (Neupane, 2019).
- Gestures and Miming: The use of body language reduces the teacher's reliance on translation. Gesturing to indicate "past" or "future" or using facial expressions to convey the meaning of an adjective allows the class to remain immersed in English. This physical "presence" helps in guiding relationships between form and meaning without breaking the target language flow (Samuda, 2013).

Teacher Presence in Virtual and Orchestrated Spaces

In digital environments, maintaining a "visible" presence via a screen is challenging. An online facilitator must use techniques like timely feedback in chat boxes or teacher dashboards (Adendorff, 2005; Tissenbaum & Slotta, 2019). Real-time agents or monitoring tools help teachers support groups when they face cognitive hurdles, acting as virtual prompters (Tissenbaum & Slotta, 2019). Managing teacher presence aims to enrich classroom personality and expand communication (Prokopenko, 2020). Whether as a supervisor, organiser, or facilitator, teachers should effectively combine these roles. This approach ensures management is about scaffolding students to become independent and confident in English (Mehri, 2019).

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ASSESSMENT AND EVALUATION IN ENGLISH TEACHING

By Dr. Yayuk Widyastuti Herawati, S.Pd., M.Pd.

11.1 Teaching and Testing

Teaching and testing have been understood as two interrelated components. Many experts in curriculum planning, teaching and testing have discussed the interrelationship between the two. Richards, et al. (1985) state that "curriculum is an educational programme which states: (a) the educational purpose of the programme (the ends), (b) the content, (c) teaching procedures and learning experiences which will be necessary to achieve this purpose (the means), and (d) some means for assessing whether or not the educational ends have been achieved". This statement shows that there is an interrelationship between objectives of teaching, teaching material, teaching methods, and the test.

Brown (1996) states that curriculum planning or development describes six broad types of activities which promote good teaching and learning: needs analysis, goals and objectives setting, testing (both norm referenced test and criterion referenced test), materials development, teaching, and program evaluation. These six broad types of activities are the simplified version of the system approach

used in educational technology and curriculum design introduced by Dick and Carry (1990). In their system approach model for designing instruction, they state interrelated components: (1) identify an instructional goal, (2) conduct an instructional analysis, (3) identify entry behaviours and characteristics, (4) write performance objectives, (5) develop criterion-referenced test items, (6) develop an instructional strategy, (7) develop and/or select instruction, (8) design and conduct the formative evaluation, (9) revise instruction, and (10) conduct summative evaluation.

Hughes (1991) argues that the relationship between teaching and testing is surely that of partnership. A good test should be supportive of good teaching and if necessary it should exert a corrective influence on bad teaching. In this situation a test has a beneficial backwash on teaching. In line with this idea, Heaton (1989) also states similar idea that both testing and teaching are so closely interrelated that it is impossible to work in either field without involving the other. In this situation a good test should be geared to the teaching that has taken place.

Gronlund (1985) emphasizes the importance of evaluation in teaching. In daily practice, a teacher usually makes informal classroom observation to check, for example, whether the students have already understood the materials he has taught. Observation is just an example of evaluation that is categorized in non-measurement. Though observations are carried out informally and unsystematically during the class, they play a very important role to see the effectiveness of the teaching. Test which are an example of measurement as an integral part of evaluation are very important in instructional decisions in addition to the use of the results of observations done by the teacher.

Bachman (1990: 2) argues that there is an intrinsic reciprocal relationship between research in language acquisition and

developments in language teaching on the one hand, and language testing. This means that language testing makes use of and is used by the research in language acquisition and teaching. Therefore, the advances in language teaching and acquisition stimulate the developments in language testing.

In connection to the review above, we may sum up that testing writing essay is administered because Essay Writing is taught in the instructional process. Therefore, whatever is tested in a writing test is always be connected to the teaching of Writing Essay, but not the other way around. So it is obvious that testing has a tight relationship to the teaching. Then it is expected that testing writing will have a beneficial effect in the teaching process.

11.2 The Purposes of Assessment

Assessment plays an important role in determining each student learning problems and progress and end outcomes after a period of learning time. Therefore, all teachers need ways to determine what students learn with their problems and the progress they make. The information provides the basis for making decisions, planning or reform instructional activities and experiences, and distinguishing effective from ineffective procedures. In addition, Cooper (2000) maintains that one of the purposes of doing classroom assessment is to help the students take ownership of their learning, seeing and planning ways to foster their own literacy growth. When students think about and reflect on their learning, they become more active participants in the teaching and learning process.

Edward (in Hill, Ruptic, & Norwick, 1998) proposes four purposes of assessment: keeping track, checking up, finding out, and summing up students learning progress and problems. He then states that assessing students' progress aims to find out what students know from the frameworks for responsive teaching. The more a teacher

knows his or her students, the better the teacher becomes. Therefore, observing and talking with students should as well as be involving them in the assessment process.

11.3 Task Types in English Language Testing

Task types are central to English language testing because they operationalize the construct of language ability being measured. The choice of task determines not only what aspects of language are assessed but also how authentically test performance represents real-life language use. According to Bachman and Palmer (1996), task design must balance construct validity, authenticity, reliability, and practicality. Task types in English language testing can be broadly categorized into selected-response, constructed-response, integrative, performance-based, and technology-mediated tasks.

a. Selected-Response Tasks

Selected-response tasks require test takers to choose the correct answer from a set of options. These tasks are rooted in traditional psychometric approaches to testing and are widely used in large-scale standardized examinations.

a.1 Multiple-Choice Items

Multiple-choice questions (MCQs) are among the most common task types in English language testing. They are frequently used to assess grammar, vocabulary, reading comprehension, and listening comprehension.

Advantages:

- High scoring reliability due to objective scoring
- Efficient administration for large groups
- Easy statistical analysis of item difficulty and discrimination

Limitations:

- Limited ability to measure productive language skills

- May encourage test-taking strategies rather than genuine language use
- Often criticized for low communicative authenticity

Despite these limitations, research shows that well-constructed MCQs can effectively measure receptive skills when aligned with meaningful contexts (Alderson, 2000).

a.2 True/False and Matching Tasks

These tasks are simpler variants of selected-response formats. While they are easy to administer, they are vulnerable to guessing and tend to measure surface-level knowledge rather than deeper language processing.

b. Constructed-Response Tasks

Constructed-response tasks require test takers to produce language rather than select it. These tasks are considered more cognitively demanding and more reflective of actual language ability.

b.1 Short-Answer Tasks

Short-answer tasks require brief written or spoken responses, often used in reading and listening assessments.

Strengths:

- Reduced guessing compared to selected-response items
- More direct evidence of comprehension

Challenges:

- Scoring may be subjective
- Requires carefully designed scoring rubrics to ensure reliability

b.2 Essay and Extended Writing Tasks

Writing tasks, such as argumentative, narrative, or expository essays, assess learners' ability to organize ideas, use appropriate language, and communicate meaning effectively.

According to Weigle (2002), writing tasks allow for the assessment of:

- Linguistic accuracy
- Discourse organization
- Pragmatic appropriateness
- Strategic competence

However, extended writing tasks pose challenges in terms of rater consistency, time consumption, and scoring costs.

c. Integrative Task Types

Integrative tasks require test takers to use multiple language components simultaneously, reflecting the complex nature of real-life language use.

c.1 Cloze Tests

Cloze tests involve deleting words from a passage and requiring test takers to fill in the blanks.

Merits:

- Measures grammatical knowledge and discourse-level understanding
- Efficient and relatively easy to score

Criticism:

- Performance may depend heavily on test-taking strategies
- Limited communicative authenticity

c.2 Dictation

Dictation integrates listening, grammar, vocabulary, and writing skills. Modern research recognizes dictation as a valid integrative task when designed carefully (Oller, 1979).

d. Performance-Based Tasks

Performance-based tasks aim to measure language use in contexts that resemble real-world communication. These tasks are strongly associated with communicative language testing.

d.1 Speaking Tasks

Speaking tasks include interviews, role-plays, picture descriptions, and paired/group discussions.

Key characteristics:

- High authenticity
- Direct measurement of oral communicative competence
- Interactional features such as turn-taking and negotiation of meaning

Issues:

- High variability in performance
- Rater bias and inter-rater reliability concerns

Bachman (1990) emphasizes the importance of rating scales and rater training to address these challenges.

d.2 Role-Plays and Simulations

Role-plays simulate real-life communicative situations (e.g., making complaints, requesting information).

These tasks assess:

- Sociolinguistic competence
- Pragmatic appropriateness
- Strategic competence

However, their effectiveness depends on how familiar test takers are with the scenario.

e. Task-Based Language Assessment (TBLA)

Task-Based Language Assessment is grounded in **task-based language teaching (TBLT)** and focuses on meaning-focused language use rather than isolated linguistic forms.

Key features:

- Emphasis on outcome-oriented tasks
- Use of real-world communicative goals
- Assessment of language as it is used to complete tasks

Examples include problem-solving tasks, collaborative projects, and

information-gap activities. TBLA is praised for its ecological validity but criticized for difficulties in standardization and scoring (Ellis, 2003).

f. Technology-Mediated Task Types

Advances in technology have expanded the range of task types available in English language testing.

f.1 Computer-Based Testing (CBT)

CBT allows integration of multimedia tasks, such as video-based listening and interactive reading tasks.

Advantages:

- Increased authenticity
- Immediate scoring and feedback
- Adaptive testing capabilities

f.2 Automated Writing and Speaking Tasks

Automated scoring systems analyze linguistic features such as lexical complexity, fluency, and coherence.

Concerns:

- Limited sensitivity to content and creativity
- Ethical and fairness issues
- Overreliance on surface-level linguistic features

Nevertheless, these systems are increasingly used in large-scale testing contexts.

g. Classroom-Based Assessment Tasks

In educational settings, task types are often formative rather than summative.

Examples include:

- Portfolios
- Peer assessment tasks
- Self-assessment checklists
- Project-based tasks

These tasks emphasize learner reflection and continuous development, aligning with assessment-for-learning principles.

h. Balancing Task Type Selection

The literature emphasizes that no single task type is superior in all contexts. Instead, effective English language testing requires a **combination of task types** aligned with:

- Test purpose
- Target language use domain
- Learner characteristics
- Practical constraints

Bachman and Palmer (1996) argue that optimal test design emerges from balancing authenticity, interactiveness, impact, and practicality.

Task types in English language testing have evolved from discrete, form-focused items to complex, performance-based and technology-mediated tasks. Each task type offers unique insights into learners' language ability while presenting distinct challenges. A principled combination of task types enhances the validity and usefulness of English language tests and supports meaningful language learning outcomes.

11.4 Test Characteristics

In order to obtain a clear perspective about the quality of test, it is important to review the characteristics of good language test such as: validity, reliability and practicality.

a. Validity

Weir (1990: 22) states that a test is called valid when it measures what it is intended to measure. We can obtain the evidence of validity on the basis of two perspectives. The first one is by using logical arguments and the second one is by seeing the empirical evidence.

Logical Argument

Based on the logical arguments, the validation is done by applying logical interpretation on the basis of theoretical framework of a language skill being measured. This validity is classified into two kinds: construct and content validity.

Construct validity refers to the extent to which performance on a test is consistent with predictions that we make on the basis of a theory of ability, or construct (Bachman, 1990). In other words, it is the attributes, abilities, or skills that occur inside the brain. Therefore, construct validity concerns with what "something" is that we want to measure in a test.

Content validity is essentially the systematic examination of the test content to determine whether it covers a representative sample of the behaviour domain to be measured (Weir, 1990). According to Bachman (1990), two aspects should be concerned in this validation, i.e. content relevance and content coverage. The former concerns with the specification of the behavioral domain in the question and the attendant specification of the task or test domain. The latter is the extent to which the task required in the test adequately represent the behavioral domain in question. Logical validity can be established by making a table of specification.

b. Reliability

Reliability refers to the degree of how far people can rely on the test. It is indicated by the consistency of scores produced by a test. A test is reliable when it can produce basically the same scores when administered to the same group of testees on different occasions. Reliability is indicated by statistical figure known as coefficient correlation index, ranging from 0.00 to 1.00 (Weir, 1990).

There are different ways in establishing reliability. Those

different ways are classified on the basis of consistency in a period of time (test-retest), consistency in different forms of instruments (Equivalent-forms reliability), consistency within the instruments (split-half method, i.e. Spearman-Brown split-half estimate, Cronbach Alpha, Guttman split-half estimate, KR-20, and KR-21).

The followings are the descriptions, on the basis of consistency in a period of time, we find test-retest reliability. It is one of the strategies that the testers use to establish reliability by estimating the correlation between two tests results which are administered to one group of students. In this case, the tester administers one kind of test items to the same group of students in different time. The result of the first and the second test are correlated. The formula used to compute the correlation is the Pearson Product Moment. This is called test-retest reliability (Brorvn, 1996). The limitation of this strategy is that administering a test two times to the same group of students is not very attractive proposition for the teachers or the students.

On the basis of consistency in different forms of instruments, we can get equivalent-form reliability. Equivalent-forms reliability basically has a similar strategy with that used in the test-retest strategy in that they are two administrations. However, they are different in terms of the test items used which are different but equivalent-forms strategy. The tester administers two different but equivalent forms of test items to a single group of students. The result of the two tests are correlated (Brown, 1996). However, developing two forms, establishing their equivalence, administering the two forms to a group of students, and calculating the correlation coefficient between the scores is fairly a cumbersome way to go about estimating the reliability of each form.

Based on the consistency within the instruments, it is found Pearson Product Moment is used. This coefficient is used when the scale of measurement is either interval or ratio.

c. Practicality

Practicality means something to do with test administration, scoring, interpreting, of the test result, even with the financial factors of the test administration (Djiwandono, 1996). For example, the cost-effectiveness of a test can be increased by the possibility of the test to be reused. This can be achieved by providing the answer sheet separated from the questions sheet. In terms of scoring, a practical test, which is easy to check and score. Concerning the administration of the test, it should be easy to administer. It means that the test instruction should be clear and concise, for example. In short, a test should be easy to administer, to score, and be economic to use, having a good format, and also meaningful form.

11.5 Scoring

Scoring means checking and correcting the test taker's answer on a test and giving them a point for each correct answer. The score which is made in accordance with the correct response toward the items is called a raw score (henceforth, it is just called score). In other words, a score is actually a quantitative value of response to item(s) of a test. The score reflects the test taker's performance in a test. Using the score, the subject's (test taker's) performance in the test can be evaluated,

Giving a raw score to an item is conducted by matching the answers made by the test takers with the key answers. According to Brown (1996: 132), there are two important scoring systems, namely a raw score and a weighted score. For an objective test, according to Djiwandono (1996: 117) a correct answer in a multiple choice item is usually given a raw score 1, a wrong answer is usually given a raw score 0. This way of scoring is also applicable for subjective test. However, for a subjective test, in case more detail difference is necessary, the

score can be given range from, for instance 1 to 3, in my case.

A weighted score, on the other hand, is a score which is based on different weight for different question in a test. For instance, in a test consisting of 35 items, a rater might give one point for the first twenty items on a test, then three points for each of the next ten items, and five points for each of the last five items.

In the last part of scoring activity, the scores are calculated. In the objective test, the total scores are the same as the correct answer of the test made by the test takers. In other words, we can say that the raw scores in multiple-choice test are the total number of items subtracted by the wrong answers. While in the subjective test, the scores are obtained through summing up all scores given to each item. The total score in the subjective test depends not only on the number of correct answer but also on the weight of score of each item. But at this test development project, I do not use the weighting.

Scoring subjective test is more difficult than objective test type. The first difficulty comes from the reality that subjective test item has not a single correct answer. Some answers, which are presented in different sentence formation, could be right as long as the content of the answer is still relevant with the expected one. The second difficulty is the establishment of the weight of each item. The item of subjective test has complexity. The complexity requires different test taker's ability do. Therefore, the weight of the item could be different from item to item. Besides that, the rater possibly write answer, which is half ideas very relevant to topic, relevant but unclear topic, and the ideas completely not relevant to topic. Consequently, scoring subjective test needs a certain guideline or model in order to minimize the subjectivity of the rater (Azwar: 1996: 119).

There are two approaches in scoring subjective test. The first approach is analytical approach. The second approach is global approach. The analytical approach involves identifying all the aspects

or components of a perfect answer and assigning a point value to each. The global approach also involves all of the aspects or components of a perfect answer, but point values are not assigned to each, instead, each response is judged as a whole, as a total unit, and an overall rating is made. Based on the perceived completeness of the response, points are assigned. The item is then reread and recovered and the ratings compared and concealed (Gay, 1986: 225). The global approach results more subjective, less reliable scores. It is frequently used when a larger number of test takers are involved because it takes less time.

To check and give score to a subjective test, there are certain rules that the rater should follow. The most important thing is criterion, which is used as reference in scoring. Besides that, a clear formulation of the purpose is also helpful. In this point, whatever expected in the answer should be clearly stated. Popham (1993) and Azwar (1996) give some points that should be taken into account in scoring a subjective test. First, the test developer should make criterion or criteria of the expected answer(s) as the guideline for the rater to give point to a (each) number of answers. The weight of each item is made based on the amount of the points should be covered by an answer. The weight of the score can be stated in number 1 to 3, for instance, for each item based on the coverage of the answer toward the points expected by the guideline or criterion.

Second, the test developers should make guideline of the correct answer, which consists of criteria, model of answer which is expected, or the combination of both. Third, it is better for the rater not to know the name of the test taker whom the answers being checked. This is to minimize the subjective emotional effect of the rater toward the test taker. Fourth, it is better to check the same number for all test takers than all numbers for each test taker. It means that it is recommended to check the answer of number one first for all test takers, then number two for all test takers, the number three for

all test takers, etc.

11.6 Grading

Grading can be done by doing interpretation toward the raw score which is obtained by a test taker (Djiwandono: 1996). The interpretation may be done referring to the norm-referenced and criterion-referenced.

Norm-Referenced Interpretation

In the norm-referenced interpretation, the interpretation of a raw score is done on the basis of the average achievement of test takers within a group. Then this average is considered to be the norm for the group.

In applying the norm-referenced interpretation, the testees whose score achieve the norm which has been estimated is classified into the normal group. As a consequence, they will have a normal grade. It depends on whether the grading system is represented by using letter 'C' in A B C D E or number '3' in 1 2 3 4 5.

The procedure of this interpretation is by listing the raw scores in the form of table. Then the list of these raw scores can be displayed into the normal curve. Gronlund (1982) states that normal curve is a symmetrical bell-shaped curve based on a precise mathematical equation. Scores distributed according to the normal curve are concentrated near the mean and decrease in frequency the further one departs from the mean. When the normal curve is divided into standard deviation (SD) units, which are equal distances along the baseline of the curve, each portion under the curve contains a fixed percentage of cases. Thus, 34 percent of the cases fall between the mean and +1 SD, 14 percent between +1 SD and +2 SD, and 2 percent between +2 SD and +3 SD. Since the curve is symmetrical, the same percentages, of course, apply to the intervals below the mean. These

percentages have been rounded to the nearest whole number, but only small fraction of percent (0,13%) of the cases fall above and below three standard deviations from the mean. Thus, from a practical standpoint, a normal distribution of scores falls between -3 and +3 standard deviations of the mean.

Based on the normal curve, the raw scores can be converted into grade. The following are the conversions:

- (1) The scores within the interval between +2 and +3 are converted into A
- (2) The scores within the interval between +1 and +2 are converted into B
- (3) The scores within the interval between -1 and +1 are converted into C
- (4) The scores within the interval between -1 and -2 are converted into D
- (5) The scores within the interval between -2 and -3 are converted into E

Criterion-Referenced Interpretation

In the criterion-referenced, the interpretation is not done on the basis of what test-takers averagely achieved in the raw scores but it will refer to the minimum acceptable level of performance. The minimum acceptable level of performance is indicated by what is required in the objectives. The criterion refer to the domain task being measured (Gronlund: 1982). Then, criterion-referenced test can be used to simply describe an individual's performance on a set of task.

When criterion-referenced test is used to distinguish between those who have mastered a given set of tasks and those who have not, some standard or cut off score must be set. This standard might be in terms of the speed of performance (for example, "solves ten computational problems in two minutes"), the precision of the

performance (for example, “measures an obtuse angle to the nearest whole degree”).

So in converting the raw scores into grades, those who can answer the minimum acceptable level of performance answer will obtain C. The scores which lie above the minimum acceptable level of performance will be converted into A and B. While the scores under the minimum acceptable level of performance are deserve to obtain D and E.

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MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT AND LESSON PLANNING

By Gupuh Rahayu, M.Pd.

12.1 Introduction

Material development and lesson planning are two key components in the practice of teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL). Both are interrelated and play an important role in determining the quality of the learning process and the achievement of learning objectives. Materials development focuses on the development, adaptation, and evaluation of teaching materials, while lesson planning emphasises the systematic planning of structured learning activities that are oriented towards the learning outcomes of students. In the context of English language education, lecturers or teachers are required to be able to design teaching materials that are relevant to the needs of learners and to develop effective and contextual learning plans.

Materials development and lesson planning are two fundamental components in the practice of teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL) that are closely related and complement each other. Materials development is understood as a systematic process that includes the design, adaptation, evaluation, and use of teaching

materials to support effective language acquisition (Tomlinson, 2011). In the context of EFL, teaching materials not only serve as a linguistic resource, but also as a pedagogical tool that facilitates interaction, cognitive engagement, and the development of learners' communicative competence. Therefore, the quality of teaching materials greatly influences the success of the language learning process.

Meanwhile, lesson planning refers to the structured and systematic process of planning learning as a guideline for teachers in managing learning objectives, materials, activities, and learning evaluations (Harmer, 2007). Effective learning planning enables teachers to organise time and resources optimally and anticipate various classroom dynamics. Richards (2017) emphasises that a good lesson plan must be aligned with the curriculum, learner needs, and the teaching approaches and methods used. Thus, lesson planning serves as a pedagogical framework that ensures the achievement of language learning objectives in a focused and sustainable manner.

The integration of materials development and lesson planning is a crucial aspect in creating meaningful and contextual English language learning. Graves (2000) states that the selection and development of teaching materials should be an integral part of the learning planning process, not just a separate stage. Furthermore, Nation and Macalister (2010) emphasise the importance of alignment between learning objectives, content, learning activities, and assessment in language curriculum design. In the context of English language education, lecturers or teachers are required to act as reflective, adaptive, and responsive learning designers who are attuned to the needs and characteristics of learners, so that the learning process can take place effectively and be relevant to the local context.

12.2 Basic Concepts of Materials Development

Materials development is defined as a systematic process of designing, adapting, evaluating, and using teaching materials to facilitate language learning (Tomlinson, 2011). Teaching materials are not limited to textbooks, but also include handouts, modules, audio-visual materials, digital materials, and authentic sources such as articles, videos, and online media.

Materials development is defined as a systematic process that includes designing, adapting, evaluating, and using teaching materials to facilitate effective language learning (Tomlinson, 2011). This process places teaching materials as pedagogical components that are consciously designed to support language acquisition, not merely as a complement to learning activities. In the context of teaching English as a Foreign Language, the development of teaching materials needs to consider learning objectives, learner characteristics, and the institutional context in which learning takes place.

English teaching materials are not limited to textbooks as the main source, but include various forms and media of learning, such as handouts, modules, worksheets, audio-visual materials, and technology-based digital materials. Richards (2017) states that sole reliance on textbooks is often unable to accommodate the diversity of learners' needs and learning styles. Therefore, lecturers or teachers are encouraged to combine printed teaching materials with digital and multimodal learning resources to increase engagement and learning effectiveness.

In addition to pedagogically designed teaching materials, the use of authentic resources such as news articles, videos, podcasts, and online media also plays an important role in materials development. Gilmore (2007) emphasises that authentic materials provide more natural and contextual language exposure, thereby improving learners' communicative competence and motivation to learn. By

selectively and strategically integrating authentic materials, the development of English teaching materials can create a more meaningful and relevant learning experience that reflects real-world language use.

Tomlinson (2013) emphasises that materials development must be learner-centred and take into account the overall learning context. This approach places learners at the centre of the teaching material development process, so that the materials designed are not generic but responsive to the linguistic, cognitive and affective needs of the learners. In teaching English as a Foreign Language, learner-centredness is particularly important given the limited exposure to the language outside the classroom.

In the context of EFL, the development of teaching materials needs to consider various factors, such as the language proficiency level of learners, cultural background, learning objectives, and the characteristics of the educational institution where learning takes place. Nation and Macalister (2010) emphasise that alignment between learning objectives, content, and learning activities is a key principle in language curriculum design. Inconsistencies between teaching materials and the learning context can hinder learner engagement and reduce the effectiveness of language learning.

Based on this perspective, English lecturers not only act as users of teaching materials, but also as developers and evaluators of reflective teaching materials. Graves (2000) states that teachers are in a strategic position to adapt and evaluate teaching materials to align with learners' needs and learning objectives. This dual role requires adequate pedagogical and professional competence so that lecturers are able to design contextual, relevant, and sustainable teaching materials to support the English learning process.

12.3 Types and Sources of English Teaching Materials

English teaching materials can be classified into printed and non-printed materials. Printed materials include textbooks, modules, student worksheets, and handouts. Meanwhile, non-printed materials include audio, video, learning applications, and online learning platforms. English teaching materials can generally be classified into printed and non-printed materials based on their form and presentation media. This classification is important to help educators select and combine teaching materials that are appropriate for the learning objectives and characteristics of the learners. Richards (2017) states that the diversity of teaching materials allows teachers to design learning that is more flexible and adaptive to the needs of learners in various learning contexts.

Printed teaching materials include textbooks, modules, student worksheets (LKS), and handouts that are systematically designed to support language learning. Textbooks remain the primary resource in English language learning because they provide curriculum structure, material sequence, and integrated exercises (McDonough, Shaw, & Masuhara, 2013). However, the use of printed teaching materials needs to be adapted and supplemented with additional materials so as not to limit the creativity of teachers or the diverse needs of learners.

Meanwhile, non-print teaching materials include audio and video media, learning applications, and online learning platforms that are increasingly developing in line with advances in educational technology. According to Chapelle (2001), the use of technology in language learning can enhance interaction, feedback, and learner autonomy. The integration of non-print teaching materials in English language learning enables the creation of a more multimodal and authentic learning experience, thereby supporting the development of language competence in a more comprehensive manner.

Authentic teaching materials refer to materials that are not

specifically designed for pedagogical purposes, but are used by native speakers of the language in real-life communication contexts. Gilmore (2007) defines authentic materials as spoken and written texts that reflect the natural use of language in everyday life, such as news articles, advertisements, films, podcasts, and online media content. In teaching English as a Foreign Language, authentic materials are seen as bridging the gap between classroom language and real-world language.

The use of authentic teaching materials provides richer and more contextual language exposure, thereby supporting the development of learners' communicative competence. Richards (2001) states that authentic materials can increase learning motivation because learners feel connected to the relevant and meaningful use of language. In addition, authentic materials enable learners to understand the variations in language, register, and culture inherent in the use of English, which are often not fully reflected in textbooks.

Although it has many benefits, the use of authentic teaching materials needs to be considered selectively and planned carefully. Tomlinson (2013) emphasises that authentic materials must be adapted to the language proficiency level of learners so as not to cause excessive cognitive load. Therefore, the role of lecturers or teachers is crucial in selecting, adapting, and integrating authentic materials into learning so that they remain aligned with learning objectives and the EFL context. With the right approach, authentic teaching materials can be an effective and meaningful learning resource.

12.4 Principles of Teaching Material Development

The development of English teaching materials must be based on strong pedagogical principles. Tomlinson (2011) puts forward several key principles, including: (1) teaching materials should provide rich and meaningful exposure to language, (2) encourage cognitive and

affective engagement of learners, (3) provide opportunities for communicative use of language, and (4) take into account individual differences among learners.

The development of English teaching materials must be based on strong pedagogical principles in order to optimally support the language acquisition process. Tomlinson (2011) emphasises that effective teaching materials need to provide rich and meaningful exposure to language, so that learners can interact with the language in natural and relevant contexts. Meaningful language exposure enables learners to not only understand linguistic forms, but also the function and meaning of language in real communication situations.

In addition to providing adequate language exposure, teaching materials must also encourage cognitive and affective engagement among learners. According to Tomlinson (2011), cognitive engagement occurs when learners actively process language information, while affective engagement relates to interest, motivation, and positive attitudes towards learning. Teaching materials designed with challenging, contextual, and relevant activities can enhance both aspects, making the learning process more meaningful and sustainable.

Another equally important principle is providing learners with opportunities to use language communicatively and taking into account individual differences among learners. Opportunities for communicative language use enable learners to develop communicative competence through interaction and authentic language use (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Meanwhile, recognition of individual differences—such as learning styles, ability levels, and learner backgrounds—requires flexibility in instructional material design (Nation & Macalister, 2010). By applying these principles in an integrated manner, the development of English language teaching materials can be more effective in meeting the needs of learners in

various EFL contexts.

In addition, Nation and Macalister (2010) emphasise the importance of balancing input, output, form-focused instruction, and fluency development. These principles form the basis for designing effective and sustainable teaching materials. In addition to the principles put forward by Tomlinson, Nation and Macalister (2010) emphasise the importance of balance between input, output, form-focused instruction, and fluency development in the development of English teaching materials. This balance is seen as the main foundation in the design of language curricula and teaching materials, as each component has a complementary role in supporting comprehensive language acquisition.

High-quality input provides comprehensible language exposure that is relevant to the learner's ability level, while output encourages learners to actively produce language through speaking or writing. Swain (1995) asserts that the process of language production helps learners become aware of their linguistic limitations and triggers the development of language competence. Therefore, teaching materials need to be designed to provide a balance between language reception and language production activities.

In addition, a focus on form and fluency development must also be integrated proportionally into teaching materials. Form-focused instruction allows learners to pay attention to the grammatical and lexical aspects of language in the context of meaningful use (Nation & Macalister, 2010). Meanwhile, fluency development activities aim to improve the smoothness and automation of language use through repeated and meaningful practice. By integrating these four components in a balanced manner, English teaching materials can be designed effectively and sustainably to support learners' needs in various EFL contexts.

12.5 Evaluation and Adaptation of Teaching Materials

The evaluation of teaching materials is an integral part of materials development because it serves to ensure that the teaching materials used are in line with the needs of learners and learning objectives. Ellis (1997) states that the evaluation of teaching materials should not only focus on the quality of the content, but also on its effectiveness in supporting the language acquisition process. Through systematic evaluation, lecturers or teachers can determine the extent to which teaching materials are able to facilitate meaningful and contextual learning.

Ellis (1997) distinguishes instructional material evaluation into three main stages, namely pre-use evaluation, in-use evaluation, and post-use evaluation. Pre-use evaluation aims to predict the potential success of teaching materials before they are used in the classroom, while in-use evaluation is conducted to observe how teaching materials function in learning practice. Post-use evaluation focuses on assessing the impact of teaching materials on the achievement of learning objectives after the learning process is complete.

These three types of evaluation provide a comprehensive framework for educators in making pedagogical decisions regarding the selection, use, and development of teaching materials. McDonough, Shaw, and Masuhara (2013) emphasise that the results of teaching material evaluation can be used as a basis for adapting or modifying materials to better suit specific learning contexts. Thus, teaching material evaluation is not only evaluative in nature, but also serves as a continuous reflective process in improving the quality of English language learning.

Adaptation of teaching materials is often necessary when the available materials are not entirely suitable for the local learning context. McDonough, Shaw, and Masuhara (2013) emphasise that most global teaching materials are designed for a general context, so

they may not necessarily be in line with the needs, characteristics, and backgrounds of learners in a particular context. In teaching English as a Foreign Language, adapting teaching materials is an important step to ensure the relevance and effectiveness of learning.

Adaptation of teaching materials can be done through various strategies, such as adding, deleting, simplifying, reordering, or modifying learning activities. The addition strategy is used when teaching materials need to be supplemented with additional material in order to achieve learning objectives, while reduction is done to eliminate material that is irrelevant or too complex. Simplification and modification of activities aim to adjust the level of language difficulty and the form of activities to the abilities and needs of learners (McDonough et al., 2013).

The process of adapting teaching materials requires lecturers or teachers to play an active role as developers of reflective and contextual learning. Tomlinson (2013) emphasises that the adaptation of teaching materials should not change the main pedagogical objectives, but rather strengthen the achievement of these objectives in the local context. By adapting teaching materials appropriately, they can become more meaningful, relevant, and effective in supporting English language learning that is oriented towards the needs of learners.

12.6 Basic Concepts of Lesson Planning

Lesson planning is a systematic process of designing and organising learning activities to achieve specific learning objectives in one or more sessions. Harmer (2007) states that lesson plans serve as a road map for teachers in managing time, material, and learning activities in a focused manner. Through careful planning, teachers can ensure that each stage of learning proceeds in accordance with the objectives that have been set.

In the context of teaching English as a Foreign Language, lesson planning plays a strategic role in bridging the curriculum with classroom learning practices. Richards (2017) emphasises that effective lesson planning must be aligned with curriculum objectives, learner needs, and the teaching approaches and methods used. Thus, lesson plans serve not only as administrative documents, but also as pedagogical tools that help teachers design meaningful learning experiences.

In addition to serving as a guide for teaching, lesson planning also enables teachers to anticipate various challenges that may arise during the learning process. Brown (2001) states that good planning helps teachers select learning strategies, media, and assessment techniques that are appropriate for the characteristics of learners. Therefore, lesson planning is an essential component in creating effective, structured English language learning that is oriented towards achieving language competence.

In English language teaching practice, there are various lesson planning models that can be used by teachers or lecturers in accordance with learning objectives, learner characteristics, and teaching approaches adopted. Richards and Rodgers (2014) state that learning planning models reflect certain theoretical views on how language is learned and taught. Therefore, the selection of lesson planning models needs to be done consciously and contextually in order to support the optimal achievement of language competence.

One of the most commonly used lesson planning models is the Presentation, Practice, Production (PPP) model. In this model, learning begins with the presentation stage to introduce the form and function of language, followed by the practice stage through controlled exercises, and ends with the production stage, which gives learners the opportunity to use the language more freely. Harmer (2007) states that the PPP model is effective for teaching language structures and

vocabulary, especially for beginner learners, although this model is considered less flexible in encouraging truly communicative language use.

Another model widely used in ELT is Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT), which places communicative tasks at the core of learning. In TBLT, learning is designed around the completion of meaningful tasks, where language is used as a tool to achieve communication goals (Ellis, 2003). Richards (2015) asserts that TBLT enables learners to develop communicative competence more naturally through interaction and negotiation of meaning. This model is particularly relevant to the EFL context, which emphasises functional and authentic language use.

In addition to PPP and TBLT, the Genre-Based Approach (GBA) is also widely applied in English language learning, particularly in the context of formal education. This model focuses on teaching specific texts or genres through the stages of building knowledge of the field, modelling, joint construction, and independent construction (Hyland, 2007). GBA emphasises the importance of social context and communicative purposes in language use, thereby helping learners understand how language is used systematically in various types of texts.

Each lesson planning model has its own advantages and limitations, so no single model is entirely superior for all learning contexts. Graves (2000) emphasises that teachers need to be flexible and reflective in selecting and combining lesson planning models according to the needs of learners and learning objectives. With the right choice of lesson planning model, English language learning can be designed to be more effective, communicative, and contextual.

In English language education, lesson planning must be aligned with the curriculum, graduate learning outcomes (CPL), and the needs of learners. Good lesson planning enables teachers to

anticipate obstacles, manage the classroom effectively, and maximise learning interactions.

12.7 Main Components of Lesson Plan

Lesson plans generally consist of several interrelated main components, including learning objectives, learning materials, learning methods and strategies, learning media and resources, learning activity steps, and assessment (Brown, 2001). These components serve as a pedagogical framework that helps teachers design and implement learning systematically. The integration of these components in a lesson plan enables the learning process to run in a focused manner and in line with the predetermined learning objectives.

Learning objectives are a central component of lesson plans because they serve as the main reference for selecting materials, learning strategies, and assessment techniques. Richards (2017) emphasises that learning objectives must be formulated clearly, specifically, and measurably in order to describe the language competencies that learners are expected to achieve. In the context of English language learning, learning objectives are generally oriented towards the development of language skills, mastery of linguistic elements, and the ability to use language communicatively.

Formulating learning objectives oriented towards language competence also enables teachers to evaluate learning outcomes more objectively. Nation and Macalister (2010) emphasise that clear learning objectives facilitate alignment between content, learning activities, and assessment. Thus, lesson plans not only serve as guidelines for teaching, but also as planning tools that support effective and sustainable English language learning.

The learning steps in a lesson plan are generally divided into three main stages, namely introductory activities, core activities, and

closing activities. This division aims to create a systematic and structured learning flow so that students can follow the learning process in a gradual and meaningful manner. Harmer (2007) states that clearly organising the learning stages helps teachers manage time and maintain the focus of learning in accordance with the objectives that have been set.

Preliminary activities serve to prepare learners cognitively and affectively before entering the core material, for example through warm-ups, apperception, or linking the material to the learners' experiences. Core activities are the main stage in English language learning, where the process of language competency development takes place intensively. Richards and Rodgers (2014) explain that core activities are often designed based on a communicative approach, task-based learning, or genre-based approach that emphasises the meaningful use of language in real communication contexts.

Meanwhile, closing activities aim to consolidate learning, reflect, and provide feedback on the learning process and outcomes. Brown (2001) emphasises that the closing stage plays an important role in helping learners understand the connection between learning objectives and the activities that have been carried out. By designing learning steps systematically and in line with the teaching approach used, lesson plans can support effective, communicative, and competency-oriented English language learning.

An Examples of Core Activities Based on the English Language Learning Approach

a. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

In the Communicative Language Teaching approach, core activities are designed to encourage the use of language as a meaningful communication tool. Richards (2006) explains that CLT activities emphasise interaction, negotiation of meaning, and the use of

language in real contexts. Examples of core activities in CLT are role-play, information gap, and pair or group discussion. For example, learners are asked to role-play a conversation between a customer and a restaurant waiter to practise language functions such as requesting information and expressing opinions. This activity allows learners to use structures and vocabulary communicatively, rather than simply memorising language forms.

b. Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT)

In the Task-Based Language Teaching approach, core activities centre on completing communicative tasks that have clear objectives and specific outcomes. Ellis (2003) states that tasks in TBLT must require learners to use language to achieve non-linguistic goals, such as solving problems or making decisions. Examples of core TBLT activities are problem-solving tasks, decision-making tasks, or project-based tasks. For example, learners are asked to work in groups to design a travel itinerary with a specific budget and then present it. In this process, learners naturally use language to discuss, negotiate, and convey ideas.

c. Genre-Based Approach (GBA)

In the Genre-Based Approach, core activities focus on understanding and producing texts based on specific genres. Hyland (2007) explains that GBA emphasises the relationship between language, communicative purpose, and social context. Core activities in GBA usually follow the stages of modelling, joint construction, and independent construction. For example, in teaching procedural texts, the teacher first models the procedural text and analyses its structure and linguistic features with the learners. Next, the learners collaboratively compose the text before finally writing the procedural text independently. This activity helps learners understand how language is used systematically in a specific context.

12.8 Integrations of Materials Development in Lesson Planning

Materials development and lesson planning are two inseparable aspects of English language teaching practice. Teaching materials are not only a source of content, but must also be systematically integrated into lesson plans so that they are aligned with learning objectives, classroom activities, and assessment. Graves (2000) emphasises that effective learning planning begins with an understanding of learning objectives and learner needs, followed by the selection and development of appropriate teaching materials. Thus, teaching materials are not used separately, but rather form an integral part of the overall learning design.

The integration of materials development into lesson planning enables lecturers or teachers to design coherent and meaningful learning experiences. Richards (2013) states that alignment between learning objectives, teaching materials, and classroom activities is a key prerequisite for effective language learning. When teaching materials are designed based on a clear lesson plan framework, learners can understand the learning process in a more structured manner and focus on achieving the targeted language competencies.

Furthermore, the reciprocal relationship between materials development and lesson planning requires a reflective role from lecturers or teachers. Evaluation of lesson plan implementation can be the basis for revising and refining teaching materials for subsequent meetings. Tomlinson (2011) emphasises that the development of teaching materials is dynamic and continuous, so that their integration into lesson planning needs to be adjusted to the responses and development of learners. Through systematic and reflective integration, the English language learning process can take place more effectively, contextually, and learner-centred.

The integration of materials development into lesson planning enables teachers to tailor learning materials to classroom activities,

teaching strategies, and assessment techniques in an integrated manner. Graves (2000) emphasises that teaching materials should not be viewed as a separate entity, but rather as an element that must be aligned with learning objectives and processes. By integrating teaching materials from the planning stage, teachers can ensure that each learning activity supports the language competencies to be achieved.

This integration also provides flexibility for teachers to adapt teaching materials to the characteristics and needs of learners. Nation and Macalister (2010) emphasise that the alignment of teaching materials, teaching strategies, and assessment techniques enables the learning process to be more contextual and effective. For example, vocabulary or text materials can be adapted to task-based learning methods, while activities and assessments are designed to encourage communicative language use.

With the systematic integration of teaching materials, learning activities, teaching strategies, and assessment, learning becomes more coherent and focused. Richards (2017) states that this alignment not only makes it easier for teachers to manage their classes, but also improves learners' understanding and engagement. Therefore, the ability of teachers to integrate materials development into lesson planning is key to creating an effective, meaningful, and competency-oriented English learning experience.

12.9 Challenges in Materials Development and Lesson Planning

Some challenges often faced by English lecturers in materials development and lesson planning are related to time and resource constraints. Graves (2000) emphasises that the process of developing teaching materials and lesson planning requires sufficient time to design materials, adjust activities, and compile appropriate evaluations. Limited resources, such as textbooks, learning media, or access to digital materials, often pose obstacles to creating relevant

and effective teaching materials.

The variation in learners' abilities also poses a significant challenge in planning English language learning. Nation and Macalister (2010) emphasise that differences in language proficiency, learning styles, and cultural backgrounds require teachers to adapt teaching materials and learning strategies flexibly. This requires lecturers or teachers to have reflective skills in evaluating the effectiveness of materials and adapting them to the diverse needs of learners.

In addition, the demand for technology and digital-based learning adds complexity to materials development and lesson planning. Richards (2015) states that the integration of digital media, learning applications, and online platforms requires additional competencies for teachers, both in terms of technology mastery and digital learning design. Therefore, lecturers or teachers need to continuously develop their professional skills to face these challenges and ensure that the English learning process remains effective, adaptive, and relevant to the needs of students in the digital age.

To overcome challenges in materials development and lesson planning, continuous professional development (CPD) is required. Richards (2015) emphasises that CPD enables English lecturers or teachers to improve their pedagogical skills, ability to design relevant teaching materials, and master educational technology. Through CPD, educators can acquire new knowledge, practise effective teaching strategies, and adapt their learning approaches to the evolving needs of learners.

In addition to individual development, collaboration among educators is also an important strategy for overcoming resource limitations and variations in student abilities. Graves (2000) emphasises that sharing good practices, learning materials, and teaching experiences can enrich the quality of lesson plans and teaching materials. For example, teachers can work in teams to design

project-based activities, share teaching material templates, or discuss differentiation strategies for learners with different abilities.

Through a combination of CPD and collaboration, lecturers or teachers are able to create English language learning that is more adaptive, innovative, and oriented towards the achievement of student competencies. Tomlinson (2013) emphasises that teachers who are reflective and proactive in developing themselves and working with colleagues will be better prepared to face pedagogical challenges, including the integration of teaching materials, the use of technology, and variations in learner abilities. This strategy not only enhances teaching effectiveness but also supports continuous professional development in the context of English language education.

12.10 Closing

Materials development and lesson planning are the main foundations of effective English language learning. By understanding the concepts, principles, and practices of teaching material development and lesson planning, lecturers and teachers can design learning that is relevant, contextual, and oriented towards the needs of learners. This chapter emphasises the importance of the active role of educators as reflective and innovative learning designers.

Materials development and lesson planning are the main foundations of effective English language learning, as they are interrelated and form a coherent pedagogical framework. By understanding the concepts, principles, and practices of teaching material development and lesson planning, lecturers and teachers are able to design learning experiences that are relevant, contextual, and oriented towards the needs and characteristics of learners (Graves, 2000; Tomlinson, 2013).

In addition, challenges in materials development and lesson

planning, such as time constraints, variations in student abilities, and technological demands, require lecturers or teachers to continuously develop their professional competencies through continuous professional development and collaboration among educators. With this reflective and adaptive approach, the English teaching process can be effective, innovative, and sustainable, while also improving the quality of the learning experience for students in various educational contexts (Richards, 2015; Tomlinson, 2011).

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FUNDAMENTAL TEACHING ENGLISH

Theory, practice and classroom application

CHAPTER

XIII

TEACHING ENGLISH IN MULTICULTURAL AND MULTILINGUAL CONTEXTS

By Ayu Melati Ningsih, S.Pd., M.S., M.Pd.

13.1 Theoretical Foundations

13.1.1 Concepts of Multiculturalism and Multilingualism in English Language Teaching.

In contemporary English Language Teaching (ELT), the concept of multiculturalism and multilingualism have become central to understanding how language learning occurs in diverse educational contexts. English no longer used exclusively within the cultural boundaries of native-speaking countries. Instead, it functions as a global language employed by speakers from various cultural and linguistic backgrounds. Consequently, ELT must respond to this reality by embracing cultural and linguistic diversity as an integral part of pedagogy.

a. Multiculturalism in English Language Teaching

Multiculturalism in education refers to an approach that recognizes, values, and integrates cultural diversity into teaching and learning processes. Within ELT, multiculturalism emphasizes the

inseparable relationship between language and culture, suggesting that learning English involves more than mastering grammatical structures and vocabulary, it also entails understanding cultural meaning, perspectives, and practices embedded in language use.

(Banks, 2019) argues that multicultural education seeks to reform educational practices so that learners from diverse cultural backgrounds are provided with equal opportunities to succeed academically. Applied to ELT, this perspective challenges the traditional dominance of Anglo-American cultural norms and encourages the inclusion of multiple cultural representations in teaching materials and classroom interactions.

(Byram, 1997) said that language learners need to develop intercultural communicative competence, which includes not only linguistic skills but also attitudes of openness, cultural awareness, and the ability to interpret and negotiate meaning across cultures. In this sense, multicultural ELT aims to prepare learners to communicate appropriately and respectfully in intercultural settings rather than to imitate native speaker norms. Through a multicultural lens, English classrooms become spaces where learners' cultural identities are acknowledged and where local cultures coexist with global perspectives. This approach supports the development of tolerance, empathy, and critical cultural awareness, which are essential competencies in an increasingly interconnected world.

b. Multilingualism in English Language Teaching

Multilingualism refers to the ability of individuals or communities to use more than one language in daily communication. In the field of English Language Teaching (ELT), multilingualism is increasingly recognized as a normal and valuable condition rather than an exception. Most learners of English around the world already possess one or more languages before learning English, which means

that English is typically acquired as an additional language within an existing linguistic repertoire.

Traditional ELT approaches often promoted monolingual ideology, assuming that maximum exposure to English and strict avoidance of learners' first language would lead to better learning outcomes. However, contemporary research challenges this assumption by demonstrating that learners' prior linguistic knowledge can facilitate, rather than hinder, the acquisition of English (Cummins, 2010a). From this perspective, multilingualism is viewed as a cognitive and pedagogical resource that supports language development.

(Cenoz & Gorter, 2011) argue that multilingual learners naturally draw on all their languages to make meaning, especially in complex communicative and academic tasks. This dynamic interaction among language has given rise to the flexible use of multiple languages to enhance understanding and communication (García & Wei, 2014). In multilingual oriented ELT classrooms, students are encouraged to strategically use their linguistic resources to support learning, problem solving, and critical thinking.

Acknowledging multilingualism in ELT contributes to the affirmation of learners' linguistic identities. When students' home language are valued rather than marginalized, learners are more likely to develop confidence and positive attitudes toward English learning. (Ruíz, 1984) treating multilingualism as a resource promotes more inclusive and equitable educational practices.

In the context of English use, multilingualism is also closely connected to the concept of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF), where English is used among speakers with diverse linguistic background (Seidlhofer, 2011). This reality implies that successful English communication does not depend on native speaker norms but on intelligibility, adaptability, and intercultural awareness. Therefore, multilingualism-oriented ELT prepares learners to function effectively

in real-world communicative settings where multiple languages and varieties of English coexist.

c. Integrating Multiculturalism and Multilingualism in ELT

Integrating multiculturalism and multilingualism in English Language Teaching (ELT) reflects the sociolinguistic reality of English as a global means of communication. English is used by speakers from diverse cultural backgrounds who bring with them different languages, identities, and ways of meaning making. As a result, effective ELT can no longer be grounded in monolingual and monocultural assumptions but must instead adopt a more inclusive and pluralistic orientation.

Multiculturalism and multilingualism are closely interconnected in ELT because language learning is inseparable from cultural and linguistic experience. Multicultural perspectives emphasize the recognition of cultural diversity and the development of intercultural communicative competence, while multilingual perspectives highlight the value of learners' existing linguistic repertoires.

When these two approaches are integrated, ELT shifts its focus from linguistic accuracy alone toward meaningful communication, cultural awareness, and learner identity. (Jackson, 2020) argues that successful language education should enable learners to interpret and negotiate meaning across cultural boundaries. This goal can be more effectively achieved when learners are allowed to draw on their multiple languages to reflect on cultural similarities and differences.

In such classrooms, learners compare concepts, expressions, and values across languages and cultures, leading to deeper understanding and critical cultural awareness. From a pedagogical standpoint, integrating multiculturalism and multilingualism encourages the use of culturally diverse materials and multilingual practices such as translanguaging. (García & Wei, 2014) suggest that translanguaging not only supports comprehension but also creates

spaces where learners' linguistic and cultural identities are validated. This validation is particularly important in multilingual societies, where learners' home languages and local cultures are often underrepresented in formal education.

Furthermore, the integration of these concepts aligns with the view of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF), where communication occurs among multilingual speakers rather than between native and non-native speakers (Seidlhofer, 2011). In this context, effective communication depends on flexibility, mutual understanding, and intercultural sensitivity rather than strict adherence to native-speaker norms. ELT that integrates multicultural and multilingual perspectives therefore prepares learners to participate confidently and responsibly in global communication.

13.1.2 Sociolinguistics Perspectives on Multilingual Classrooms

From a sociolinguistic viewpoint, multilingual classrooms can be understood as social environments where language use is closely linked to culture, identity, and interaction. Students come to the classroom with different linguistic backgrounds that have been shaped by their families, communities, and previous learning experiences. These diverse language resources influence how learners communicate, participate, and position themselves in classroom activities.

Sociolinguistics views language not merely as a system of grammatical rules, but as a tool used in specific social situations. As (Hymes et al., 1972) points out, effective communication requires not only knowledge of language forms but also an understanding of when, how, and with whom particular forms should be used. In multilingual classrooms, learners often adjust their language choices according to context, such as speaking with peers, responding to teachers, or completing academic tasks.

Another important concept is linguistic repertoire, which refers to the range of languages and language varieties that individuals can draw upon. In multilingual settings, students frequently move between languages to clarify meaning, express ideas more effectively, or build social relationships. Practices such as code-switching and translanguaging are therefore natural and purposeful strategies rather than signs of limited language ability.

Sociolinguistic perspectives also draw attention to language ideologies within educational contexts. Certain languages, especially English, are often given higher status, while students' home or local languages may be seen as less valuable. These beliefs can shape classroom interaction and may limit students' willingness to participate. Creating awareness of such ideologies is essential for fostering more inclusive and supportive learning environments.

In addition, multilingual classrooms play an important role in the development of learner identity. As (Norton, 2013) explains, language learning is connected to how learners see themselves and their future possibilities. When students feel that their linguistic and cultural backgrounds are respected, they are more likely to engage actively in learning and develop a positive relationship with English.

Overall, sociolinguistic perspectives encourage teachers to recognize multilingual classrooms as spaces of rich linguistic diversity. By understanding how language functions socially, educators can adopt teaching practices that support both language development and learner inclusion in multilingual contexts.

13.1.3 Language, Culture, and Identity in English Language Learning

Language learning is deeply connected to culture and identity, as language functions not only as a means of communication but also as a way of expressing who learners are and how they relate to others. In English language learning, students engage with new linguistic

forms while simultaneously negotiating cultural meanings and personal identities. This process is especially visible in multilingual and multicultural learning contexts.

Culture shapes how language is used, interpreted, and valued. When learners study English, they are exposed to cultural norms, values, and perspectives that may differ from their own. However, learning English does not require learners to abandon their local cultures. Instead, learners often combine elements of their existing cultural knowledge with new cultural understandings associated with English use. This interaction allows learners to develop what (Kramsch, 1993) describes as a “third space,” where learners mediate between cultures rather than simply adopting one over another.

Identity plays a central role in how learners engage with English. (Norton, 2013) emphasizes that language learning is influenced by learners’ sense of self and their imagined futures. Learners invest in English when they perceive it as meaningful and empowering, particularly when it supports their social, academic, or professional goals. Conversely, when learners feel that their identities or home languages are marginalized, their participation and motivation may be reduced.

Recognizing the relationship between language, culture, and identity encourages English teachers to create learning environments that value diversity and promote learner agency. By acknowledging students’ cultural backgrounds and linguistic experiences, English language learning becomes a process of identity enrichment rather than identity loss.

13.1.4 English as a Global Language and Linguistic Diversity

English has developed into a global language used by people from a wide range of linguistic and cultural backgrounds. Its global spread has resulted in diverse forms of English that reflect local

contexts, identities, and communicative needs. As a result, English today cannot be viewed as a single, uniform language tied exclusively to native-speaker communities.

The concept of English as a Global Language highlights the role of English as a shared means of communication among multilingual speakers worldwide. (Crystal, 2004)notes that English is used more frequently in interactions between non-native speakers than between native and non-native speakers. This reality challenges traditional models of English teaching that prioritize native-speaker norms as the ultimate standard.

Linguistic diversity is a natural consequence of the global use of English. Different varieties of English emerge as speakers adapt the language to local linguistic and cultural contexts. World Englishes scholars argue that these varieties are legitimate forms of English rather than deviations from a standard model(Kachru, 1992). In educational contexts, this perspective encourages a more inclusive understanding of English use and ownership.

In English Language Teaching, recognizing English as a global language requires a shift toward intelligibility, flexibility, and intercultural awareness. Learners need to be prepared to communicate with speakers from diverse linguistic backgrounds, rather than aiming solely for native-like proficiency. Embracing linguistic diversity in ELT supports more realistic learning goals and affirms learners' identities as legitimate users of English in global communication.

13.2 Challenges in Multicultural and Multilingual Classrooms

Multicultural and multilingual classrooms offer rich learning opportunities, but they also present a number of challenges for both teachers and learners. Differences in cultural backgrounds, communication styles, and language proficiency can influence

classroom interaction, participation, and learning outcomes. Without careful pedagogical attention, these differences may lead to misunderstandings, unequal participation, or reduced learning effectiveness. In English Language Teaching (ELT), challenges often emerge from the tension between linguistic diversity and instructional expectations. Teachers are required to balance the use of English as the target language while responding to students' diverse cultural norms and multilingual practices. Understanding these challenges is essential for developing inclusive teaching strategies that support effective communication and meaningful learning in diverse classrooms.

Cultural Misunderstandings in Classroom Interaction

Cultural misunderstandings are a common challenge in multicultural classrooms, as learners bring different cultural norms, values, and communication styles into classroom interaction. These differences may affect how students interpret instructions, respond to questions, express opinions, or engage in discussion. What is considered polite, respectful, or appropriate in one culture may be perceived differently in another.

In English classrooms, cultural misunderstandings can arise from differences in turn-taking, eye contact, silence, or attitudes toward authority. For example, students from cultures that value indirect communication or deference to teachers may appear passive or unengaged, even though they are actively processing information. According to (Kramsch, 1993), language use is always embedded in cultural context, and misunderstandings occur when cultural meanings are not shared or recognized.

Such misunderstandings can affect classroom dynamics and learners' confidence. Students who feel misunderstood may hesitate to participate, while teachers may misinterpret students' behavior as a lack of motivation or ability. (Byram, 1997) emphasizes the

importance of intercultural awareness in language education, arguing that both teachers and learners need to develop sensitivity toward cultural differences in communication.

Addressing cultural misunderstandings requires teachers to create spaces for dialogue, reflection, and clarification. By explicitly discussing cultural norms and encouraging mutual understanding, English classrooms can become more inclusive environments where cultural diversity is seen as a resource rather than a barrier.

13.2.1 Challenges of Code-Switching and Code-Mixing in English Classrooms

Code-switching and code-mixing are common linguistic practices in multilingual classrooms, where learners alternate between English and their other languages during communication. While these practices can support understanding and meaning-making, they also present challenges for English teachers, particularly in contexts where English exposure is limited.

One major challenge is the concern that frequent use of learners' first languages may reduce opportunities for English practice. Teachers may worry that excessive code-switching prevents students from developing fluency and confidence in using English. As a result, some classrooms adopt strict English-only policies, which may unintentionally marginalize students with lower proficiency levels.

From a sociolinguistic perspective, however, code-switching is not a sign of linguistic weakness but a strategic resource for communication (Gumperz, 1994). The challenge lies in managing these practices effectively so that they support, rather than replace, English learning. (García & Wei, 2014) argue that without clear pedagogical guidance, code-switching may occur randomly and fail to contribute meaningfully to language development.

Another challenge is assessment. Teachers may find it difficult

to evaluate students' English proficiency when multilingual language use is allowed in classroom interaction. Determining when and how code-switching is pedagogically appropriate requires careful planning and clear learning objectives.

To address these challenges, teachers need to adopt balanced approaches that recognize the value of multilingual practices while maintaining clear goals for English development. When used purposefully, code-switching and code-mixing can enhance comprehension, reduce anxiety, and support deeper learning in multilingual English classrooms.

13.3 Integrating Local Language and Cultural in English Instruction

Integrating local language and culture into English instruction is increasingly recognized as an important approach in multilingual and multicultural educational contexts. Rather than viewing local languages and cultures as obstacles to English learning, contemporary perspectives emphasize their potential to support comprehension, engagement, and meaningful communication. This approach aligns with the view that language learning is socially and culturally embedded.

Local languages serve as valuable cognitive and linguistic resources in English classrooms. When learners are allowed to draw on their first languages, they can better understand complex concepts, make connections between known and new knowledge, and express ideas more confidently. (Cummins, 2010) suggests that skills developed in the first language can transfer to additional languages, supporting overall language development. In this sense, the strategic use of local languages can strengthen rather than weaken English proficiency.

Cultural integration is equally important in English instruction. Incorporating local cultural content such as traditions, stories, social

practices, and values helps learners relate English learning to their own lived experiences. According to (Kramersch, 1993), culture is not an optional addition to language learning but a fundamental element of meaning-making. When English materials reflect local culture, learners are more likely to participate actively and view English as relevant to their identities and communities.

From a pedagogical perspective, integrating local language and culture can be realized through contextualized materials, culturally responsive tasks, and flexible language practices. Teachers may encourage students to compare local and global cultural perspectives, discuss local issues in English, or use local languages strategically to support understanding. (García & Wei, 2014) argue that such practices create inclusive learning spaces where learners' linguistic and cultural identities are acknowledged.

However, effective integration requires careful balance. English instruction should maintain clear learning objectives while allowing space for local language use and cultural expression. When managed thoughtfully, this approach promotes learner confidence, intercultural awareness, and communicative competence.

Overall, integrating local language and culture in English instruction supports a more inclusive, relevant, and learner-centered approach to ELT. It positions English not as a replacement for local identities, but as a complementary resource that enables learners to engage with both local and global communities.

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FUNDAMENTAL TEACHING ENGLISH

Theory, Practice and Classroom Application

This book presents a comprehensive exploration of English Language Teaching (ELT) by examining both theoretical foundations and practical applications within contemporary educational contexts. It begins with an overview of ELT and second language acquisition, introducing key theories and concepts that explain how languages are learned and how these theories inform effective teaching practices. Through a structured and logical progression, the book connects linguistic, cognitive, and pedagogical perspectives to support meaningful language learning.

The subsequent chapters focus on instructional approaches, teaching methods, and the development of essential language skills, including listening, reading, academic writing, grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation. Each section emphasizes learner-centered instruction, contextualized learning, and reflective practice, while also addressing assessment, classroom management, materials development, and lesson planning. The integration of instructional technology and artificial intelligence further illustrates how modern tools can enhance teaching and learning processes in ELT.

Concluding with discussions on multicultural and multilingual classrooms, this book highlights the importance of cultural awareness and local language integration in English instruction. Written in clear and accessible academic language, this book is intended to support students, teachers, and educators in developing a balanced understanding of theory and practice, enabling them to respond effectively to diverse learning needs and evolving educational challenges.



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ISBN 978-634-7422-96-5



9 786347 422965



Anggota IKAPI
No. 042/SBA/2023