

PEDAGOGICAL
JOURNEYS
AND
OPPORTUNITIES
IN **ENGLISH**
LANGUAGE
TEACHING

Ramli • Firima Zona Tanjung • Woro Kusmaryani
Jhoni Eppendi • Nofvia De Vega • Farid Helmi Setyawan Ridwan
Sri Wahyuningsih • Syarifa Rafiqqa
Sophia Fithri Al-Munawwarah • Aco Nasir • Muh Zainal Hanafi Pelu
Muliati • St. Asriati. Am • Vivit Rosmayanti

**PEDAGOGICAL
JOURNEYS AND OPPORTUNITIES
IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING**

UU No 28 tahun 2014 tentang Hak Cipta

Fungsi dan sifat hak cipta Pasal 4

Hak Cipta sebagaimana dimaksud dalam Pasal 3 huruf a merupakan hak eksklusif yang terdiri atas hak moral dan hak ekonomi.

Pembatasan Pelindungan Pasal 26

Ketentuan sebagaimana dimaksud dalam Pasal 23, Pasal 24, dan Pasal 25 tidak berlaku terhadap:

- i. Penggunaan kutipan singkat Ciptaan dan/atau produk Hak Terkait untuk pelaporan peristiwa aktual yang ditujukan hanya untuk keperluan penyediaan informasi aktual;
- ii. Penggandaan Ciptaan dan/atau produk Hak Terkait hanya untuk kepentingan penelitian ilmu pengetahuan;
- iii. Penggandaan Ciptaan dan/atau produk Hak Terkait hanya untuk keperluan pengajaran, kecuali pertunjukan dan Fonogram yang telah dilakukan Pengumuman sebagai bahan ajar; dan
- iv. Penggunaan untuk kepentingan pendidikan dan pengembangan ilmu pengetahuan yang memungkinkan suatu Ciptaan dan/atau produk Hak Terkait dapat digunakan tanpa izin Pelaku Pertunjukan, Produser Fonogram, atau Lembaga Penyiaran.

Sanksi Pelanggaran Pasal 113

1. Setiap Orang yang dengan tanpa hak melakukan pelanggaran hak ekonomi sebagaimana dimaksud dalam Pasal 9 ayat (1) huruf i untuk Penggunaan Secara Komersial dipidana dengan pidana penjara paling lama 1 (satu) tahun dan/atau pidana denda paling banyak Rp100.000.000 (seratus juta rupiah).
2. Setiap Orang yang dengan tanpa hak dan/atau tanpa izin Pencipta atau pemegang Hak Cipta melakukan pelanggaran hak ekonomi Pencipta sebagaimana dimaksud dalam Pasal 9 ayat (1) huruf c, huruf d, huruf f, dan/atau huruf h untuk Penggunaan Secara Komersial dipidana dengan pidana penjara paling lama 3 (tiga) tahun dan/atau pidana denda paling banyak Rp500.000.000,00 (lima ratus juta rupiah).

PEDAGOGICAL JOURNEYS AND OPPORTUNITIES IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

Ramli • Firima Zona Tanjung • Woro Kusmaryani
Jhoni Eppendi • Nofvia De Vega • Farid Helmi Setyawan
Ridwan • Sri Wahyuningsih • Syarifa Rafiqah
Sophia Fithri Al-Munawwarah • Aco Nasir • Muh Zainal
Hanafi Pelu • Muliati • St. Asriati. Am • Vivit Rosmayanti



**PEDAGOGICAL JOURNEYS AND OPPORTUNITIES
IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING**

Ramli ... [et al.]

Desain Cover :
Ali Hasan Zein

Sumber :
A Plus Vector (www.shutterstock.com)
rawpixel.com (freepik)

Tata Letak :
G.D. Ayu

Proofreader :
Mira Muarifah

Ukuran :
xii, 251 hlm, Uk: 15.5x23 cm

ISBN :
978-623-02-5576-2

Cetakan Pertama :
November 2022

Hak Cipta 2022, Pada Penulis

Isi diluar tanggung jawab percetakan

Copyright © 2022 by Deepublish Publisher
All Right Reserved

Hak cipta dilindungi undang-undang
Dilarang keras menerjemahkan, memfotokopi, atau
memperbanyak sebagian atau seluruh isi buku ini
tanpa izin tertulis dari Penerbit.

PENERBIT DEEPUBLISH
(Grup Penerbitan CV BUDI UTAMA)

Anggota IKAPI (076/DIY/2012)

Jl.Rajawali, G. Elang 6, No 3, Drono, Sardonoharjo, Ngaglik, Sleman
Jl.Kaliurang Km.9,3 – Yogyakarta 55581
Telp/Faks: (0274) 4533427
Website: www.deepublish.co.id
www.penerbitdeepublish.com
E-mail: cs@deepublish.co.id

Foreword

PEDAGOGICAL JOURNEYS AND OPPORTUNITIES IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

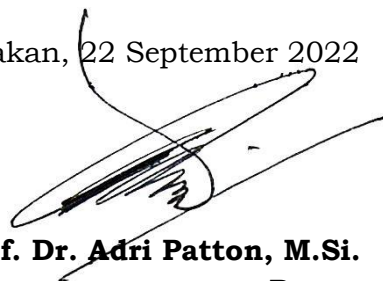
Praise Allah SWT for the blessing and gratitude for completing this Chapter Book with great ease. Without help, the editor and authors may not have the persistence and encouragement to finish this writing. A big appreciation is also awarded to the Dean of Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, the Head of the English Education Department, and all lecturers who have supported and contributed to making this book. Confidently, this book can provide a broader understanding and become a reference for the communities in the same study field. For further improvement, the authors need advice and feedback.

One of the lecturers' responsibilities is to stay current by reading widely and producing published work in the field while connecting and collaborating with other academics to improve teaching strategies and expand their knowledge base. The research will also refresh and enrich the lecturers' quality in handling the class to motivate the students and improve significantly. Besides, this is also well in harmony to meet the university's vision to explore lecturers' potential in finding their specialized competence, better academic careers, and professional development.

This book honorably presented such enthralling and thought-provoking insights on various perspectives in English education. The contributions highpoint the teaching

and learning strategies, assessment, translation, literacy, and the situation of how the pandemic has shaped lecturers' innovation and creativity in pedagogy. This book establishes that the English Education Department has the untiring motivation and commitment to improving academic writing intensity. It is also nice to find a strong collaboration by welcoming other lecturers from various affiliations to get involved in sharing their struggles, challenges, and opportunities in the ELT field.

Tarakan, 22 September 2022

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Adri Patton', written over a horizontal line.

Prof. Dr. Adri Patton, M.Si.

Rector

Universitas Borneo Tarakan

Contents

Foreword.....	v
Contents	vii
List of Figures.....	x
List of Tables	xii
Introduction	1
Chapter 1	
ENGLISH AS THE WORLD'S COMMUNICATION AND THE IMPLICATION IN CLT-BASED TEACHING STRATEGIES	
Ramli	8
Chapter 2	
DIGITAL LITERACY AND STUDENT IDENTITY CONSTRUCTION: A LENS FROM LANGUAGE LEARNING	
Firima Zona Tanjung	21
Chapter 3	
THE TEACHING OF SPEAKING THROUGH THE SOCRATIC METHOD	
Woro Kusmaryani	42

Chapter 4

ASSIGNING LECTURER TO SCHOOL PROGRAM
FOR ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE
CLASSROOM?

Jhoni Eppendi^{1,*} Nofvia De Vega² 62

Chapter 5

EXTENSIVE READING: FOUNDATION, GRADED
READERS, AND ITS TEACHING

Farid Helmi Setyawan 75

Chapter 6

DIGITAL LITERACY IN THE TERTIARY
EDUCATION CONTEXT

Nofvia De Vega 90

Chapter 7

AUTHENTIC ASSESSMENT IN ENGLISH
LANGUAGE TEACHING

Ridwan¹ and Sri Wahyuningsih² 105

Chapter 8

TEACHING TRANSLATION: TRANSLATION
LEARNING METHOD, TRANSLATION
TECHNIQUES, AND TRANSLATION QUALITY
ASSESSMENT STRATEGIES IN UNIVERSITY

Syarifa Rafiq 122

Chapter 9

CRITICAL LITERACY WITHIN THE CONTEXT
OF EFL CLASSROOM

Sophia Fithri Al-Munawwarah 145

Chapter 10

ACTIVE LEARNING: A MEANS OF IMPROVING
SPEAKING SKILLS FOR ADULT EFL

Aco Nasir..... 158

Chapter 11

LEARNING AND TEACHING IN HIGHER
EDUCATION PERSPECTIVE MODERATION

Muh. Zainal & Hanafi Pelu 172

Chapter 12

CONTENT-BASED LANGUAGE TEACHING FOR
ESP COURSES IN INDONESIAN HIGHER
EDUCATION

Muliati & St. Asriati. Am 188

Chapter 13

THE EFFECT OF ROLE-PLAY ACTIVITIES ON
BEGINNERS' SPEAKING SKILL

Vivit Rosmayanti..... 215

Index..... 235

Author Biography 243

List of Figures

Chapter 3

- Figure 1. The Teaching of Speaking through the Socratic Method 53
- Figure 2. Speaking Pattern from Inner and Outer Circle..... 54
- Figure 3. Assessing Students' Speaking Skill 57

Chapter 4

- Figure 1. Students' Achievement Record 71

Chapter 5

- Figure 1. The Differences between Intensive Reading (IR) and Extensive Reading (ER) 80

Chapter 6

- Figure 1. Seven Elements of Digital Literacy 95
- Figure 2. Higher Education's Four Essential Components of Education 4.0..... 99

Chapter 8

- Figure 1. Catford Translation Techniques 127
- Figure 2. Newmark Translation Techniques 128
- Figure 3. Five Collaborative Aspects of the Translation Class 133

Chapter 10

Figure 1. The Active Learning Continuum 163

Chapter 12

Figure 1. Model of CBLT (Brinton, 2013) 195

Figure 2. Benefits of CBLT (Stephen, 1997) 202

List of Tables

Chapter 4

Table 1. Interview Question	67
Table 2. Result of Questionnaire	67

Chapter 8

Table 1. Popular Translation Techniques.....	134
Table 2. Translation Quality Assessment Instruments	136

Chapter 13

Table 1. Research Design	220
Table 2. Recapitulation of Students' Speaking Skill Results	222
Table 3. Frequency Distribution of Students' Speaking Skills on Role-play Activities	222
Table 4. The Result of the T-test	223

Introduction

PEDAGOGICAL JOURNEYS AND OPPORTUNITIES IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

The book presents teaching and learning strategies as well as the teachers' pedagogy and how the journeys are applied in English language education both inside and outside of the classroom setting. This book consists of thirteen chapters authored by eight writers from the English language department Universitas Borneo Tarakan and seven authors from different affiliations.

The first chapter authored by Ramli points out how English is growing fast to be a *global language and demands people to communicate* using English. The need to have English proficiency requires teaching language skills in the classroom with appropriate strategies. In learning English, students are expected not only to acknowledge the language but also to be competent communicators. CLT as contextual language teaching faces opportunities to bring English into the real context with varieties of activities such as discussion, presentation, project, observation, technology involvement, and so on. Today's learning is more challenging and teachers' creativity and innovation are required to select appropriate strategies, materials, or media to grow students' language skills supported by autonomous learning and teachers' instruction.

In chapter two *Digital Literacy and Student Identity Construction*. The author is Firima Zona Tanjung. The author focuses on the explanation of how digital literacy contributes to identity construction and impacts the English language learning process. Furthermore, the author highlights the role of immediate family, schools, and higher education to gradually encourage the students' effort in constructing their identity as learners and social beings in the real and digital world. The author stresses that with a solid partnership among the related parties (immediate family, schools, and university) the student's identity construction is expected to be fully supported, so they can negotiate and adapt to the others successfully in the real and digital communication settings. While chapter three written by Woro Kusmaryani discusses *the teaching of speaking skills through the Socratic Method*. According to her, the Socratic Method is a dialogue between the teacher and the students that are sparked by the teacher's persistent probing questions in an effort to uncover the underlying assumptions that inform the student's thoughts and opinions. The Socratic Method can stimulate students' speaking skill as well as their critical thinking skills. This chapter gives a general overview of how the Socratic Method is used to teach speaking skills, covering everything from preparation to the assessment phase. The Socratic Method aims to support students in the development of critical thinking abilities and meaningful engagement with their academic material. With this approach, teachers can reply to questions raised by students and encourage them to think critically about their work. The Socratic Method of teaching can help students organize their knowledge, grow intellectually, and understand morals and concepts.

The next chapter by Jhoni Eppendi describes *the collaboration between teacher and lecturer in improving the*

quality of teaching and learning process to meet students actively involved and learning outcomes achieved. It is started by planning where the lecturer and teacher design the learning service contextually to the student's condition and proficiency. Secondly, the lecturer hosts the class to implement the designed learning plan while the teacher and observer sit in to monitor how the class goes and the student's response to the class design. The third teacher and lecturer evaluate and reflect on the result of class observation to be defined and redesigned for the next class. The last stage is teacher and lecturer design the lesson plan based on the evaluation result. Those four steps were done for eight meetings which presented a beneficial experience for all; students, teachers, and lecturers. This collaboration helps the students find a conducive atmosphere, and they get motivated to be involved, which allows them to meet the learning outcome satisfactorily. Teachers possess a variety of alternative learning scenarios and media where the teacher always complains. Furthermore, the lecturer acquires personal experience in dealing with students at senior high school, which this experience will be an input in preparing teacher students before having teaching practice at the school.

Chapter 5 authored by Farid Helmi Setyawan brings *the issue of extensive reading* which is broadly known as reading for enjoyment and is beneficial for EFL students. It is believed that extensive reading motivates learners to read a large number of texts on a wide range of topics to broaden their interests, knowledge, and experience. Students read texts that match their language level, and they choose the time and place to read. Extensive reading allows students to find pleasure in reading as they gain a general understanding of literary ideas, learn reading strategies, acquire new vocabulary, and increase their English

proficiency. This chapter introduces the idea of Extensive Reading and why it is necessary. The chapter begins by setting out the case, from the differences between Extensive Reading and Intensive Reading, the benefit of Extensive Reading, and why learners cannot avoid Extensive Reading. The frequency of word occurrence and the number of times a word needs to be met show all learners should be exposed to massive amounts of text. The chapter shows how to set up an extensive reading program, and suggests ways to manage the program and get it running effectively. In the case of reading materials to be chosen in an extensive reading class, students must be exposed to various forms of texts with the level of expertise adapted to their level. They can be given online texts, comic books, Graded Readers, or materials written by the teacher. The last of the chapter shows the assessment and evaluation Extensive Reading program.

Chapter six written by Nofvia De Vega deals with *how universities play a crucial role in equipping students with the knowledge and skills necessary to participate in the modern information society and subsequently build successful careers*. Digital literacy has become a necessary ability for everyone, including schools, due to its many benefits. Students today need to be digitally savvy, which involves having a working knowledge of digital literacy. One of the main requirements for students is digital literacy, and exercises related to it are included in lectures. As part of the lecture, students must be sensitive to and knowledgeable about changes in science and technology. This chapter authored by Ridwan provides information to teachers about authentic assessment in English language teaching. Authentic assessment is a form of assessment that requires students to demonstrate their attitude and use the knowledge and skills they have acquired through learning to perform tasks in real-world settings. Authentic assessment

consists of assessing attitude, knowledge, and skill domains. The authors also discuss the nature of authentic assessment, the authenticity dimensions of assessment, the possible implementation of authentic assessment for young learners up to tertiary students, and the strengths and challenges of implement the authentic assessment.

Moving on to chapter eight, which is on Syarifa Rafika describing *translation learning methods, translation techniques, and translation quality assessment strategies in translation classes at universities*. Many studies describe the three separately, such as what kind of translation learning methods, the translation technique, and what instruments of the translation quality assessment strategy are used in universities. What is the translation technique used? and the translation quality assessment strategy using what instrument? Based on this, this chapter explains that the collaborative method is very suitable in translation classes at universities. Collaborative methods have many benefits if applied in the translation class. Students become more active, have positive relationships with students, build meaningful learning, experience problem-solving in translation, and provide creative spaces to students.

Chapter nine was authored by Sophia Fithri Al-Munawwarah. In the chapter *Critical Literacy within the Context of EFL Classroom*, the author highlights a recommendation for conducting critical literacy-oriented activities, especially for adolescent students. Specifically, this chapter is intended to language teachers including foreign language teachers and future researchers who are interested in implementing critical literacy in their teaching practice or their research. It is recommended to integrate multimodal text since it is relevant to this digital age in which almost all texts utilized more than one mode to convey meaning. With regard to this, the author hopes that this chapter will be

useful. Chapter ten written by Aco Nasir deals with *active learning in the learning process*. With the aim of not only tending to achieve the target of curriculum materials that are concerned with memorizing concepts but more than that, this strategy focuses on understanding. The main indicator of the success of an active learning strategy can be seen from the learning activities in the classroom which are always dominated by students while the teacher only acts as a facilitator, director, and mentor. the teacher does not merely provide material delivery, using the lecture method in which students just sit, take notes, and listen to what is conveyed by the teacher and there are few opportunities for students to ask questions. In other words, this strategy aims to make the learning atmosphere more conducive so that students become active.

Chapter eleven by Hanafi Pelu and co-author reports on Higher education institutions play an important role as creators and disseminators of knowledge, laying the groundwork for societal progress and improvement. Learning is the process by which people acquire new skills, abilities, and attitudes. From infancy, when infants learn some basic skills, to adulthood, when an individual is expected to have mastered certain work responsibilities and other functional skills. The purpose of moderation is to ensure that the assessment process is fair, fair, and valid and that the assessment is consistent, reliable, and evidence-based in task answers. In most cases, university regulations and practices govern the moderation process in higher education.

Meanwhile, in chapter twelve, Muliati and St. Asriati. Am state that teaching ESP in higher education needs to consider the content and the implementation of Content-based language teaching (CBLT) is one of the approaches in which the target language is used as a vehicle for learning subject matter material rather than as the primary focus of

study. CBLT provides a strict link between language and content. Therefore, the lecturer needs to focus on language in which there would be a separation of language and content. There are three types of models CBLT namely theme-based language teaching, sheltered language teaching, and adjunct language teaching. CBLT has the advantage for students. For instance, CBLT help to guarantee students' constant motivation and interest apart from language knowledge and linguistic abilities developed during the whole process of language learning. Thus, it is a recommendation for lecturers to implement CBLT in ESP courses for focusing the specific content on students' needs. The book closes with a chapter from Vivit Rosmayanti, who discusses the effect of the role-play method on beginner speaking skills in a private university setting. Speaking skill usually becomes a problem for beginner learners and according to some researchers, one of the good ways to promote students' speaking skills is by applying role-play activities in the class. The writers believed that applying Role-play activities in the class will help students practice speaking skills in communication in a more authentic way.

The book finally presents a number of perspectives on learning and teaching strategies, teachers' pedagogical journeys, opportunities, and promising effects in English language teaching. From this reference, the readers are expected to obtain not only the benefits as sources but also further discussion in the ELT context.

**ENGLISH AS THE WORLD'S COMMUNICATION
AND THE IMPLICATION
IN CLT-BASED TEACHING STRATEGIES**

Ramli

English Education Department,
Faculty of Teacher Training and Education,
Universitas Borneo Tarakan

Abstract

English as the dominant language in the world grows because of technological advancement and the need to communicate with native and non-native speakers around the world. The existence of English demanded English proficiency that requires concerns about teaching language skills in the classroom. Learning English is not only focusing on receiving knowledge or information or anything intrinsic to the language itself (linguistic knowledge) but also the ability to express the language socially and culturally (communicative competence). Historically, the model of teaching was changed from time to time after considering the relevance of language development. CLT tries to remove the traditional model of teaching that focused on grammar and its practices into controlled activities like performance, simulation, spoken reports, and a project. They can also bring their world knowledge and experience to be performed

in the classroom. CLT is contextual to guide learners to find their competence to use English in global communication with some activities like discussion, roleplay, feedback, technological devices/platform usage, teachers/students' roles, and classroom management. The opportuneness of learning strategies, materials, or media determines the growth of language skills supported by Self-autonomy and regulation guided by the teachers' instruction.

Keywords: English skills, CLT, communicative competence

INTRODUCTION

English is the international language of the twenty-first century. The number of people who speak English is the world's dominant language. English is the language of global communication, information, technology, media, travel, education, entertainment, and diplomacy (Crystal, 2003). Many technological and creative breakthroughs are now described and named in English, whereas they were once introduced to the world in a classy and exclusive manner. People who know English will benefit from technological advancements such as the internet and social media, which are quickly becoming the world's most successful online communication and exchange channels. Social media use has become an integral part of many people's lives around the world, and it has been incorporated into English teaching and learning media (Dwivedi et al., 2021). Native speakers must now be prepared to embrace, not just tolerate, the changes being shaped by instant global access, because online and social media usage will play a significant role in the next phase of English evolution (British Council, 2013). As English is used in the workplace, it helps people maintain and improve their standing and brings long-term benefits to productivity and growth. In Indonesia, for example, some

jobs already require English to fill the gap. Today, the majority of the world's best universities are in English-speaking countries, and English has become the academic lingua franca. When English proficiency improves, it can attract the best in the world and welcome people to study, conduct research, and collaborate with the best located all over the world. English is a lingua franca that non-native speakers use all over the world (Kachru, 1990).

In line with Nelson and Dovring (1997), Aarts (1999), and Seidlhofer (2007), English has spread to all five continents and has become a truly global language. Language becomes a contact language for two countries that share neither the first language nor culture. English is widely used to transfer knowledge, experience, and other specific cultures. That is the demand for English proficiency nowadays, which requires concerns about teaching language skills in the classroom. To succeed in English learning, ELT will support the growth with a good engagement and a learning atmosphere. Classroom teaching and learning strategies need to match the learners' needs and improve the provisions of English. The teachers are the center of this process and the willingness of students to learn. Since the need for fluency in English is the consequence of the big role of English as the world's communication is increasing, it demands more effective ways and more updated learning strategies to teach English (Richards; 2009).

THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH

One of the strongest incentives for learning the language is its use. Learning English is not only focusing on receiving knowledge or information or anything intrinsic to the language itself. When it is produced, it is measurable whether the English has improved. When using it, language

will emerge in the context socially and culturally. Riggenback & Lazaraton (1991) stated that language education is indicated successful when the EFL students can communicate in the language effectively. Students are not only knowledgeable about the language itself but they need good communicative competence.

The model of teaching was changed from time to time after considering the relevance of language development. Based on history language teaching was started with the model of the Grammar translation method (GTM) (Richards and Schmidt, 2002). Because this method was quite traditional, teaching grammar rules and practicing them by translating the written sentence into the target language. After having been applied, this method seemed relevant only to language input (accuracy, vocabulary, grammar). Then, the Direct Method/Natural Method (Richards & Theodore S. Rodgers, 1986) came to focus on spoken language and listening while grammar was taught for introductory. The instruction used demonstration and dramatization, or visual aids with a meaningful context to help the students learn words, phrases, idioms, and grammar in the target language.

Meanwhile, the Reading Approach was taught to read sentences in the target language to explore new information and the reading ability like predicting, guessing, inferencing, and interpreting (Mark, 1994). The teaching method was developed into the Audiolingual Method, which was in mimicry and memorization. Students will do lots of drills/repetitions on the structural language to perform the students' habits through speech. After this method was applied, some critics raised questions about the goals of this teaching method. It was highlighted that this method did not provide the students the opportunity to share their ideas and develop their competence to naturally and spontaneously

communicate because they only focus on mimicry and memorization (Brown (1994).

Nowadays language teaching uses CLT. Richards, (2005) states that communicative language teaching (CLT) is a familiar approach used in language teaching to support the learners' ability development not only to know about the language knowledge but they can use the language fluently and meaningfully in the real context. In line with Canale and Swain (1980), in communicative competence, there are three types of knowledge acquired by the learners; (1) knowledge of underlying grammatical principles which highlight the form and meaning of the words. It covers all linguistic knowledge that is stored in such symbolic connections (Wasserscheidt, 2019). (2) The extrinsic knowledge of a language focuses on how to use language in a social context to fulfill communicative functions and (3) knowledge of how to combine utterances and communicative functions concerning discourse principles. CLT tries to remove the traditional model of teaching that focuses on grammar and its practices into controlled activities like performance, simulation, spoken reports, and a project in both groups and pairs. They can also bring their world knowledge, and experience to be performed in the classroom. CLT is contextual to guide learners to find their competence to use English in their global communication.

SOME EFFECTIVE STRATEGIES IN TEACHING AND LEARNING ENGLISH APPLYING THE CONCEPT OF CLT

CLT teachers encourage students to use English in English as a Second Language (ESL) classrooms. ESL teachers can use activities that encourage students to speak while performing meaningful tasks to promote meaningful language use. Interaction in the classroom can help students

achieve the goals of ESL education. In communicative language-based teaching, students can interact between learners and language users, and collaborate to create purposeful and meaningful talk between the learners, teachers, and language users. The learners can understand the meaning where English is used to communicate and can respond or give feedback by incorporating what they hear and new ideas to develop their communicative competence Richard (2006).

Some studies have focused on CLT classroom activities. Coskun (2011) investigated teachers' attitudes on their classroom practices towards certain features of CLT like pair and group-work activities, fluency and accuracy, error correction, and the role of the teacher. The study found some challenges as the major difficulties faced by teachers like large class size, traditional grammar-based examinations, and little time to prepare communicative materials. There was still a discrepancy between teachers' attitudes on CLT and observed classroom behaviors. The lack of CLT features in the classroom becomes a challenge to make teaching more effective and successful.

Short stories are one-way CLT used in the classroom to teach English. Stuart and Adrian (2012) used short stories in three stages of activities in the English classroom. 1. Students will recognize and comprehend the key elements of a short story and will read short stories with appreciation. 2. Students will read and write specific aspects of a short story, such as setting, character, theme, dialogue, opening, and closing, before beginning to write their own story for the module. 3. Students will share a story with the class to practice their oral and storytelling skills. They will also complete and perform the draft of their module story. The Learning English through Short Stories module is intended to introduce learners to the world of short stories,

encouraging them to read, write, and tell them so that their language knowledge, world knowledge, thinking and comprehension, and learning motivation can be developed. Learners' understanding of the major features of short stories, language skills, cultural awareness, critical thinking skills, and creativity are all developed through the activities they participate in. Learners are guided to write a story or develop one from a given story outline at the end of the activity.

CLT can also be represented by active learning. According to Rampeng and Ramli (2018), active classes focused on content and process. The class activity will involve the students in improving their knowledge, skills, and attitude. This study found that Active Learning Activities can help students improve their speaking skills. Discussion is one method that can provide active learning to help students improve their speaking skills. Setiadi (2010) discovered that discussion techniques can help students improve their speaking skills. Students became more engaged in the teaching-learning process, and all students participated. It resulted in a better situation. Students were more enthusiastic about participating in the lesson, and the class became livelier as a result. In practice, the discussion is one of the appropriate techniques for improving students' speaking skills, as it is based on the assumption that students are active learners. Students are thought to learn best when they are personally involved in the teaching experience. Students can share ideas, information, or opinions with their peers using discussion techniques. The environment will not be intimidating, so the students will be eager to communicate. Teaching speaking through a discussion also allows for the development of accuracy and fluency while keeping students motivated.

Furthermore, Lightfoot (2007) stated that group discussions can take many different forms and are beneficial to all types of students. They can be done in preparation for job interviews or simply to improve fluency. It is critical to consider the various sub-skills involved in participating in a group discussion and to plan activities that address each of these. Furthermore, structuring and varying feedback delivery methods will assist students in identifying areas for improvement. Incorporating technology into English instruction improves students' ability to perform the language. It is supported by Toro, et al. (2018), the main strategies used by teachers to help students develop communicative competencies are modeling, repetition, and pair and group work. These strategies were frequently employed, but they were insufficient to encourage active class participation. In addition to the strategies mentioned above, there are a variety of other strategies that can be implemented to provide students with more opportunities to orally produce the language. Furthermore, teachers provide various types of feedback, such as metalinguistic feedback and elicitation, to help students improve their oral skills. What can be inferred is that the teachers' familiarity with the variety of methods used in the classroom to avoid boredom and lower participation influenced learning success.

CLT provides opportunities to radically rethink how languages are taught. Shih-Jen (2020) provided a glimpse into the future of this teaching method. In this study, language learners could use technology to communicate by playing SemiTown (a computer simulation program developed by Maxis/Electronic Arts). Students play and attempt to build their city under certain rules and conditions. This activity allowed the students to become self-sufficient in their learning by involving them in the construction of the city, which familiarize them with the

vocabulary used in masonry, architecture, gardening, and urban life. Students learned the vocabulary through communication and could also work in groups. They had the opportunity to negotiate and discuss in English while building their cities, which improved their communicative skills. by giving students the freedom to explore their language fluency, it can build students' confidence and language ability through technology. It proves that Combining CLT principles, particularly communication, and ICT in EFL classrooms may be one of the most effective and practical strategies for encouraging constructive and independent self-learning.

Diana (2014) explained three reasons why classrooms may be ineffective in achieving CLT goals. It occurs because teachers do not receive adequate training, resulting in a lack of knowledge to be more creative in task design. Second, teachers do not have enough resources to create a variety of activities. Another reason is that countries' low appreciation can reduce their motivation to perform professionally. As a result, teachers always lack preparation for teaching, demonstrating their low quality because they do not have enough time to prepare. The problems stemmed from the students as well as the teacher. They still lacked linguistic competence in areas such as grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation. Students also lacked confidence and motivation to participate in learning activities (Setiadi, 2010).

To succeed in the implementation of CLT classes, the teachers need to be aware of some aspects. According to Richards (2006), teachers must know how to use language for a variety of purposes and functions and, how to vary our use of language depending on the setting and the participants (e.g., knowing when to use formal and informal speech or when to use language appropriately for written as opposed to spoken communication), how to produce and

understand various types of texts (e.g., narratives, reports, interviews, conversations), and how to maintain communicative competence (e.g., through using different kinds of communication strategies).

CONCLUSION

English needs to be applied to broaden the interaction with new people or other social communities. The convenience of learning, materials, or media determines the growth of language skills. Self-autonomy and regulation are essential and guided by the teacher's instruction. It will show a determination to learn English through effective strategies supported by technology and rapid information. Once it is applicable, English ability might give another way to explore their professional and personal development. To achieve that, teachers and material developers should provide appropriate strategies and materials for students to have better accuracy, fluency, comprehension, and motivation. Students should not only focus on developing their usage (linguistic competence) but also prepare their competent communication to use English for different purposes.

REFERENCE

- Amy Lightfoot, A. (2007). <https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/group-discussion-skills>
- British Council. (2013). <https://www.britishcouncil.org/sites/default/files/english-effect-report-v2.pdf>
- Brown, H. D. (1994). *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

- Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical Bases of Communicative Approaches to Second Language Teaching and Testing. *Applied Linguistics*, 1, 1-47.
- Coskun, A. 2011. Investigation of the Application of Communicative Language Teaching in the English Language Classroom–A Case Study on Teachers’ Attitudes in Turkey. *Journal of Linguistics and Language Teaching* Volume 2 (1); 1-23
- Cyrstal, David. 2003. *English as a global language 2nd edition*. Cambridge University Press; Cambridge
- Diana, S. (2014). Communicative language teaching and its misconceptions about the practice in English language teaching (ELT). *Bahasa & sastra*. Vol. 14 No. 1; 36-43
- Dwivedi YK, Ismagilova E, Hughes DL, et al. (2020). Setting the future of digital and social media marketing research: Perspectives and research propositions. *International Journal of Information Management*. 59 (2021).
- Mark, Robert. M. (1994). *A Brief History of Teaching ESL Reading Approaches and Implications for the Future*. Available: https://soar-ir.shinshu-u.ac.jp/dspace/bitstream/10091/11266/1/Humanities_28-08.pdf, accessed April 14, 2011.
- Nelson G. and Aarts B. (1999). *Investigating English Around the World, The Workings of Language*, ed. by R. S. Wheeler. Greenwood, Karin During, *English as Lingua Franca: Double Talk in Global Persuasion*. Praeger, 1997
- Rampeng and Ramli, (2018). Promoting Active Learning Activities to Improve Students’ Speaking. *Ability Social*

Science Learning Education Journal. Vol. 3 No. 11 Doi:
10.15520/sslej.v3i11.2342

- Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, Theodore S. 1986. *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*, (Cambridge Language Teaching Library). Pages.9-10
- Richards and Schmidt. (2002). (*Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics* p. 231)
- Richards, J. C. (2005). *Communicative language teaching today*. Singapore: RELC,1-44
- Richards. J. C. (2009). *Teaching, Listening and Speaking from Theory to Practice*. Cambridge university press; United Kingdom.
- Riggenbach, H., and Lazaraton, A. (1991). Promoting oral communication skills. In M. Celce-Murcia (Ed.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (2nd ed.) (pp. 125-136). Boston: Heinle & Heinle
- Seidlhofer B. (2007). *Common Property: English as a Lingua Franca in Europe. International Handbook of English Language Teaching*, ed. by Jim Cummins and Chris Davison. Springer.
- Setiadi, E. (2010). The use of discussion techniques to improve students' speaking skills. *Unpublished thesis*. UNS-FKIP English Department-X.2208513-2010
- Shih-Jen. (2000). Communicative Language Teaching in a Multimedia Language Lab. *The Internet TESL Journal*, 6 (2) <http://iteslj.org/>
- Stuart, M. and Adrian, T. (2012). *In NET working: Using Short Stories in the English Classroom*. Hong Kong: NET Section.

- Toro, V., Camacho-Minuche, G., Pinza-Tapia, E. & Paredes, F. (2018). The Use of the Communicative Language Teaching Approach to Improve Students' Oral Skills. *English Language Teaching*, 12 (1). P 110-118
- Wasserscheidt, P. (2019). Construction Grammar: Basic Principles and Concepts. *Ukrainian Linguistics* 49(49):94-116

DIGITAL LITERACY AND STUDENT IDENTITY CONSTRUCTION: A LENS FROM LANGUAGE LEARNING

Firima Zona Tanjung

English Education Department,
Faculty of Teacher Training and Education,
Universitas Borneo Tarakan

Abstract

Technology advancement in disruptive era has brought an effect on digital use among the Z and Alpha generation. They are not only exposed to the use of various devices, but also demanded to improve digital literacy and so subsequently construct their identity. This article focuses on that issue by considering the trends and relevant research studies which demonstrate consistent needs of all parties' involvement e.g., parents, carers, educational institutions in students' digital literacy improvement as well as their identity construction. Additionally, this article presents five points to elaborate on, among which: 1) theoretical points of identity, 2) the relationship between digital literacy and identity construction, 3) studies on digital literacy and its impact on identity construction, 4) the significant role of primary environment to promote digital literacy and identity construction; and 5) several recommendations related to

digital literacy inclusion for students' identity construction in the field of language learning.

Keywords: Digital literacy, English language learning, Identity construction

INTRODUCTION

The teaching-learning process in the disruptive era is not only focused on knowledge transmission or sharing between teachers-students and students-students, but it also involves technology use which has been playing a significant role to provide information for teachers and students to access. Particularly, it enables both teachers and students to expand, share, discuss, and support each other in order to achieve meaningful learning experiences. Considering the importance of technology use in bolstering teaching-learning process, digital literacy is then required to optimally help students in the meaning-making through a set of action at the time they are given different modes of digital content (Jewitt, 2006; Shariman et al., 2012). Thus, digital literacy must get careful attention from teachers at schools or universities in regard to students' dependence on digital technologies. The reliance of students on technologies is linked with Prensky's identification named "digital natives" (Prensky, 2001). Students today have high exposure to the internet, smartphones, text messaging, social media, and game apps (Bennett et al., 2008; Gallardo-Echenique et al., 2015). Therefore, the way to teach students must be in line with global current trends of digital use to engage and facilitate them in learning activities.

A further question subsequently emerges about what this advancement of technology relates to language learning. There exists strong correlation between technology use and

language. Duchêne and Heller assert that language becomes so important because its role has already shifted from a social practice into a commodity (as cited in Kedzierski, 2016). Regarding the change of English today's role, this language is considered the medium of global communication. Moreover, it has taken its manifestation in our daily communication through multimodal and multi-semiotic texts (Suherdi, 2015). Hence, English proficiency is in parallel with digital literacy in order to address global communication. Besides, the use of the English language in technological tools or applications such as the internet, social media, or even online games encourages students to deal greatly with reading and so this skill need to be developed into further stage at which they can apply "information management strategies" (Hafner et al., 2015). Certainly, students who can make use of electronic learning resources get more advantages in their learning efficacy, duration, flexibility, and speed (Biranvand & Khasseh, 2014). Briefly, technology contributes on students' language learning process mainly as fast, accessible, and various information vehicle.

Nevertheless, students are not only confronted with the condition at which they should have an ability to cope with the practices of digital literacy but they also realize that technology is related to their identity construction in language learning. While they get involved in the internet, social media, game apps and educational apps, they have a great opportunity to communicate with known or unknown users of those digital technologies. Thus, unintentionally or intentionally, students begin to construct or focus on their identity; the way they conceptualize, produce, and reproduce themselves in digital interactions (Barton & Lee, 2012; Darwin & Norton, 2014; Lafkioui, 2008; Norton & Costa, 2018). Briefly, students are in the condition in which they

participate in a new dimension of digital literacy practices so-called “dimension of being” or “contexts” (Hafner et al., 2015; Jones & Hafner, 2012).

Considering the aforementioned thought-provoking points about the relationship between digital literacy dimension called dimension of being and identity construction in the setting of language learning, this article focuses on 1) presenting the theoretical points of identity; 2) presenting the theoretical points of digital literacies and identity construction; 3) presenting previous relevant research studies on the relationship between digital literacy and identity construction; 4) promoting identity construction through digital literacy in language learning from primary environment; and 5) presenting the recommendation of digital literacy inclusion for students’ identity construction in the field of language learning.

#1 Identity

Several scholars use a term in sociology called “identity” to refer to an individual’s perception of his or her relationship to the environment and how it is constructed through language, experiences, and social power (Norton, 2000; Norton & Toohey, 2011; Pierce, 1995; Weedon, 1987). Certainly, living in various environments leads people to have “dynamic, context-bound” (Moje & Luke, 2009) and negotiated, socially constructed due to time and spatial dependence (Norton, 1997, 2000). In line with the conception of identity which is dynamic and socially constructed, Bourdieu (as cited in Polónyová, 2017) mentioned that identity is associated with the symbolic power relation between speaker and listener, the use of words, and the aims of speech e.g. to be believed, obeyed and respected. Thus, identity is not neutral or naturally made since many factors get involved in its construction. In support of the previous

statement, Bakhtin (as cited in Zou, 2018) added that the complexity of identity makes individuals consider the “value system” at which they make interaction since its goal is to create meaning among individuals participating in the interaction. Therefore, words that can be directly linked with language become reliant on the context in which the speaker and listener communicate. Lastly, West (as cited in Norton, 1997) asserted that identity is closely connected to desire because when an individual has power or privilege, she or he must make an attempt to articulate particular desires to particular community that can understand their expression. Consequently, power, social and economic relations play a part significantly in identity formation and ways of desire-fulfillment. Briefly, through utterance (I relate it directly to language), power, social and economic relation, desire, and context, identity is being constructed.

#2 Digital Literacy and Identity Construction

The use of technology is no longer considered an exclusive matter rather it is commonly found in educational context. Additionally, it is to assist students in their learning process. Technology advancement demands students to be digitally literate person so each of them can have various participation within a given environment (National Council of Teachers of English, 2008). Particularly, in the language learning context, participation through virtual communication enables students to make meaningful interactions (Lam, 2000; Marissa, 2014; McGinnis et al., 2007).

Within the emergence of these novel communication practices, students negotiate their identity in a given environment or community (Byfield et al., 2016). The phenomenon of language learning and students’ negotiation of identity through the participation in virtual spaces are

much connected to sociocultural theory focusing on the action of shaping identities due to “the shaping of social and cultural contexts” or we can say explicitly the shaping of virtual spaces (Lewis et al., 2007). Certainly, the shaping of virtual spaces makes students should take into account many factors to be digitally literate. It is associated with the norm of behaviors (Kimmons, 2014) that students should have in order to be accepted in a given community. Considering the norms of behaviors and approval as part of the community, students should have three factors namely desire, motivation, and investment to ensure them experience the learning and adaptation process (Curwood et al., 2013; Motha & Lin, 2014). These factors are all significant simultaneously to digitally engage students with the global community in the era of knowledge economy.

Certainly, students will have the motivation to learn as they have desire to be part of the global community. In representing themselves, students then invest the combination of identity, capital and ideology (Darvin & Norton, 2015). Considering the keys especially capital and identity, virtual spaces as the context requires students to possess skills to obtain information and make meaningful interaction. These skills or what so-called capital, then open the opportunity for students to struggle for their identity transformation. Their identity becomes fluid, dynamic, and negotiable since their involvement in virtual spaces is dependent on what context they are in. Therefore, discourse of digital literacy is not merely focused on students’ skills or competencies of being proficient and fluent in technology use but it is also about spaces where students represent themselves in an online community (Hafner et al., 2015; Martin, 2005).

#3 Digital Literacy and Identity Construction: Related Previous Researches

Recently, the focus of research on the relationship between learning activities in virtual spaces and identity formation has been widely conducted. In the work of McDougall et al. (2018), the cooperation between students and their parents/carers on the use of digital literacy was studied. The result showed digital literacy had functioned in various ways e.g., selecting apps for learning, improving learning autonomy, and representing selves in the online platforms. As a result, digital literacy has played different roles at one time. It can be as skills possessed by its users and as context in which the users engage with learning activities, interact with other members of community services in the workshop program, and continuously construct their identity through learning activities.

Supporting the previous research result, Mina (2014) concluded that in the first-year composition class, her international students from Asian countries utilized various modes of expression and media of production to create multimodal narratives. Surprisingly, these Non-Native Speaker (NNS) students explored much about their relatives, culture, and places in their home countries while they were living in the USA to pursue their tertiary education. This phenomenon can clearly show that the use of technology does not necessarily uproot these students from their origin identity but strengthen it instead. In short, the written product students made was successfully self-representational.

The discourse of identity construction through social media platforms is also thought-provoking to mention. Schreiber (2015) conducted her research by focusing on the relationship between identity and the use of social media “Facebook” as context in language learning. Additionally, she

chose one of her students, studying at Serbian University, to be a participant. To get sufficient data, a series of methods namely semi-structured interviews, online observation, and rhetorical analysis were done. Then, the findings showed that the participant was highly engaged with Facebook as it was utilized to represent himself as Serbian hip-hop artist. Besides, he also consistently used multi-language and multimodal texts for his postings on Facebook page. Concisely, the use of multi-language (English, Serbian, and hip-hop slang) through social media platforms as virtual space or context enables the NSS student to construct his identity not only as Serbian but also as part of the global community (e.g., hip-hop community).

Based on three aforementioned research studies, it can be stated that digital literacy dimension as virtual spaces or context provides students an opportunity not only to practice their English, create multimodal texts, or improve their digital literacy by utilizing media of production, but they also combine their skills of English, use of hyperlinks, and familiarity with digital apps for constructing their identity. Thus, digital literacy and identity construction become intertwined in language learning leading to global connection, meaningful interaction, and finally acceptance as part of certain community due to students' skills and their own choice of technology applications, social media platforms, and community they would like to join in.

#4 Promoting Identity Construction through Digital Literacy in Language Learning from Primary Environment

It is mentioned previously that today's students are classified as digital natives. They are expected to be digitally literate by utilizing technology to promote their language learning process and form their existence as well. However,

the so-called digital native cannot be automatically embedded in today's students since not all of them are familiar with the use of technology or if they are digitally literate, they still require support from their parents, schools, and teachers in order to optimally gain the benefit of the use of digital literacy. The followings are suggestions to promote students' identity construction through digital literacy, mainly in their language learning process.

- a. Parents/carers are the influential parties in the early stage of students' interaction with digital literacy. Thus, they should prepare themselves to be role-model and create supportive environment for digital literacy use mostly in language learning.***

No one can instantly be familiar with and wisely use technology in order to help them learn English. Thus, the role of parents/carers as the real referent for students to engage with technology use is quite significant. Parents/carers should take into consideration their commitment to the use of digital literacy with their children. The high commitment and cooperation between parents/carers and their children can provide a novel way to engage both of parties in English learning process. According to Chala (cited in Moreno López et al., 2017), parents/carers are influential in the immediate level of children's development in the life cycle. Hence, if they have a low level of digital literacy while they are living around digitally-literate environment then it may bring an impact on the pattern of their behavior towards use, roles, and involvement in children's learning activities. In short, parents/carers should be aware, committed, and take a part in control seriously

to get familiar with digital literacy skills and then have sufficient preparation for assisting their children to be digitally literate, optimally use digital sources for language learning, and make meaningful interaction with other people in virtual spaces as part of their learning activities.

b. Parents/carers demonstrate the use various digital apps and literacy skills in early digital literacy.

The activities of reading and writing can be interesting for children if they see their parents/carers do these activities around them (Mclane & McNamee cited in Musthafa, 2008b). The aforementioned statement can be implemented as well in digital literacy activities. Parents/carers can involve their children in utilizing free apps on their smartphones or any other digital devices to read, write, listen to, and open intensive discussion about the apps they use. The more involved parents in demonstrating the application together with their children, the more interested children show their active participation in digital literacy activities for language learning purposes. Furthermore, building trust in technology use between parents and children is urgent since children will have to take self-control over their recent and future learning activities. Moreover, a sufficient explanation of what do's and don'ts during online surfing is also important to protect children with clear rules. Certainly, parents/carers should wisely select apps that are appropriate with the age and psychological development of children.

#5 Recommendation: Digital Literacy Inclusion for Students' Identity Construction in the Field of Language Learning

If parents/carers have already been playing their role in the primary place to introduce and get students familiar with digital literacy, the next influential parties for students' digital literacy development are schools and universities. The followings are recommendations related to digital literacy inclusion in order to support students' identity construction.

a. Organization and facilitators need to set digital literacies in language curricula through careful and purposeful design.

The rapid advancement of technology including digital literacy and its effect on the teaching-learning process has already required professionals in education to design a curriculum that meets students' digital literacy needs. It is in parallel with Hafner's suggestion (2014) that digital literacies are purposefully to be set in the curriculum for English course program. Certainly, the inclusion of digital tools used in the existing curriculum requires several steps to implement in language learning activities. Some recommended steps to integrate digital literacy into language curriculum can adapt DSR methodology consisting of relevance, design, and rigor cycle (Biljon et al., 2015; Hevner et al., 2004). To begin with, in the relevance cycle, the curriculum developers can investigate students' language skills and digital literacy needs, teachers' perception and readiness, and school/university support including infrastructure readiness. Next, after in-depth analysis of students' needs is collected, the gained data can be used for the next step in the design cycle. In design cycle, the analysis result of students' digital literacy

needs is utilized for making careful planning and development of learning content and digital apps which can support the objective of English course program. Afterwards, focus group involving domain experts e.g., curriculum developers, teachers/lecturers, and ICT experts are conducted by discussing the planning and learning content having been developed. Then, when the raw materials are ready, they will be submitted to domain experts to get review, then the materials are tested and evaluated in cycles. Lastly, infrastructure readiness and intensive workshops should be held frequently to ensure teachers/lecturers and school/university staffs are well-prepared for the affordances of digital tools in the teaching-learning process off-site and onsite.

b. Give students freedom of using multi-language, multimodal texts, and various media of production as part of self-expression and self-representation.

Finished incorporating digital literacy within the curriculum for English course programs, teachers/lecturers should give freedom to their students in making use of various media of production or digital apps, exploring, and selecting apps for language learning. As a consequence, the students' language skills supported by their digital literacy can feasibly allow them to use English, hyperlinks, images, animation, songs, or audio in expressing and representing themselves through the use of the medium of production. Parallel with the aforementioned points, Mina (2014) carried out a research in which her international multilingual students, who were involved as participants, were given wide opportunities to exploit media of production and multiple semiotics in

composing multimodal narratives. It is revealed that the participants were more expressive in enacting their cultural identities by exploiting digital literacy skills, using their English and sounding their personal experiences related to their home countries. Briefly, the combination of students' digital literacy skills, multilinguals, multimodal texts, multiple semiotics, and personal experience facilitates them to create meaningful interaction to others through their narratives. Also, digital literacy shifts its dimension beneficially into dimension of being—the spaces for self-representation.

- c. *The education of mother tongue language, national language, and English (foreign language), supported by sufficient exposure, for establishing strong foundation of multilingual literacy and gaining wider access to content knowledge of their discipline areas, identity construction and respect for diversity.***

The use of English mostly in digital literacy as a dimension of being does not mean that the roles of mother tongue and national languages are not as important as the English language. English cannot be effectively taught to students if it is not based on the individuals' history of language acquisition (Suherdi, 2017), mainly in the Indonesian education context. Thus, the acquisition of mother tongue and national languages equip students an ability to make successful and meaningful interaction with others, display their cultural and/or national identity, express their thought, and develop their critical thinking. Additionally, multilingual literacy should be introduced to early grade students by both parents and schools

because many language experts and neurologists believe that at the golden age, children can easily learn any language (Musthafa, 2008a). Certainly, the high exposure to multilingual literacy brings an impact on students, especially for maintaining their identity. Furthermore, at the time students have already been settled with their multilingual literacy, it is an alarm that they are ready to establish their English literacy. To get balanced mastery of the mother tongue, national, and English languages, all of them should get sufficient exposure inside and outside the classroom.

At the tertiary education level, the students may get more exposure to English since they have to read international journal articles, books, reports, proceedings, or make interaction with others through social media platforms which feasibly involves foreigners. This condition will not let them down as they have already been well prepared with the mastery of their mother tongue, national, and English languages as the foundation of their language ability. Moreover, it benefits the students because they become flexible and excellent in ways of thinking, socializing with and respecting other people from diverse languages and cultures, and finally appreciating their own identity (Musthafa, 2008a). Considering the aforementioned explanation, parents/carers, teachers/lecturers, schools/universities and surely society should collaborate to create conducive atmosphere for students to learn languages even when they have to communicate with others through the digital mode, they are ready and confident in the effort of producing self-representation without being uprooted from their cultural identity.

CONCLUSION

As digital literacy is regarded to have a dimension of being, students in this digital age should be ready for utilizing it optimally for language learning and social purposes simultaneously. They make meaningful interaction with others through the use of digital literacy. Certainly, their interaction involves the use of language which can be understandable. In this activity, English is considered a means of communication that is widely accepted and used to connect one another. However, students with diverse cultural backgrounds should have a strong foundation of their language ability to enable their communication to run smoothly. Thus, the language ability and sharing of particular similarities are promising for them to be part of the online community. In addition, they also have their intention to create their own representation by utilizing their multilingual abilities and displaying their cultural values. It is worth mentioning that they do these things by using the language understood by others—English. Finally, what should be done to prepare these Z and Alpha generations?

Parents/carers have to take a part in socializing digital literacy to ensure their children use tech wisely. Then, at school/university, the role of teachers/lecturers is significant to explain, demonstrate, inform students more about the channels, apps, or how to use those apps so they can optimize their language learning. Obviously, commitment is the key point for parents/carers and teachers or lecturers to lead, guide, and supervise students in using digital learning platforms appropriately. Lastly, students are the responsible ones to produce their representation or identity in the online community through digital literacy use. The emphasis, surely, is on their knowledge of multimodal texts use, multiple semiotics, their own cultural backgrounds,

comprehension of multilinguals and diverse cultural values which are feasibly found in global interaction, openness and respect for people who have different thought or those who come from other countries. Briefly, digital literacy benefits its users with the unlimited learning space to communicate and collaborate, respect diverse values, implement and evaluate effective ways of tech-based learning, and understand the meaning of their existence so they can put high values on themselves and others.

REFERENCES

- Barton, D., & Lee, C. K. M. (2012). Redefining vernacular literacies in the age of Web 2.0. *Applied Linguistics*, 33(3), 282–298. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/ams009>
- Bennett, S., Maton, K. A., & Kervin, L. (2008). The ‘digital natives; debate: a critical review of the evidence. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 39(5), 775–786. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8535.2007.00793.x>
- Biljon, J. V., Traxler, J., van der Merwe, R., & van Heerden, D. (2015). Curriculum development for mobile digital literacy skills acquisition using a Design Science Approach. *The Journal of Community Informatics*, 11(3). <https://doi.org/10.15353/joci.v11i3.2703>
- Biranvand, A., & Khasseh, A. A. (2014). E-book Reading and its Impact on Academic Status of Students at Payame Noor University, Iran. *Library Philosophy and Practice (e-Journal)*, December(1), 1–12.
- Byfield, L., Shelby-caffey, C., Bacon, H., & Shen, X. (2016). Digital Literacy and Identity Formation in 21st Century Classrooms: Implications for Second Language Development. *International Journal of*

- Applied Linguistics and English Literature*, 5(1), 39–45.
<https://doi.org/10.7575/aiac.ijalel.v.5n.1p.39>
- Curwood, J. S., Magnifico, A. M., & Lammers, J. C. (2013). Writing in the Wild Writers' Motivation in Fan-Based Affinity Spaces. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, 56(8), 677–685. <https://doi.org/10.1002/JAAL.192>
- Darvin, R., & Norton, B. (2014). Transnational identity and migrant language learners: The promise of digital storytelling. *Education Matters: The Journal of Teaching and Learning*, 2(1), 55–66. <https://journalhosting.ucalgary.ca/index.php/em/article/view/62890>
- Darvin, R., & Norton, B. (2015). Identity and a Model of Investment in Applied Linguistics. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 35, 36–56. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190514000191>
- Gallardo-Echenique, E. E., de Oliveira, J. M., Marqués-Molias, L., & Esteve-Mon, F. (2015). Digital Competence in the Knowledge Society. *MERLOT Journal of Online Learning and Teaching (JOLT)*, 11(1), 1–16.
- Hafner, C. A. (2014). Embedding digital literacies in English Language Teaching: Students' Digital Video Projects as Multimodal Ensembles. *TESOL Quarterly*, 48(4), 655–685. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.138>
- Hafner, C. A., Chik, A., & Jones, R. (2015). Digital literacies and language learning. *Language, Learning and Technology*, 19(3), 1–7. <http://llt.msu.edu/issues/october2015/commentary.pdf>
- Hevner, A. R., March, S. T., Park, J., & Ram, S. (2004). Design Science in Information Systems Research. *MIS Quarterly*, 28(1), 75–105. <https://doi.org/10.2307/25148625>

- Jewitt, C. (2006). *Technology, literacy and learning: A multimodal approach*. Routledge.
- Jones, R. H., & Hafner, C. A. (2012). *Understanding digital literacies: A practical introduction*. Routledge.
- Kedzierski, M. (2016). English as a medium of instruction in East Asia's higher education sector: a critical realist Cultural Political Economy analysis of underlying logics. *Comparative Education*, 52(3), 375–391. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03050068.2016.1185269>
- Kimmons, R. (2014). Social Networking Sites, Literacy, and the Authentic Identity Problem. *TechTrends: Linking Research & Practice to Improve Learning*, 58(2), 93–98. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11528-014-0740-y>
- Lafkioui, M. B. (2008). Identity Construction through Bilingual Amazigh- Dutch Digital Discourse. In *Berber in contact: linguistic and sociolinguistic perspectives* (pp. 217–231). Köppe Verlag. <https://hal.archives-ouvertes.fr/hal-01110632>
- Lam, W. S. E. (2000). L2 literacy and the design of the self: A case study of a teenager writing on the internet. *TESOL Quarterly*, 34(3), 457–482. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3587739>
- Lewis, C., Enciso, P., & Moje, E. B. (2007). Introduction: Reframing sociocultural research on literacy. In C. Lewis, E. P. Enciso, & B. Moje (Eds.), *Reframing Sociocultural Research on Literacy: Identity, Agency, and Power* (pp. 1–14). Routledge.
- Marissa, D. N. (2014). *Hybrid Texts, Hybrid Identities: A Case Study of an Indonesian English Language Learner's Literacy Practices and Identity Construction on Twitter*.
- Martin, A. (2005). DigEuLit—a European framework for digital literacy: A progress report. *Journal of ELiteracy*, 2, 130–136.

- McDougall, J., Readman, M., & Wilkinson, P. (2018). The uses of (digital) literacy. *Learning, Media and Technology*, 43(3), 263–279. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17439884.2018.1462206>
- McGinnis, T., Goodstein-Stolzenberg, A., & Saliani, E. C. (2007). “Indnpride”: Online spaces of transnational youth as sites of creative and sophisticated literacy and identity work. *Linguistics and Education*, 18(3–4), 283–304. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2007.07.006>
- Mina, L. (2014). Enacting Identity through Multimodal Narratives: A Study of Multilingual Students. In J. P. Guikema & L. Williams (Eds.), *Digital Literacies in Foreign and Second Language Education* (pp. 141–158). CALICO.
- Moje, E. B., & Luke, A. (2009). Literacy and Identity: Examining the Metaphors in History and Contemporary Research. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 44(4), 415–437. <https://doi.org/10.1598/RRQ.44.4.7>
- Moreno López, N., González Robles, A., Torres Gómez, A., & Araya Hernández, J. (2017). Digital Literacy to parents in the use of social networks. *Alteridad*, 12(1), 22–33. <https://doi.org/10.17163/alt.v12n1.2017.01>
- Motha, S., & Lin, A. (2014). “Non-coercive rearrangements”: Theorizing Desire in TESOL. *TESOL Quarterly*, 48(2), 331–359. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.126>
- Musthafa, B. (2008a). Bahasa Asing Tak Sekedar Menaikkan Nilai Jual (Anak-Anak Belajar Bahasa Asing: Manfaat dan Persyaratannya). In *dari Literasi Dini ke Literasi Teknologi* (pp. 46–50). Yayasan CREST, Center for Research on Education and Sociocultural Transformation and New Concept English Education Centre Jakarta, Indonesia.

- Musthafa, B. (2008b). *Mengenal dan Memfasilitasi Tumbuh Kembang Anak. In Dari Literasi Dini ke Literasi Teknologi*. Yayasan CREST, Center for Research on Education and Sociocultural Transformation and New Concept English Education Centre Jakarta, Indonesia.
- National Council of Teachers of English. (2008). *The NCTE definition of 21st century literacies*. <http://www.ncte.org/positions/statements/21stcentdefinition>
- Norton, B. (1997). Language, identity, and the ownership of English. *TESOL Quarterly*, 31(3), 409–429. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3587831>
- Norton, B. (2000). Investment, Acculturation, and Language Loss. In I. S. McKay & S. L. C. Wong (Eds.), *English language learners in the United States: A resource for teachers* (pp. 443–461). Cambridge University Press.
- Norton, B., & Costa, P. I. D. (2018). Research tasks on identity in language learning and teaching. *Language Teaching*, 51(1), 90–112. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444817000325>
- Norton, B., & Toohey, K. (2011). Identity, language learning, and social change. *Language Teaching*, 44(4), 412–446.
- Pierce, B. N. (1995). Social identity, investment, and language learning. *TESOL Quarterly*, 29(1), 9–31. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3587803>
- Polónyová, M. S. (2017). Language and identity: The interaction of the students' mother tongue with English, the lingua franca of the globalized world. *Electronic Journal of Central European Studies in Japan*, 3(3), 1–15.
- Prensky, M. (2001). Digital Natives, Digital Immigrants. *On the Horizon*, 9(5), 1–6. [http://www.marcprensky.com/writing/Prensky-Digital Natives, Digital Immigrants-Part1.pdf](http://www.marcprensky.com/writing/Prensky-Digital%20Natives,%20Digital%20Immigrants-Part1.pdf)

- Schreiber, B. R. (2015). "I Am What I Am": Multilingual identity and digital translanguaging. *Language, Learning & Technology*, 19(3), 69–87. <http://llt.msu.edu/issues/october2015/schreiber.pdf>
- Shariman, T. P. N. T., Razak, N. A., & Noor, N. F. M. (2012). Digital Literacy Competence for Academic Needs: An Analysis of Malaysian Students in Three Universities. *Procedia–Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 69(69 (Icepsy)), 1489–1496. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.12.090>
- Suherdi, D. (2017). The primacy of mother language in the 21st century learning. In P. Purnawarman (Ed.), *English Teacher Education for the 21st Century Indonesia: Synergizing Character Building and Academic Achievement* (pp. 31–49). UPI.
- Suherdi, D. (2015). English for 21st Century Indonesia. *English Education International Conference (EDUTICON)*, 1–9. [http://file.upi.edu/Direktori/FPBS/JUR._PEND._BAHASA_INGGRIS/196211011987121-DIDI_SUHERDI/ETALASE/English for 21st Century Indonesia.pdf](http://file.upi.edu/Direktori/FPBS/JUR._PEND._BAHASA_INGGRIS/196211011987121-DIDI_SUHERDI/ETALASE/English%20for%2021st%20Century%20Indonesia.pdf)
- Weedon, C. (1987). *Feminist Practice and Post-structuralist Theory*. Basil Blackwell.
- Zou, H. (2018). On Linguistic Philosophy of Mikhail Bakhtin and Hallidayan Systemic Functional Linguistics. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 9(2), 367–371. <https://doi.org/10.17507/jltr.0902.19>

THE TEACHING OF SPEAKING THROUGH THE SOCRATIC METHOD

Woro Kusmaryani

English Education Department,
Faculty of Teacher Training and Education,
Universitas Borneo Tarakan

Abstract

The Socratic Method is a cooperative arguing debate between persons built on asking and answering questions to inspire critical thinking and draw out ideas and underlying presuppositions. This chapter covers the Socratic Method's implementation in teaching speaking skills, from preparation to implementation through evaluation of learning with this method. By teaching students how to identify the weak aspects of an argument, the Socratic approach helps them develop critical thinking skills. They can strategize the argument at a higher level once they've identified what makes an argument weak. It prepares students for a judge's rapid-fire questioning by teaching them to reply to questions rapidly. Students are required to be prepared and attentive at all times. This strategy can assist students to improve their speaking and critical thinking skills.

Keywords: Socratic Method, Speaking Skill

INTRODUCTION

Teaching English speaking skills is regarded as difficult based on its status as a foreign language in Indonesia. To improve their students' speaking skills, EFL teachers in Indonesia confront some obstacles and problems. According to Fauzan (2016) and Sayuri (2016), vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar, and comprehension are the language characteristics that influenced students' ability to speak. Furthermore, Ariyanti (2016) asserts that psychological elements such as students' self-confidence, fear of making a mistake, and low motivation have an impact on their speaking performance. Many language elements and psychological aspects are thought to make it difficult for students to speak English.

The ability of students to speak and utilize a foreign language is, in theory, at the heart of foreign language acquisition (Luoma, 2004). She explains that speaking allows students to personalize, create a self-image, acquire world knowledge, give reasoning, and show their thinking to demonstrate their oral skills in a foreign language. It is thought that improving students' speaking abilities is difficult and time-consuming. Many elements are required of the students, including English phonology, the use of proper vocabulary, and the ability to successfully translate words from their first language into English.

One of the accomplishments of language acquisition can be reached by teaching speaking, in which students are exposed to speaking practice, resulting in good communication at school and in society. Furthermore, phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics are all included in the instruction of speaking. Students can use those skills to aid their speaking by observing the social context, listener conditions, and issues to organize their

ideas based on logical meaning steps, which can be accomplished by using language to demonstrate value and judgment, allowing them to speak fluently and confidently (Marie & Rohan, 2011).

Furthermore, linguists and EFL/ESL (English as a Second Language) teachers agree that interaction is crucial in speaking. This engagement aims to teach the language communicatively and jointly by treating speaking as a real-life dialogue. This strategy will expose students to opportunities to communicate effectively in the target language. As a result, the classroom environment must be altered to give students a real-life context in which to communicate and stimulate speaking through authentic activities and an essential task that can be completed collaboratively in groups (Richards, 2008).

Teachers must use critical thinking while selecting teaching techniques and materials in language teaching and learning. The goal of the teacher should not just be to improve students' linguistic skills, but also to improve their critical thinking skills. Masduqi (2011) asserts that the purpose of language learning and its integration of critical thinking is meaning-making. Transformative learning techniques such as explicit teaching, memory-based learning, rote learning, and focus group discussion, according to Djiwandono (2013), can be applied in the classroom to promote critical thinking. According to Indah and Kusuma (2016), students' language competency has an impact on their critical thinking ability.

One of the educational strategies for developing critical thinking is the Socratic questioning method (Paul, 2006). The central concept of the Socratic questioning method is the truth-seeking approach, in which the dialogue between the teacher and the students is used to facilitate and evaluate knowledge assumptions through deep and continuous

questions (Roth, 2016). This strategy uses evidence and relevant data to create logical arguments that can impact teacher-student attitudes on the subject (Tofade et al., 2013). Communication becomes a significant aspect of the learning process when the teacher's and students' engagement influence the learning process (Kühnen et al., 2012). Active involvement, thinking elements, thinking standards, and thinking systems are the core focus of this instructional style in increasing critical thinking, according to Elder and Paul (2007). Previous studies on the Socratic questioning method have indicated that it improves students' critical thinking (Altorf, 2016; Burns et al., 2016).

SOCRATIC METHOD

Socratic dialogue is one of the teaching methods developed by the great philosopher Socrates, who was concerned with “truth-seeking” in the form of dialogic learning by using continuous questions in assessing the given information to help his students improve their critical thinking skills based on reasoning (Copeland, 2005; Paul, 2006). According to Burbules (1993), Socrates urged the students to investigate for them to have authority in establishing their knowledge rather than accepting it from their teacher. According to Halasek (1999), the teacher's function in the Socratic conversation is to provide learning assistance in discovering evidence and reasoning the argument in practice, rather than to be a knowledge author and transmitter. The Socratic Method is well-known as a maieutic technique in teaching.

Furthermore, experience and basic knowledge to be used in asking questions appropriately, as well as the ability to reveal answers that may inherently contradict the ideas of speaking partners in the conversation, are characteristics

and qualities that a teacher must possess when using the Socratic approach. Not only should the asking method provide equal benefits for the thrill of insight, but also for dialogue that leads to new understanding. The instructor must commit to providing a safe environment for pupils in dialogic learning that focuses on their thinking, where dialogue can be considered as an educational tool employed as a “think with” strategy, and to refer to Socrates as the social identity teacher (Haroutunian-Gordon, 1989).

Teachers can utilize the Socratic Approach as a teaching method since Socrates used continuous dialogue in the Athens marketplace, which was turned into a classroom, to attract his interlocutors using a new notion of knowledge and to seek the truth by questioning their assumptions while learning (Roth, 2016). It has been a long time since Socrates’ ontological power held an exemplary and unparalleled status in teaching methods, with the teaching modality completely transforming the educational process and the whole person by harmonizing content with the dialogue method without separating human bios from knowledge (Nelson & Dawson, 2014). The Socratic style seemed to be in opposition to the usual teaching method of rote memorization. The figure of Socrates provided an old seal of approval to teachers who dared to question the status quo in the classroom (Byun et al., 2013).

The Socratic Method has a lot of variations. The adaptations of the Socratic dialogue in modern practice were faithfully in Socrates of Plato’s dialogue, where the adaptations in the educational literature included questioning strategy in stultifying the students through the diversity of the adaptations in the contemporary classroom that took into account the benefits and challenges in the creation of Socratic teachers’ characteristics (Fullam, 2015). Classic and current Socratic Methods are distinguished by

Delic and Becirovic (2016). The Socratic Method refers to the dialogue that began with Socrates and was continued by his disciple Plato. The classic Socratic Method's failure was in finding satisfactory answers to questions in the discussion itself, as the classic Socratic Method largely assisted in identifying themes and words in the dialogue. The goal was to prepare people to develop their thinking skills by using questions to increase their understanding. This stage of thought destroyed people's previous understanding. It caused them to become less certain of what they already knew and to actively ignore some topics that could assist them to learn what they didn't know previously.

Unlike the original Socratic Method, which focused solely on identifying themes and words, the modern Socratic Method, which is widely employed today, went further in obtaining accurate information from the chosen topic. People's views and beliefs were questioned throughout this phase, which led to the development of critical thinking. The new Socratic Method put students in the position of not being ignored if they knew the answer. Because they become an active participant in the teaching and learning process in the classroom, the Socratic Method helps both the teacher and the students in terms of engagement or intimacy, which could not be accomplished in traditional lecturing. What should be emphasized is the importance of asking well-formed questions, as well as continuing to question and investigate to find the truth when there is no absolute answer (Delic & Becirovic, 2016).

The Socratic Method directs teachers and students in finding the essence and truth in the dialogue by clarifying, probing assumptions, rationale, viewpoint, and consequences until the hardest part was questioning the questions themselves, where assumptions and beliefs are assessed through continuous questions and accurate

information is gained from trusted data and evidence by clarifying, probing assumption, rationale, viewpoint, and consequences until the hardest part was questioning the questions itself. By increasing their understanding of the Socratic technique, they will be able to discover qualified in-depth responses and strengthen their critical thinking (Srinivasan, 2016).

THE TEACHING OF SPEAKING THROUGH THE SOCRATIC METHOD

Teaching Preparation

This section outlines the preparation and introduction of the Socratic Method for teaching speaking. The teaching and learning activities are divided into sixteen meetings in the teaching of speaking. There are eleven steps to the preparation and introduction of teaching speaking using the Socratic Method. The first stage is to create a webpage to assist the teacher and students in understanding the Socratic Method of teaching speaking. The second step is to create a handbook about the Socratic Method and teaching speaking that will serve as a guide for implementing the method in a speaking class. The third step is to align the instruction with the goals of the speaking course. The fourth phase is to synchronize the background information of the teacher with the background information of the students. The fifth stage is to choose the themes for speaking lessons. Making a curriculum and a learning contract is the sixth stage. Preparing e-books and website connections to help the instruction of speaking is the seventh phase. The eighth step is to choose the questions to be used in the training of speaking from the six varieties of Socratic questions. The Socratic questioning method, which is aided by technology, is the ninth phase. The tenth step is to introduce students to

the Socratic Method as a method of teaching speaking. The final step is to conduct a pretest to determine the students' speaking skills.

Teaching Process

Because classroom conversation differs from standard classroom talks, assisting students in understanding and preparing for it in the classroom can help them feel more at ease and gain more value from the experience. Students, like ants marching, find comfort and familiarity in routine, which can be both helpful and harmful at times. Students will be more successful at creating high-quality, student-centered dialogue if they incorporate new elements into classroom activities that they are more familiar with, discuss the characteristics of dialogue, and use critical reading skills to thoroughly prepare the selection of text for dialogue.

Beginning to weave the elements of classroom discussion into other activities with which students are already aware is a simple approach to introduce them to students, maybe even before introducing the method of Socratic circles. Lectures, study aids, small-group work, reading beginning textbook material, and other activities can all be tweaked to help students have better knowledge and experience with classroom conversation.

Many students enter our classes believing that information and understanding exist outside of themselves and that it is the teacher's or another expert's responsibility to disseminate such knowledge and understanding to students. Some students assume that passive learning is their sole educational option, whether it is the teacher disseminating information through a lecture or study guide or an outside expert delivering information in written or oral form. Because classroom discussion necessitates active student participation, finding ways to incorporate more

active student participation into our lectures, study guides, video viewing, and other activities can help to ease the transition to more student-guided classroom dialogue.

The teacher had tremendous success using the four activities listed below to help students see how their questions and thoughts can be valuable assets in any learning scenario. These activities assist students to engage their critical thinking and establish a purpose for learning, similar to effective pre-reading exercises that preview material, activate prior knowledge, and establish a context for learning. Students become more involved as a result of this, and they also feel more in charge of their learning, which is crucial for productive discourse.

A version of the Know, Want to Know, learning (KWL) pre-reading method is one of the simplest extensions of an activity that can create the framework for more successful discourse. Before a lecture, a study guide, a video, or any other classroom activity in which students are more passive, teachers have them come up with a shortlist of questions they hope the activity will address. Teachers encourage students to ask as many open-ended questions as closed-ended questions and to concentrate on broad, general concepts rather than precise, factual data. Students can generate questions even when completing a worksheet or study guide, which helps them connect the activity to their learning.

For a variety of reasons, having students express their questions and the answers they received might be beneficial. First, students have the opportunity to rephrase their questions and summarize the facts they discovered, allowing them to reprocess the material while also allowing the rest of the class to hear it repeated in a voice different from the teachers or experts. This has the potential to aid students in fully assimilating information. Second, students witness how

other students pose questions and investigate plausible or partial answers. Open-ended questions are rarely answered with total confidence, and students learn that partial answers are preferable to no responses. They also notice how their friends struggle with questions and responses in ways that mirror their own. Finally, when describing the answers found, students frequently refer to other students' comments and suggestions, strengthening the collaborative process and search for understanding.

It can take as little as a few minutes or as long as an hour to discuss the questions students asked of themselves and the answers they discovered. If time allows, class-period-long discussions of questions and responses can occur for a particularly engaging activity or material. Asking one or two students to share their questions and responses, on the other hand, can be just as successful in reinforcing the skills that promote productive discussion. Learning to investigate issues, accept diverse perspectives, and back up ideas with evidence are all critical skills for fostering constructive and purposeful discourse in the classroom. Students will be more comfortable and effective in utilizing these aspects in other classroom activities before engaging in discourse and will become more active and responsible for their learning.

Inner Circle Facilitation

When students are ready for conversation, the class can begin the Socratic circle process, which involves students mentoring one another on an intellectual journey within the inner circle on the route to enlightenment and knowledge. And, like in the discussion above, that journey is frequently based on previous achievements and a desire to help others achieve comparable heights. At the commencement of the Socratic circle, the teacher's responsibility is to divide the class into two groups at random and ask an initiating

question to focus the inner circle's approach to evaluating the text and commencing their debate.

The Socratic circle is initiated by randomly splitting the class into two groups of roughly equal size. This also provides students a chance to gather their belongings and move into their assigned circles. The division and movement can be performed rapidly after the initial Socratic circle when the rules and process are given in detail, often requiring no more than ten to twenty seconds. There is no correct or incorrect method for dividing the class into two rings. In general, I split the class into groups that are unpredictable and random. Students should not be able to predict which inner circle they will be in, or whether they will be in the first or second.

It's time to start the actual Socratic circle after the two circles have been established and students have taken their seats. Students sometimes don't know where to begin because they have so many ideas and questions they want to contribute and ask the group. Other students have trouble waking up, focusing on one specific portion of the text, and starting the conversation (especially early in the morning). To assist relieve these issues and get the conversation started, the teacher can start each circle with an instigating question. This question helps students focus their thoughts and provides a little amount of common ground from which to start their discussion.



Figure 1. The Teaching of Speaking through the Socratic Method

The teacher also attempted to ask open-ended questions that will generate many responses and disclose different points of view and ideas. This is especially useful in establishing a climate in which students understand that disagreeing is normal, and healthy, and may often lead to greater understanding. The teacher might model for students constructive strategies for responding to conflicting perspectives by creating and asking such beginning questions. This helps to avoid issues later in the conversation when students try to accommodate differences of opinion on their own.

The dread of students not speaking or having enough to say to fill the time allocated rarely comes true. If it does, one of three factors is most likely to blame: (1) students are uncomfortable discussing the text with their peers or in the presence of an adult because of the topic it addresses, (2) students are unable to recognize or connect with the text that allows them to investigate the underlying philosophical

questions the text seeks to address, or (3) students knew the text too difficult or unwell prepared for the dialogue.

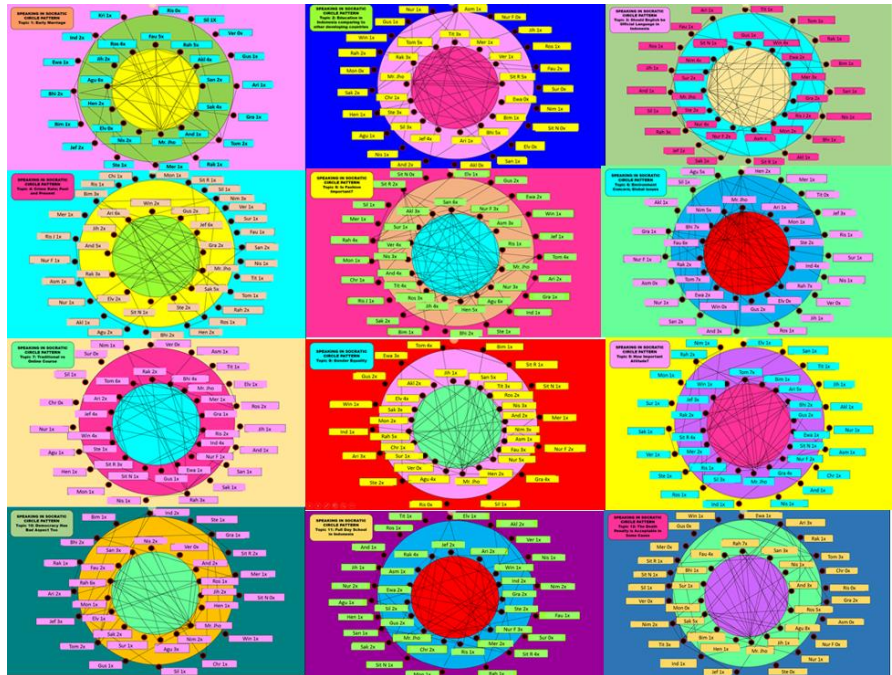


Figure 2. Speaking Pattern from Inner and Outer Circle

Teachers can begin to exert more supervision over the discussion's topic once dialogue has been formed and students have become comfortable with the praxis of Socratic circles. Teachers must, however, strike a balance between not participating enough in the discourse and contributing too much, dictating the topic's direction and flow. Teachers gradually develop a sense of when and how they may and should participate in student debate, guiding it toward deeper, higher-level thinking and discussion.

Outer Circle Facilitation

The role of the outer circle in offering feedback on the inner circle's behavior is critical for students' conversation abilities to improve. Many students value the opinions of their classmates far more than the opinions of their teachers. And knowing that the outer circle will be evaluated in the same way as the inner circle later in the class period encourages constructive and positive comments.

As the students' focus shifts from the inner circle dialogue to the feedback of the outside circle, the teacher's role in the Socratic circle process shifts substantially. While the instructor guides or coaches students through their dialogue in the inner circle, in the outer circle, he or she takes on a much more active role and directs the student conversation, seeking answers and ideas to improve the dialogue's quality in the future.

The observations, critiques, and suggestions of the outer circle are critical to the improvement of the inner circle discourse. It is the outer circle that provides feedback to participants to lead them through the improvement process. Teachers can use critical reflection procedures (reflective thinking, self-assessment, and goal planning) to assist students to prepare to discuss the inner circle discourse, as well as help students monitor their contributions, balancing praise with constructive criticism. As students wait their turn to participate in the inner circle dialogue, effective use of Socratic questioning can help to retain their sense of ownership and empowerment in the outer circle conversation.

Critical Reflection

The inner circle's discourse offers the learning experience, while the outer circle's discussion guides the class through the phases of reflection, self-assessment, and

goal setting in a Socratic circle. The four steps should ideally flow together so seamlessly that they appear to be one. Reflective thought is the first step in the outer circle's reflection process. Reflective thinking is simply thinking about what you've already accomplished. Reflective thinking, on the other hand, is significantly more complicated than many people imagine. Because people begin to question, examine, organize, reason, hypothesis, and forecast as they proceed through the steps of the reflective thinking process, reflective thinking is intimately tied to critical thinking. The questioning of abilities, views, and behaviors that make up performance is at the foundation of reflective thinking. And this interrogation is both the source of and the outcome of reflective thought.

Assessing Students' Speaking Skill

In language learning, the Socratic questioning approach allows students to explore their language skills, including not just their speaking ability, which is the course's major focus, but also their reading, listening, and writing abilities. The students attempted to explain what they were thinking utilizing the English language in their speaking abilities. Students were instructed to enhance the information on a topic that will be discussed to demonstrate their perspective on the issue and strengthen their thinking ability. Students used their listening skills to gather information while watching YouTube videos relating to the topic and listening to the teacher and other students' perspectives, reasons, and positions on the matter. Students were instructed to convey their judgment of the teaching and learning process in writing as part of their writing competency. To attain the goal language, the Socratic questioning method could be employed (Pokorna, 2009). This strategy could also be used to broaden students' vocabularies and strengthen their

grammatical structures in foreign language learning by allowing them to express their thoughts through dialogue (Mott, 2015).



Figure 3. Assessing Students' Speaking Skill

The teacher chose themes for evaluation during the assessment stage. The assessment topics were chosen based on the preferences of the students. The teacher then chose six different sorts of Socratic questions (Conceptual Clarification, Probing Assumption, Probing Rationale, Reasons, and Evidence, Viewpoints and Perspectives, Probing Implications and Consequences, Question about the Question). The difficulty level of the questions used in the evaluation was indicated by the questions. Following that, the teacher created a Speaking Scoring Rubric. The teacher then graded the students' ability to communicate. The teacher graded the students' speech using a rubric that included fluency, pronunciation and accent, vocabulary,

grammar, and details. Finally, the teacher announced the students' grades. Students should be informed of the evaluation results for them to evaluate and better themselves.

CONCLUSION

Especially dialogic teaching Socratic dialogue can help students articulate their thoughts, develop critical thinking skills, and boost their self-esteem. Students' participation was increased during the Socratic conversation process, which was facilitated by the teacher, who prompted them with countless questions to arrive at a plausible conclusion after using logical inferential questioning in the problem-solving process. Teaching with the Socratic Method may aid in the organizing of knowledge, the development of intellectual skills, and the comprehension of values and concepts. There are six suggestions for teachers who want to use the Socratic questioning method in their classrooms. To begin, investigate as many ideas of dialogic learning as possible, particularly a Socratic questioning style and critical thinking. Second, to take an online course on the Socratic questioning style and critical thinking instruction. Third, if they are unsure about implementing the Socratic questioning method on their own, they should form a team. Fourth, the level of complexity of the themes and Socratic questions utilized in the conversation should be adjusted. Fifth, undertake reflective practice to evaluate the Socratic questioning method's application so that the quality of each meeting can be enhanced. Sixth, to test students' critical thinking skills as well as their cognitive abilities.

REFERENCES

- Altorf, H. M. (2016). Dialogue and Discussion: Reflections on a Socratic Method. *SAGE Journal of Arts & Humanities in Higher Education*, 0(0), 1–16. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1474022216670607>
- Ariyanti. (2016). Psychological Factors Affecting EFL Students' Speaking Performance. *ASIAN TEFL*, 1(1), 77–88. <https://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.21462/asiantefl.v1i1.14>
- Burbules, N. (1993). *Dialogue in teaching: Theory and practice*. Teachers College Press.
- Burns, L. R., Stephenson, P. L., & Bellamy, K. (2016). The Socratic Method: Empirical Assessment of a Psychology Capstone Course. *SAGE Journal of Psychology Learning & Teaching*, 15(3), 370–383. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1475725716671824>
- Byun, H., Lee, J., & Cerreto, F. A. (2013). Relative Effects of Three Questioning Strategies in ill-Structured, Small Group Problem Solving. *Springer Journal of Instr Sci*. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11251-013-9278-1>
- Copeland, M. (2005). *Socratic Circles: Fostering Critical and Creative Thinking in Middle and High School*. Stenhouse.
- Delic, H., & Becirovic, S. (2016). Socratic Method as an Approach to Teaching. *Journal of European Researcher*, 111(10), 511–517. <https://doi.org/10.13187/er.2016.111.511>
- Djiwandono, P. I. (2013). Critical Thinking Skills for Language Students. *TEFLIN Journal*, 24(1), 32–47.
- Elder, L., & Paul, R. (2007). Critical Thinking: The Art of Socratic Questioning, Part II. *Proquest Professional Education Journal of Developmental Education*, 31(2), 32–33.

- Fauzan, U. (2016). Enhancing Speaking Ability of EFL Students through Debate and Peer Assessment. *EFL Journal*, 1(1), 49–57. <https://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.21462/eflj.v1i1.8>
- Fullam, J. (2015). “Listen Then, or Rather, Answer”: Contemporary Challenges to Socratic Education. *Journal of Educational Theory*, 65(5), 1–14.
- Halasek, K. (1999). *A pedagogy of possibility: Bakhtinian perspectives on composition studies*. Southern Illinois University Press.
- Haroutunian-Gordon, S. (1989). Socrates as a teacher. In P. Jackson & S. Haroutunian-Gordon (Eds.), *Socrates to software: The teacher’s text and the text as a teacher*. The National Society for the Study of Education.
- Indah, R. N., & Kusuma, A. W. (2016). Factors Affecting the Development of Critical Thinking of Indonesian Learners of English Language. *IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 21(6), 86–94. <https://doi.org/10.9790/0837-2106088694>
- Kühnen, U., Egmond, M. C. Van, Haber, F., Kuschel, S., Özelsel, A., Rossi, A. L., & Spivak, Y. (2012). Challenge Me! Communicating in Multicultural Classrooms. *Springer Journal of Social Psychological Education*, 15, 59–76. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11218-011-9169-8>
- Luoma, S. (2004). *Assessing Speaking*. Cambridge University Press.
- Marie, A., & Rohan, B. (2011). Using Conversational Analysis in the Second Language Classroom to Teach Interactional Competence. *SAGE Journal of Language Teaching Research*, 15(4), 479–507. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168811412878>
- Masduqi, H. (2011). Critical Thinking Skills and Meaning in English Language Teaching. *TEFLIN Journal*, 22(2), 185–200.

- Mott, M. (2015). The Use of the Socratic Method in an English Language Learning Classroom to Develop a Global Professional Skill. *Applied Linguistics*, 13(4), 43–50.
- Nelson, R., & Dawson, P. (2014). A Contribution to the History of Assessment: How a Conversation Simulator Redeems Socratic Method. *Routledge Journal of Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 39(2), 195–204.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/02602938.2013.798394>
- Paul, R. W. (2006). *Thinker's Guide to the Art of Socratic Questioning*. Foundation for Critical Thinking.
- Pokorna, J. (2009). *Socratic Method and its use in English language teaching*. Masaryk University.
- Richards, J. C. (2008). *Teaching Listening and Speaking: From Theory to Practice*. Cambridge University Press.
- Roth, R. L. (2016). The Socratic Method Reloaded: A Rereading to Improve a Technologically Sound Education. *International Journal of Learning, Teaching and Educational Research*, 15(6), 1–32.
- Sayuri. (2016). English Speaking Problems of EFL Learners of Mulawarman University. *Indonesian Journal of EFL and Linguistics*, 1(1), 47–61. <https://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.21462/ijefll.v1i1.4>
- Srinivasan, I. A. (2016). Demystifying the Socratic Teaching Method. *Golden Research Thoughts International Recognition Multidisciplinary Research Journal*, 5(9).
- Tofade, T., Elsner, J., & Haines, S. T. (2013). Best Practice Strategies for Effective Use of Questions as a Teaching Tool. *American Journal of Pharmaceutical Education*, 77(7).

ASSIGNING LECTURER TO SCHOOL PROGRAM FOR ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM?

Jhoni Eppendi^{1,*} Nofvia De Vega²

¹²English Education Department,
Faculty of Teacher Training and Education,
Universitas Borneo Tarakan

Abstract

Problematic education is one of the government's foremost concerns for decades by transforming research programs to find satisfactory results; one is assigning lecture programs. The research aimed to investigate the program participants' responses to the lecturer to the school program. This was a case study, and it was analyzed and Huberman's analysis model (data collection, condensation, display, and drawing). The study's respondents were twenty-eight students with a positive attitude towards English, a teacher of English, a lecturer of English, and an observer with an English background. The intervention was done for eight meetings, two teaching hours of each research instrument collected the data were questionnaires, interviews, and the program document. This result confirmed that (1) the variety of teaching mechanisms builds a conducive learning environment which makes the class more interesting for both

the students and educator and (and 2) the range of teaching resources requires the students to be motivated to take part actively in the classroom, (3) being an opened educator enables the educator to improve the professional teaching skill by organizing the self-reflection and peer-reflection toward the teaching performance. These findings indicated that the ALS program successfully sends the barrier class away, which always impedes the EFL classroom and maximizes the learning outcome.

Keywords: ALS program, participants' response

INTRODUCTION

The teaching and learning process is carried out in class to seek the curriculum's learning objective that has been made. (Kitchen, 2014) defines teaching as the way to form acquaintances, and learning is upgrading of acquaintance. It shows teaching and learning are a collaboration between the source of the knowledge and the target of the knowledge to optimize teaching and learning. The success in shaping the teaching and learning process depends on how the collaboration between them is done. The source of the knowledge, the teacher performs a prominent role as the central point in the class that is directly related to students' target of learning. (Roman, 2014) The teacher's ability to deliver the material is noteworthy to maximize the education goals implementation, which requires teaching and upholding students' responsibility to students' achievement for satisfying academic results.

Consequently, (Green & Janmaat, 2016) (Moswela, 2014) (Gale & Densmore, 2002) (Al-Zoubi & Younes, 2015) the dissatisfaction outcome of students leads to distrust and allegation of the educational setting in providing an

appropriate educational process in the class. (Roman, 2014) adds that the students also take part in their failure. Moreover, (Services, 2019) reported that Indonesia struggles to provide inclusive, high-quality education to its citizens due to much lower literacy levels than those of other Southeast Asian nations, with 55 percent of Indonesians who complete school being functionally illiterate. It is also supported by (PISA, 2019) that Indonesia's reading proficiency score was getting lower by 26 points than in the last report. Dealing with this issue, the tendency to achieve maximum results arises and encourages many educators to explore more ideas of learning alternatives by developing the learning strategy, method, and approach to improve education quality and build a well-rounded society.

The educational condition pictures stimulate an alternative strategy, the ALS program, to be done since this program invests a beneficial change for both teacher and lecturer. (Pembelajaran, 2019) Assign lecturers to school program are a fully-funded program initiated by the Ministry of Research, Technology and Higher Education that enhances the lecturer an authentic experience teaching at middle school to recognize the atmosphere of the teaching and learning process which will be implemented at the campus in preparing the students of faculty teacher training and education before teaching at the school. Also, it provides the teacher with an opportunity to develop the appropriate mechanism of teaching and learning process by collaborating in planning, conducting, and evaluating the teaching performance in the class. This program's constructive advantages were interesting research to be investigated by some researchers. (Mastun, Darma, Darmawan, Hodiyanto, & Budiman, 2019), (Sirrojuddin, Triyoso, & Jusmin, 2019) (Rejeki, Rahman, Sakban, & Herianto, 2020) researcher describing the stages of As the L program and the experience

of lecturers' teachers', and (Atmojo, 2019) investigated the students of Elementary School Teacher Study Program performance on teaching practice. While this research was conducted to disclose the program participants' responses; they were students, lecturers, teachers, and observers of the program performance.

(Pembelajaran, 2019) The Ministry of Research, Technology, and Higher Education designed the ALS for the Faculty of Teacher Training and Education to collaborate to strengthen and develop a Learning Community-based. The ALS is also intended not only to stream science and technology from FTTE to laboratory schools but also to distribute learning and information sharing on scientific approaches, modern school management, development of teaching materials, and others. It allows the lecturer to acquire a new experience by teaching at school. The teacher is offered some ideas to develop the teaching mechanism by collaborating on preparing, holding, and evaluating the class. The teacher and lecturer collaborate in instigating the ALS program to assist the educational barrier, two stages need to be done in conducting the assigning lecturer to school program as follows:

1. The lecturer observes both the school and class of subjects to find initial information about the school and class condition. The lecturer thoroughly examines the class's style while the subject's teacher is teaching to gain detailed information about the teacher and student performance. This stage allows the lecturer to prepare the class mechanism.
2. In the teaching process, the lecturer and teacher organize and conduct the teaching process. There are some steps for making the class as presented below:

- a. The lecturer and teacher discuss material, student's condition, teacher's problem, and solution.
- b. After discussing, the lecturer and teacher plan the teaching performance mechanism
- c. The lecturer and teacher gather to prepare their planning, such as lesson plans, media, strategy, and devices, which will support the teaching.
- d. Lecturer performs what they have qualified for the class, while the teacher and an observer are sitting at the back of the class and noting what the teacher finds and the teaching performance.
- e. After the course, the lecturer, observer, and teacher reflect and comment on the teaching performance and whether their plan has met the learning outcomes and students' competence.
- f. The last step is revising what is not appropriate to be done in the class by eliminating and adding the proper lesson plan, media, strategy, and devices without changing the learning objective to prepare for the next meeting and material.

METHOD

This research aim was to find out the responses of ALS-Program participants. The program was conducted for eight meetings, two teaching hours per session. The respondents were twenty-eight students with a positive attitude to English foreign language class, an English teacher, a lecturer of English, and an observer. The data was collected by organizing a questionnaire with six statements of each three aspects of a professional educator, which provides four alternatives to the appropriate chosen, program document, and an interview with four questions, as shown below:

Table 1. Interview Question

No	Question	Respondents			
		Students	Teacher	Lecturer	Observer
1	What do you think about ALS performing?	✓	✓	✓	✓
2	What do you like best about the ALS class, and why?	✓	✓	✓	✓
3	Which English class do you like most ALS or regular? Why?	✓	✓	-	-
4	What do you wish the teacher of English would do after this program ends?	✓	✓	✓	✓

RESULT

3.1. Questionnaire

Table 2. Result of Questionnaire

No	Aspect	Statement	SA	A	D	SD
In this class, the ALS lecturer						
1	Attribute	recognizes and acknowledges effort.	31	-	-	-
2		present a range of learning media	29	2	-	-
3		is approachable and willing to assist Maine	29	2	-	-
4		encourages and accepts different opinions.	31	-	-	-
5		has respect for the students.	31	-	-	-
6		enforces rules fairly and systematically.	29	2	-	-
7	Knowledge & Understanding	clearly explains the objectives, necessities, and grading system of the course	31	-	-	-
8		sets high standards and expectations for everybody.	30	1	-	-
9		distinguishes the subject matter.	31	-	-	-
10		presents teaching material in an exceeding type of ways that (strategy)	29	2	-	-
11		encourages cooperation and participation.	29	2	-	-

No	Aspect	Statement	SA	A	D	SD
12		is concerned and confirmatory of students within the school setting.	31	-	-	-
13	Skill	explains assignments clearly	31	-	-	-
14		Makes class attention-grabbing and relevant	31	-	-	-
15		uses class time effectively	31	-	-	-
16		provides a range of ways to measure what was learned (tests, projects, discussions, etc.).	27	4	-	-
17		encourages Maine to mind for me	29	2	-	-
18		determines a purposeful and benign learning environment for learning	30	1	-	-

Adapted from (Cohen, Manion, Morrison, & Wyse, 2010, pp. 20-22)

The presented chart provides the program participants' responses to assigning lecturer school programs across eight meetings. It is perceived that none of the program participants choose to both disagree and strongly disagree with all statements in each aspect of teaching performance. Three views of attribute aspects are strongly agreed by the students, and two students agree with the rest statements. Knowledge and understanding aspects acquire the highest agreement 100% of program participants strongly agree with the three statements. Two students agree with the statements, and one student only agrees with the statement while the rest of the students strongly agree. One out of six statements is receiving four students who agree in the skill aspect, while three statements bring total program participants who strongly agree. Statement 18 guides only a student taking agreement and two students for statement 11. Conclusively, the data shows all the statements of each aspect have had hugely positive feedback from the program participant even though the knowledge and understanding aspect leads to other elements.

3.2. Interview

The student found they possess ALS in the English class since the varied enthusiasm presented material. The course was organized in various media and strategies with a clear and appropriate explanation. The ALS class fully snatched the students to be involved in learning activities students would not get in their regular class. Undoubtedly, the students are fond of joining the course with fun and excitement. The lecturer always responds to the student's response positively; either the answer is correct or incorrect and still allows anyone to express their opinion towards the question. Once the lecturer found the improper response, she attempted to explain it more precisely. They also argued expectations to their teacher, which will not provide the homework too much and teach the class more creatively and innovatively by finding the numerous sources, media, and strategies as the lecturer does. Also, students asked the teacher to put their private feelings out before holding the class.

ALS is a beneficial program that requires both an opportunity for the lecturer to teach at the school and the teacher's chance to evolve the teaching method and learning media. This program was performed successfully as they have planned and discussed fitted students' needs. Having an opportunity to participate in the ALS program allows the teacher to have several ideas in delivering the material to find students more enthusiastic. The used media and strategy gain the students' focus during the learning process, and the well-prepared material grants the teacher to present it better. The teacher is compelled to be observant of everything to build the class more engaging. Creating a simple yet attractive class is the teachers' intention knowing these students are tightly related to technology. The teacher also

suggests that educators do not bother students by giving too much homework, which will only frustrate them.

The lecturer deems the ALS program a collaborating program between teacher and lecturer to upgrade and develop alternative innovative teaching techniques that offer assistance in preparing English education students. This intervention also allows the lecturer and teacher to share information to improve students' achievements, build a conducive learning atmosphere, and construct learning media innovatively. She also expects the teacher to continuously collaborate and discuss conducting research in the English Education area always, even though this program ends.

ALS is a synchronization collaboration of two education levels between higher education and middle school to generate ideal classroom management and learning processes. This program was both teacher and lecturer's teaching skills sharpened by having feedback from the teacher and observer and reflecting on the teaching performance, which will be improved. The lecturer got authentic experiences, and the teachers got a chance to improve the teaching process. It also inspires the observer to take a sustainable collaboration that can be conducted in various forms like discussion, team teaching, observation, reflection action research, or anything that could help both be better in education.

3.3. Program Document

The lecturer and teachers were discussing topics and materials implemented in the classroom. They also prepared a lesson plan, teaching aids or materials, and teaching strategies. There were 8 (eight) meetings in this class, and every session had various teaching aids. The lecturer, teacher, and observer had filled out the instrument such as a

reflection journal, observation sheet, and teaching report. The instrument result showed that the students had a relatively comprehensive overview of the benefits of this program. This program can be useful for the teacher because every meeting had output, especially for all documents that were already implemented in the classroom. Those outputs were used as a tool to enrich the teacher's instructional teaching and learning.

Assigning lecturers to school programs provides a synchronizing and collaboration between educators between middle school and higher education in conducting the teaching and learning process in the middle school setting. This program specifies that the variety of mechanisms offers the students, teacher, and lecturer a chance to achieve the learning outcome. The presented material flourishes the students' enthusiasm to learn. A variety of media and games can make the learning process more interesting because it allows the student to perform both creativity and skill. This condition enables the students to improve achievement by making progress in each meeting, which is illustrated in the presented graph below:

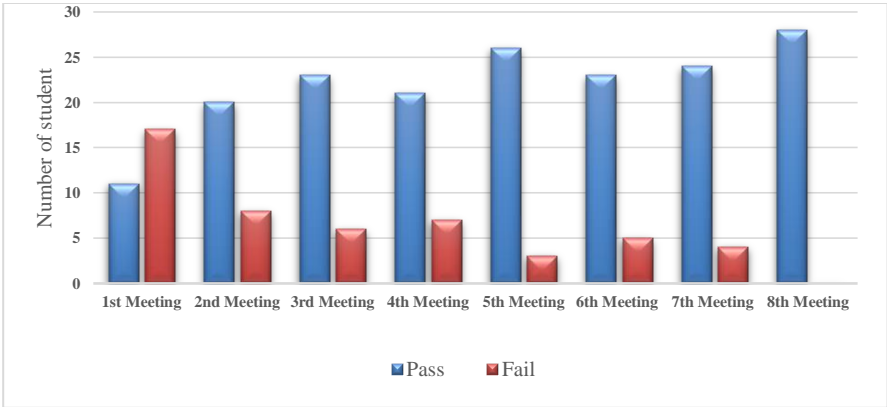


Figure 1. Students' Achievement Record

The number of students passing the minimum standard score, 75 out of 100 (Kemendikbud, 2013), significantly leads to the number of fails except for the first meeting. Moreover, in the last session none of the students were in the failure category. The students' positive achievement defines that the educator succeeded in performing material in the classroom. One of the ALS program activities, reflection, contributes to a great way to improve teaching competencies. Also, it builds a partnership between teacher and lecturer to collaborate in discussing, commenting, and revising anything without changing the learning outcomes that can assist the educators in obtaining better tutoring. The lecturer was required to have the right action for expanded implementation of ALS in collaboration with the teacher, observer, and students. The activities represent the situation in the teaching and learning process. From the beginning to the end of the program, ALS generally referred to a positive classroom climate.

CONCLUSION

The positive feedback given by the program participants signifies that the Assigning Lecturer to School (ALS) was a practical innovation education program to assist students, teachers, and lecturers in the teaching and learning process. Improving class management and the student's achievement were the teacher-lecturer collaboration's objective in this program. The student's success can reflect the student's progress during this program. The student relished the creative media and the teaching method presented. Unlike regular EFL classes, this program brings students to participate actively in the learning process since it was not textbook-oriented.

Along with the students, both teacher and lecturer benefited well by having an opportunity to advance their teaching skills through collaborating and reflecting on each other's insight in teaching. The teacher learns to apply engaging methods and bring students active with a new learning atmosphere. Furthermore, the lecturer can apply advanced innovative teaching skills and have an authentic teaching experience with the students at school, which will help the lecturer prepare her students, English department of faculty teacher training and education, before having the teaching practice at school.

REFERENCES

- Al-Zoubi, S. M., & Younes, M. A. (2015). Low Academic Achievement: Causes and Result. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 2262. doi:10.17507/tpls.0511.09
- Atmojo, E. E. (2019). Implementasi Program Penugasan Dosen di Sekolah (PDS) untuk Meningkatkan Kreativitas Mahasiswa Calon Guru SD dalam Perkuliahan IPA Bervisi SETS Berbantuan APS. *Journal of Education and Technology*, 3(4). doi:10.23887/jet.v3i4.22555
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., Morrison, K., & Wyse, D. (2010). *A guide to teaching practice (5th Ed.)*. NY: New York: Routledge.
- Gale, T., & Densmore, K. (2002). Student Success and Failure: As a Matter of Fact or just How They are Portrayed. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 30(1), 7. doi:10.1080/13598660120114940
- Green, A., & Janmaat, J. G. (2016). The Handbook of Global Education Policy. In K. Mundy, A. Green, B. Lingard, & A. Verger, *Education and Social Cohesion: A*

- Panglossian Global Discourse* (p. 185). Chichester: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.
- Kemendikbud. (2013). *Permendikbud 81A tahun 2013 tentang Implementasi Kurikulum 2013*. Jakarta: Kementerian Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan.
- Kitchen, W. H. (2014). *Authority and the Teacher*. London: Bloomsbury Publishing.
- Mastun, Darma, Y., Darmawan, H., Hodiyanto, & Budiman, R. A. (2019). Kegiatan penugasan Dosen di Sekolah (PDS) IKIP-PGRI Pontianak. *Pemanas Adibuana*, 3(1), 1.
- Moswela, B. (2014). Students' Academic Achievement: Whose Responsibility and Accountability? *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 5(10), 46.
- Pembelajaran, D. (2019). *Panduan program bantuan penugasan dosen di sekolah*. Jakarta: Kementerian Riset Teknologi dan Pendidikan Tinggi.
- PISA. (2019). *PISA 2018 Results: Combined Executive Summaries*. French: OECD.
- Rejeki, S., Rahman, N., Sakban, a., & Herianto, A. (2020). Implikasi Penugasan Dosen di Sekolah (PDS). *Jurnal Evaluasi dan Pembelajaran*, 2(1).
- Roman, M. D. (2014). Students' Failure in Academic Environment. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*. 114, p. 170. New York: Elsevier Inc.
- Services, W. E. (2019). *Education System Profile: Education in Indonesia*. Toronto: World Education News-Review. Retrieved from <https://wenr.wes.org/2019/03/education-in-indonesia-2>
- Sirrojuddin, Triyoso, A., & Jusmin. (2019). Implementasi Program Penugasan Dosen di Sekolah. *Jurnal ABDIMASA Pengabdian Masyarakat*, 2(1).

EXTENSIVE READING: FOUNDATION, GRADED READERS, AND ITS TEACHING

Farid Helmi Setyawan

English Education Department,
Faculty of Teacher Training and Education,
Universitas Borneo Tarakan

Abstract

Reading is a process of interpreting symbols of letters and words to achieve knowledge or information. The purpose of reading is to guide and help readers to direct information towards a goal and help focus their attention. English as a Foreign Language (EFL) usually is thought difficult by students in understanding reading materials they read. They might have difficulty translating a word or a sentence into English and it leads students to learn English slower than their mother tongue (L1). At the last time, not long ago, when most EFL practitioners had not heard of Extensive Reading (ER) nor its sister Extensive Listening (EL). Extensive Reading (ER) is an approach to second language reading. When learners read extensively, they read very easy, enjoyable books to build their reading speed and fluency. The benefit of Extensive Reading is that: builds vocabulary, helps learners understand grammar, helps learners to build reading speed and reading fluency, objective of Extensive Reading is reading for pleasure. The Extensive Reading

Foundation (ERF) is a not-for-profit, charitable organization whose purpose is to support and promote Extensive Reading (ER). Extensive Reading Materials are called Graded Readers. Graded Readers are books of various genres that are specially created for learners of foreign languages. They may be simplified versions of existing works, original stories, or books that are factual in nature. The teaching process of ER started by Setting up the program, choosing materials, setting up the library, setting up the time management, and communicating with them.

Keywords: Extensive Reading. Graded Reader, Intensive Reading

INTRODUCTION

Reading is a process of interpreting symbols of letters and words to achieve knowledge or information. The purpose of reading is to guide and help readers to direct information towards a goal and help focus their attention. There are so many reasons for learning to read, but the main reason is to understand the information that the author writes in the text. Reading has been divided into two types: Extensive Reading (ER) and Intensive Reading (IR). Inboard terms, Extensive Reading is about reading a lot of texts, poise, and articulacy (Ghanbari & Marzban, 2014). On the other hand, Intensive Reading is about the practice of reading skills (Ghanbari & Marzban, 2014). The aim of ER, based on The Extensive Reading Foundation (Uden, 2013), is “to help the students become better at the skill of reading rather than reading to study the language itself”.

English as a Foreign Language (EFL) usually is thought difficult by students in understanding reading materials they read. They might have difficulty translating a word or a

sentence into English and it leads students to learn English slower than their mother tongue (L1). This problem comes up because students habitually struggled to search for the meaning of every word and read word by word (Florencia, 2018). The basic principle of ER program is helping students to succeed and is supposed to inspire student learning autonomy. Learner autonomy is the ability of a person to learn in a more independent behavior and a more independent method (Holec, 1981). It means, that students' authority will be the main role in their study behavior, but the teacher's role is also important to guide the students' success in ER program.

At the last time, not long ago, when most EFL practitioners had not heard of Extensive Reading (ER) nor its sister Extensive Listening (EL). But now this is not the case. In the past two decades, many research papers and books have been published. Thousands of graded reading materials are now available, and there are numerous websites, courses, symposia, and discussions all promoting Extensive Reading. Recently, more and more learners, teachers, and administrators are beginning to understand the central role that extensive reading plays in the foreign language curriculum (Waring, 2011).

Historically in EFL, language teachers were seen as product providers-their job was to teach-and by doing and give information about the vocabulary, the grammar, and other systems that make up a language. However, this atomistic approach to EFL did not allow learners to build up their sense of how the language works as a whole because each element was taught and learned in discrete and mostly abstract ways. In other words, the learners of the-EFL-as product era knew a lot about English (its vocabulary and grammar for example), but could hardly communicate using it (Nation & Waring, 2019). It is beneficial to allow learners to

explore their language development and work towards their own goals through discovery, transformation, and creative manipulation of their second language at their own pace. The current boom in Extensive Reading is a by-product and a natural outcome of this vision (Nation & Waring, 2019). When learners are reading extensively, they are primarily focused on the message of the text and what it is saying. It means that the main aims of extensive reading, are to build the learners' fluency, reading speed, and general comprehension of reading texts as well as to practice the skill of reading itself.

EXTENSIVE READING VS. INTENSIVE READING

What is Extensive Reading?

Extensive Reading (ER) is an approach to second language reading. When learners read extensively, they read very easy, enjoyable books to build their reading speed and fluency. Another way to say this is students learn to read by actually reading rather than examining texts by studying the vocabulary, grammar, and phrases. It is instructive to compare Intensive Reading (IR) with Extensive Reading (Central, 2021).

The benefits of Extensive Reading

The benefits of extensive readings ((Uden, 2013)) are described as follows;

1. Extensive Reading gives students chances to read longer pieces of reading, which they choose, which they can read at their speed and their ability level. This can be done with Graded readers.
2. Extensive Reading builds vocabulary. When learners read a lot, they meet thousands of words and lexical (word) patterns that are not taught in textbooks.

3. Extensive Reading allows the learner to develop an awareness of collocations (common word partnerships) and thousands of lexical phrases.
4. Extensive Reading helps learners understand grammar. In textbooks, learners meet hundreds of grammar patterns. However, textbooks do not provide enough meetings with grammar for real acquisition to occur.
5. Extensive Reading provides opportunities to see grammar in context so learners can deepen their understanding of how grammar is used.
6. Extensive Reading helps learners to build reading speed and reading fluency. In particular, developing reading speed is important because it helps learners to understand language faster and better.
7. One objective of Extensive Reading is reading for pleasure. This builds confidence and motivation which makes the learner a more effective use of language.

What is Intensive Reading?

Intensive Reading (IR) is an approach that learning about text and comprehension. The passage is usually short and the instruction is focused on carefully checking comprehension, studying the grammar and/or vocabulary, or developing a reading skill. Here is an example. The reading materials for elementary learners are short and introduce vocabulary and grammar. The reading is followed by comprehension questions and other activities. Using a passage like this is useful when teaching students, a new language. This type of reading is called Intensive Reading because the learners study the reading and check their comprehension. Typically, these types of text are used by the whole class with the teacher guiding them.

The limits of Intensive Reading

The limits of intensive readings (Central, 2021) are described as follows;

1. Learners only use reading passages
2. Reading is difficult, so learners have few chances to build reading speed and fluency.
3. The reading is short and because it is difficult, the learners read slowly and they cannot meet a lot of languages.
4. The whole class reads the same material, which is too easy for some and too difficult for others.
5. All the students have to read on the same page as they do the tasks together.
6. The reading is interesting to some learners but not to others.
7. Text is chosen by the teacher

Intensive reading		Extensive reading
Language focus	Why?	Fluency meaning focus. 'real reading'
Very little	Amount?	A book at week at their level
Hard	Difficulty?	Easy – so they can read fluently
Teacher	Who selects?	Student
Text books	What?	Materials at smooth reading level
In class	Where?	In class at first , then home reading
With exercises	Comprehension check?	Not always necessary as students choose a book they can already read

Figure 1. The Differences between Intensive Reading (IR) and Extensive Reading (ER)

FOUNDATION OF EXTENSIVE READING

The Extensive Reading Foundation (ERF) is a not-for-profit, charitable organization whose purpose is to support and promote Extensive Reading (ER). One ERF initiative is

the annual Language Learner Literature Award for the best new graded readers in English. Another is maintaining a bibliography of research on Extensive Reading. The Foundation is also interested in helping educational institutions set up Extensive Reading programs through grants that fund the purchase of books and other reading material. The ERF also provides many other services that promote good practice in Extensive Reading (Uden, 2013).

GRADED READERS

Graded readers are books written at various levels of difficulty from beginner to advanced and are typical, but not only, materials used for Extensive Reading (Nation & Waring, 2019). These are books that are specially written within a controlled vocabulary and use a grammatical syllabus at various levels of difficulty. Each major ELT publisher has at least one graded reader scheme which consists of several vocabulary levels with several books at each level. The lowest level can be less than 100 words so if the learners only know 100 words of English, they can read these books without meeting too much unknown vocabulary. Typically, however, schemes begin at around 300 words (Paul Nation, 2013).

Extensive reading programs sometimes include unsimplified texts, but it is worth remembering that even texts written for young children contain large amounts of vocabulary, that vocabulary must consider the level of children that must start from the beginning to intermediate learners of English as a foreign language. So, when choosing books for an extensive reading program, it is good to make use of graded readers from a variety of schemes, both fiction and non-fiction, and from a variety of levels. It is also important to choose books that tell a good story and which will be interesting for the learners (Paul Nation, 2013).

TEACHING EXTENSIVE READING

How do introduce the learners to Extensive Reading?

When learners are new to extensive reading, it is very useful to set aside a regular time for such reading. It is important to prepare learners for this reading by explaining that:

1. it is a time for silent reading,
2. the main aim of the reading is to understand and enjoy the book they are reading,
3. they should choose a book which is at the right level for them. If a book is too difficult, it should be changed for a less difficult one,
4. there are two types of extensive reading—reading where there are a few unknown words, and reading for fluency—and learners should do both kinds of reading at various times during the extensive reading program,
5. the reading is not assessed but the learners must keep a record of what they have read,
6. it is important to do large quantities of reading and the best learner is the learner who reads the most,
7. they can look up words in dictionaries while they read, but if they can guess the meaning of the word then they should just carry on without looking up the word.

(Source: Extensive Reading and Graded Readers Book) (Paul Nation, 2013)

How to do the Extensive Reading program?

Setting up an ER program

Before an ER program can be set successful you need to plan carefully, prepare well, and be prepared for things to not go so smoothly.

Planning an ER program

One vital thing to do is to ensure that all the people involved are involved. Make sure everyone is involved in the setting up/that group decisions are made/that all understand it (difficult to do, so double-check you understand the whys and what's first—see the more reading page or the ER FAQ) or it will become 'John's reading thing' only to disappear when John leaves. Be careful of over-zealousness on someone's part. It can lead to frustration and anger if things do not go well, or resentment if it is felt that something is being pushed upon them—especially something that they do not understand nor care about. There is often no need to have hard and fast rules for all teachers to follow. For example, individual teachers may decide to require different reading amounts or a different length of reading reports. If the ER program impacts others, they need to know about it, and what its aims, goals, and objectives are. Communicate these to the learners.

Preparation

A sage piece of advice is to "Start small, think big". This means employing management systems that can be expanded or contracted with minimal pain.

Getting materials

You need to beg, borrow or steal at least 3 readers per student. These can be rotated between the learners. NOTE: They MUST be at or slightly below the students' current reading levels. You will need a variety of topics and a variety of reading levels. It's amazing the disparity even in classes that have only ever studied together! Don't assume that because the class is labeled Intermediate, they will all be Intermediate readers. It's always wise to go to language conferences and book fairs in preparation because then you

can see what is available and even be given a few free samples! Ask for other published support materials such as worksheets, vocabulary lists, games, and extensions based on the series, etc. Most publishers have a wealth of support material at hand only to give away. Here is a list of Graded reader Publishers. Here is a scale of Graded readers so you know which level to put each series.

Getting funding

In the initial stages, you will need a large amount to get enough books to start. Bulk-buying is cheaper. Funding may be internal (from the school) or it may be external (parents or students). Some teachers ask each student to buy one book they like and then share them. Some teachers use their research budget if they are lucky enough to have one. Some even buy them out of their pocket! You will need a constant source of funds for replacing lost and damaged books, updating and improving the stock, and so on.

Managing the library

(Tip: think hard to anticipate problems before they happen).

To do this effectively needs a lot of forethought and planning specific to your location. Some schools and colleges are lucky enough to have their library keep the books. This is the best option if available because the library will know which books are missing. However, many libraries either are too lazy or too under-resourced to deal with an additional load of books to check out, check-in, and restock the shelves. If there are 200 learners each changing a book every week and each book takes 2 minutes to check in, check out and restock that's a full day's work for someone. One library I know of refused the books because it would be embarrassing to have so many small easy books in the library!!!! In the absence of support from the library, you'll need to set up

your systems. Again, they should be simple and transparent. The first thing to do is to number each book. If you have multiple copies of a book, it is much easier to identify it. The second is to grade the books in some way. Fortunately, the publishers publish the book levels. For example, some books are written within a vocabulary of the 400 most frequent words (400 different words, not 400 words in total) and with only simple syntax. Others use a larger vocabulary and more complex syntax. But be careful when assuming that publisher A's 500-word level book corresponds to publisher B's 500-word level. Also, note that Intermediate means VERY different things to different publishers and even between series of one publisher. It's best to use your judgment.

Color code the books

Some programs use color-coding to create easy-to-identify levels. I stick a piece of colored tape on part of the spine for easy identification. Brown is the easiest (< 400-word level), then yellow (400–750-word level), then blue, green, etc. Stock can be easily managed if you put all the books of one color in individual boxes. There's no need to put them in author or book number order. Just drop them in a box.

Make a placement test

You need to take a placement test so that the student can easily work out what reading level (color) she is. The easiest way is for the teacher to copy one page from readers at each level and put them on a piece of large paper. The student is given a copy and she decide what her comfortable reading speed is. (About 8-10 lines per minute with only 1 or 2 unknown words on a page). I advise the learner to start one level easier than the recommended level because it builds confidence. Note that if you set an objective for the learner to

improve by say 2 reading levels, tell her this only after she has self-assessed her level and told you what it is, otherwise some students may cheat and say their reading ability was lower than it is.

Make a Reading Report outline

To check that the reading was done and for the reading to be extended to writing, you will need to make a sample reading report for them. They can keep this in a journal (wasteful if not all the pages are used) or on individual pieces of paper. Beginners can complete sentence heads e.g. I (didn't) like this book because.....

My favorite scene was

Intermediates write independent summaries of the story

Advanced learners can write lengthy summaries and reactions to the story take these in at the end of the course (unless you feel the students will be copying each other). I advise the students to take no less than 10 minutes for the report. If they have more time, I'd rather they were reading.

Assessment

There are two types of assessment that need to be done.

1. Assessment of learner performance against the aims, goals, and objectives.

There are many ways to assess the learner's performance. Here are some ideas from which you may wish to select:

- a. Allocate pass/fail according to whether minimum page goals have been met
- b. Allocate higher grades to more that is read
- c. Grade the reading reports (say by length, quality, etc.)
- d. Grade each student on performance in in-class or Intensive reading and skill-building exercises.

- e. Grade the students on performance in discussions of the books
- f. Grade students on their improvement in reading speed

2. Post-class evaluation of the ER program

So often forgot. As with any class, the ER program needs to be reviewed and amended in light of any insights drawn from having conducted the class. Ensure all those involved are involved. *(Central Extensive Reading, 2020)*

CONCLUSION

Extensive Reading (ER) is an approach to second language reading. When learners read extensively, they read very easy, enjoyable books to build their reading speed and fluency. It is different from Intensive Reading (IR) in that the aim is to comprehend the skill of reading including grammar, vocabulary, and ideas of the text. The benefit of Extensive Reading is that: builds vocabulary, helps learners understand grammar, helps learners to build reading speed and reading fluency, objective of Extensive Reading is reading for pleasure. The Extensive Reading Foundation (ERF) is a not-for-profit, charitable organization whose purpose is to support and promote Extensive Reading (ER). Extensive Reading Materials are called Graded Readers. Graded Readers are books of various genres that are specially created for learners of foreign languages. They may be simplified versions of existing works, original stories, or books that are factual in nature. The teaching process of ER started by Setting up the program, choosing materials, setting up the library, setting up the time management, and communicating with them.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Great thanks to the English Education Department, Faculty of Teachers Training and Education, Universitas Borneo Tarakan, North Kalimantan Indonesia as the author institution which has given support to author. LPPM Universitas Borneo Tarakan which has given legacy. And to all my friends about the sharing ideas.

REFERENCE

- Central, E. R. (2021). *What is Extensive Reading?* <https://www.er-central.com/contributors/learn-about-extensive-reading-and-listening/what-is-extensive-reading/>
- Central Extensive Reading. (2020). *Setting up an ER program.* <https://www.er-central.com/contributors/learn-about-extensive-reading-and-listening/how-to-do-extensive-reading/setting-up-er-classes/>
- Florenca, I. (2018). *The Implementation of Extensive Reading Principles in an English as a Foreign Language Context.* UNIVERSITAS KRISTEN SATYA WACANA SALATIGA.
- Ghanbari, M., & Marzban, A. (2014). Effect of Extensive Reading on Incidental Vocabulary Retention. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 116, 3854–3858. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.01.854>
- Holec, H. (1981). *Autonomy and foreign language learning.* Oxford: Pergamon.
- Nation, I. S. P., & Waring, R. (2019). Teaching extensive reading in another language. *Extensive Reading in English Teaching, January 2011*, 1–200. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780367809256>

- Paul Nation, R. W. (2013). Extensive Reading and Graded Readers. In *Extensive Reading and Graded Readers* (pp. 1–36). Compass Publishing. <http://www.compasspub.com>
- Uden, J. (2013). The Extensive Reading Foundation's Guide to Extensive Reading. *ELT Journal*, 67(2), 270–272. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/cct010>
- Waring, R. (2011). Building Fluency with Extensive Reading. *Extensive Reading*, 213–214. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780367815844>

DIGITAL LITERACY IN THE TERTIARY EDUCATION CONTEXT

Nofvia De Vega

English Education Department,
Faculty of Teacher Training and Education,
Universitas Borneo Tarakan

Abstract

Technology has traversed the globe in recent decades, connecting people in unprecedented ways. Locals in every country have been forced to adopt new skills and methods of communication as a result. The term “digital literacy” has been used to describe the skills that make up these abilities. With so many advantages, digital literacy has become a must-have skill for everyone, including schoolchildren. Because of the advancement in science, technology, and information, digital literacy may become a key requirement. As a result, progress and development of technology and information knowledge must be balanced with knowledge, understanding, and the ability to master technology and information knowledge to meet these primary objectives. Because those who do not master the use and application of technology will be regarded as outdated or uninformed, the need for digital literacy has arisen. As a result, it is not an exaggeration to say that digital literacy is a key or basic need at present. Today’s students must be technologically literate,

which includes comprehending digital literacy. Digital literacy is one of the key needs for students, and it is included in lecture activities. Students must be sensitive to and aware of changes in science and technology as part of the lecture. The objectives of this chapter are to (a) define digital literacy and its dynamic nature, (b) discuss the critical nature of digital literacy teacher education, (c) comprehend the seven components of digital literacies, and (d) recognize some efforts to improve digital literacy, and (e) analyze four key elements of education 4.0.

Keywords: Digital literacy, Information, and communication technologies (ICT), Education 4.0

INTRODUCTION

A lot of people have different ideas about what digital literacy is and how it should be taught. The majority of them share some characteristics. The American Library Association defines digital literacy as finding, evaluating, producing, and transmitting information utilizing information and communication technology (ICTs). In addition to technical know-how, digital literacy encompasses a wide range of ethical, social, and reflective activities integrated with work, education, leisure, and everyday life (Alexander et al., 2016). What is the Importance of Digital Literacy? We know now why digital literacy is important because of the COVID-19 pandemic. Many school systems are now reliant on virtual learning as their sole mode of instruction and learning.

Students and parents alike are becoming more adept at utilizing new tools and completing homework correctly and on time. However, laptops and other gadgets can be used even by hybrids or who still attend school daily face to face.

Numerous teachers are incorporating technology into their classrooms to accommodate students with varying learning styles and interests. Students are not the only ones who need to be digitally literate. People who work in schools, such as teachers, must also have these abilities to give their students the best and most important education they can get. Many teachers have a hard time with technology because they do not understand it. It can be scary for some people. Teachers who earned their degrees more than two decades ago did not study digital literacy or implement it in the classroom while they were students. It is why teaching is, and always has been, about personal and professional development.

In light of the issue previously discussed, this chapter will present an overview of recent studies on digital literacy teacher professional development. The next section will look at seven aspects of digital literacy and see how significant they are in a given situation (university). Some efforts to enhance digital literacy begin with teaching individuals how to read and write texts and then, in tertiary education, methods, and approaches to test digital literacy. In addition, four key elements of education 4.0 are discussed in detail in this section. The final section contains concluding remarks.

TEACHER PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN DIGITAL LITERACIES

The importance of digital literacy teacher education has been highlighted in numerous recent studies (Erstad et al., 2015; Alexander et al., 2016; García-Martín & García-Sánchez, 2017). They suggest that professional development for new literacy teachers ought to take precedence over traditional teacher preparation programs. According to the New Literacy Perspective, the internet and other ICTs call for

the formation of new literacies to maximize their potential, and teachers play an increasingly important role in these new literacy classrooms, albeit in a different capacity. Teaching new, multimodal literacies requires specialized training for educators. Tondeur et al. (2012) build your technology integration pre-service teacher training around a 12 (twelve) topic conceptual framework. The themes are 1) alignment between theory and practice; 2) The function of teacher educators as role models; 3) Critical thinking about the role of technology; 4) Design-based learning technology or material planning; 5) Collaborative collaboration with others; 6) Assisting in the use of technology; 7) Evaluation of the learning process regularly. They correlate themes 8–12 with institutional characteristics that are involved. 8) Planning and leading in technology; 9) Inter- and intra-institutional collaboration; 10) The requirement of technical training for teacher educators; 11) Availability of resources; and 12) the significance of long-term change initiatives Each concept must be intertwined with teamwork, according to the authors. Many educators believe that more experienced teachers are less likely than younger ones to use new technologies and innovate in their classrooms. This isn't necessarily true. Even though this may occasionally be the case, many individuals do not stop to think about why this might be the case. Evidence reveals that age has little to do with a person's willingness to innovate; rather, experience may assist people to see the ephemeral nature of some changes or that some ostensibly innovative practices are damaging or useless for students.

Teachers' ideas and values influence technology integration in the classroom, regardless of whether they are young or old. In the case of educational technology, experienced teachers may have a lot of knowledge about how children learn and how to teach effectively, but young

teachers may be eager to try new things and adopt technologies that they believe will help them be more effective in the classroom. In some instances, the most enthusiastic teachers may be the ones who lack the experience essential to make informed decisions regarding new technologies, how much time they should devote to learning them, and what to expect in terms of student outcomes.

Additionally, schools and districts have their views and values concerning the use and impact of technology on kids. Understanding the ideas and values of each of these groups and the differences between them will help us better integrate technology into our daily lives. When integrating technology into their classrooms, teachers and educational institutions are guided by four core beliefs and values. Among these are the following: proof of facility, compliance, and institutionalization. First, proof talks about how well technology can help students learn. Second, the facility is about how easy it is for teachers or students to learn, use, or manage a new technology at that level. Third, compliance addresses the legal and ethical standards used instead of their pragmatic application. Fourth, institutionalization is concerned with the infrastructure compatibility, cost, longevity, and managerial scale of emerging technologies.

THE SEVEN ELEMENTS OF DIGITAL LITERACIES

The term “digital literacy” refers to a broader range of digital behaviors, activities, and identities that go beyond the simple ability to use computers. As technology improves, so does what it means to be digitally literate. It means that what it means to be digitally literate changes over time and in different places. For example, a university, college, service, department, subject area, or professional environment can use this notion as a starting point to study what relevant

digital literacies are in that context. Furthermore, JISC’s guidance can develop students’ digital literacy, including a useful framework called the Seven Elements of Digital Literacies.

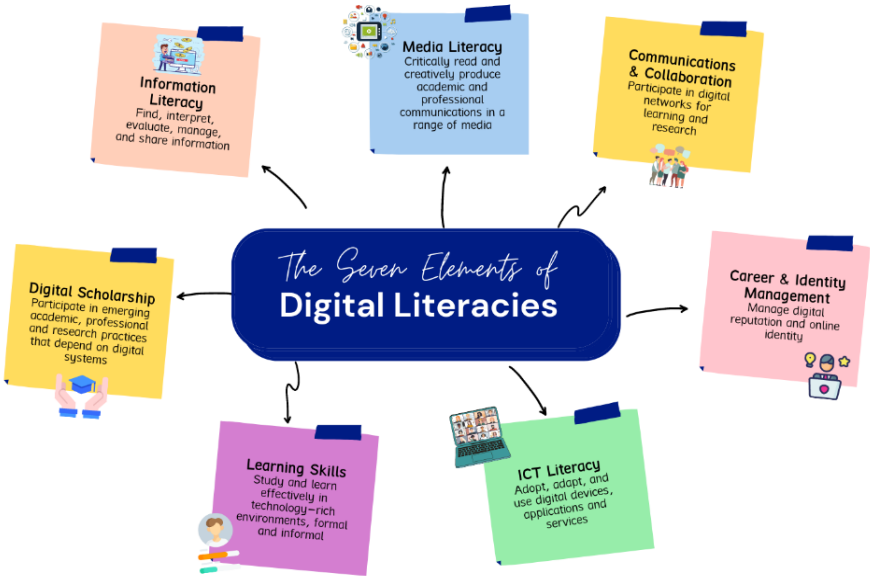


Figure 1. Seven Elements of Digital Literacy
Source: Jisc (2014)

Based on Jisc’s (2014) principles above, it may identify performance-based measures that demonstrate fluency and begin to observe document and audit fluency in classrooms and document and audit fluency in other settings. It is also becoming more common to think of digital literacies as communication skills unrelated to specific apps, platforms, or devices. However, until the internet becomes increasingly self-sufficient, teachers and students must possess some fundamental digital literacy concepts that are transferable (applicable across technologies), multimodal (capable in a

variety of modes or formats), and textual (about consumption and production of anything digital).

INCREASING DIGITAL LITERACY IN INDONESIA

Recently, Indonesia has seen a massive increase in people using the internet. According to the World Wide Web Consortium, Indonesia will have 204.7 million internet users in January 2022. At the start of 2022, 73.7 percent of the people in Indonesia were online. These numbers show that 73.05 million people in Indonesia did not use the internet at the start of 2022, which means that 26.3 percent of the population did not use the internet at the start of the year (Kemp, 2022). The number of people using the internet has also gone up a lot. According to a survey conducted by Kemp (2022), an average of 7 hours and 52 minutes per day is spent on the internet by Indonesians ages 16 to 64. It is more than the global average of six and a half hours each day. People in Indonesia spend more time on the internet than people in Singapore, Vietnam, and the Philippines, but less than people in Malaysia and the Philippines. Meanwhile, Basic literacy skills, like reading and writing comprehension, are very important for using digital tools. Unfortunately, Indonesia has continually performed poorly in terms of literacy levels. PISA 2018 found that Indonesian 15-year-olds were placed 71st out of 79 nations regarding educational attainment. Compared to the OECD average of 77%, just 30% of those surveyed had reading skills at level 2 or proficiency 3 (OECD, 2022).

Starting with general literacy, efforts to improve digital literacy start by teaching people how to read and write texts and think about and communicate them. Critical thinking and the ability to critically investigate, analyze, and evaluate information and the logical relationships between concepts

are essential if they are to encourage rational decision-making among individuals. Finding, analyzing, using, and producing content on digital platforms is the last requirement for digital literacy. Managing such a diverse collection of required abilities requires programs and activities dispersed across multiple government entities. Indonesian ministries of education and culture, religious affairs, and communications fall under this umbrella.

PRACTICES OF DIGITAL LITERACY IN TERTIARY EDUCATION

Using the approach described by Reyna et al. (2018), tertiary education institutions can teach digital literacy. Contextual, functional, and audio-visual domains make up the framework. Students' capacity to search, sort, evaluate, and comprehend digital information is reflected in their conceptual domain abilities. For example, students must do a critical review of the English curriculum. Afterward, they seek official papers on English curricula, examine them, discover their shortcomings and strengths, and synthesize applicable theories regarding curriculum analysis. An individual's ability to use digital tools like Microsoft Office, Google Docs, Forms and Drive, a reference manager, teleconference programs, and educational platforms such as e-learning, statistical software, and social media is referred to as having a functional domain. Audio-visual creation refers to the ability of students to generate digital artifacts such as movies, infographics, posters, presentation slides, and podcasts. This category includes all of these types of digital media creations. There are many approaches to testing digital literacy in tertiary education. Sparks et al. (2016) suggested using performance-based evaluation approaches to assess university students' digital literacy

practices. Students' digital literacy levels can be assessed more accurately using performance-based exams. It is a great example of performance-based assessment when students are tasked with finding a high-quality journal article or research report, then requiring them to analyze and synthesize the material.

Regarding the level of digital literacy of students, education 4.0 is a term that refers to the fourth industrial revolution, as well as innovative educational technologies and processes and best practices that characterize this era in developing students' digital performance. Students and teachers began to move to a vision where they did not need to engage in a synchronous session for learning in this new communication era. Multimedia, internet technologies, and virtual labs supported the teaching-learning process. Students were exposed to more hauntological and connectivist instructional strategies using this method. Teachers were viewed as curators and collaborators, and students were encouraged to learn more. Miranda et al. (2019) and Salmon (2019) suggest four fundamental Education 4.0, described below.

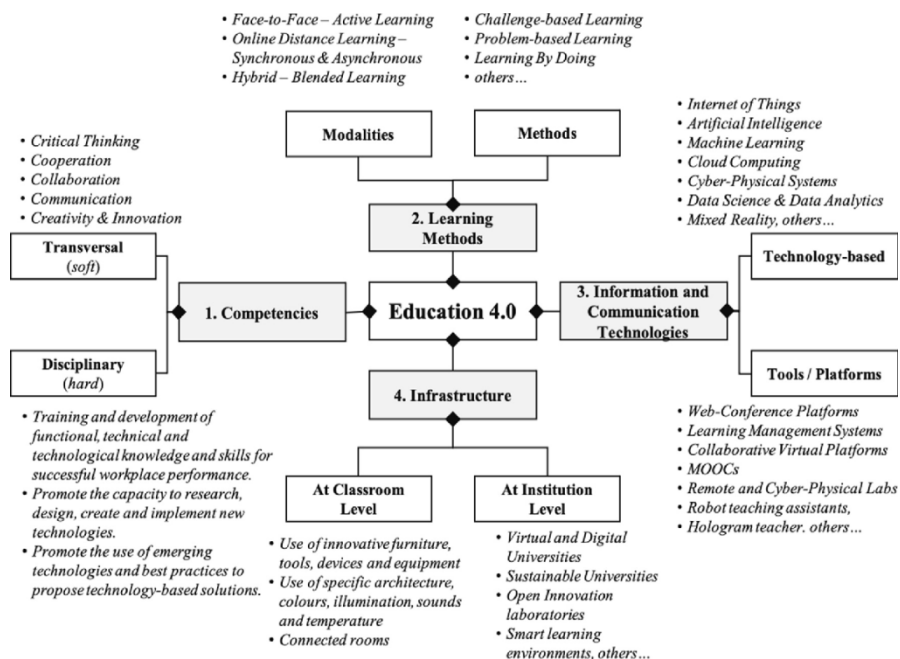


Figure 2. Higher Education’s Four Essential Components of Education 4.0

Teachers and students have improved educational practices in higher education by adopting the Education 4.0 concept. There has been a shift in educational paradigms toward innovation in training procedures due to a constantly growing technology world. As a result, knowledge formation in Education 4.0 is seen as transcending pedagogy and andragogy in favor of a hybrid approach that incorporates heutagogy, pedagogy, and cybergogy. Humanist and constructivist concepts, focusing on the learner, are at the heart of Education 4.0’s heutagogy, encouraging students to learn for themselves. Self-awareness and metacognition (understanding one’s learning process) are promoted. Peeragogy refers to the foundation of collaborative learning, and it is an old notion that has been rethought with the

emergence of Education 4.0. It refers to educational strategies that encourage peer learning (Ouhir et al., 2019).

Cybergogy is defined by W. Daud et al. as learning practices facilitated by ICTs that provide learning experiences that transcend time and location (Daud et al., 2019). Furthermore, cybergogy has emerged due to technological advancements and the expansion of the internet, both of which have benefited educational offers. When combined with these approaches, these technological improvements enable the meeting of current needs and barriers, which are largely related to designing programs and settings that incorporate these procedures. To do so, educators must create enablers for Education 4.0. To be effective, these must consider growing technology and new learning approaches, and the needs of contemporary regional and global social dynamics. Because of these advancements, students can be immersed in inappropriate learning environments, allowing them to improve their learning processes and the training and development of crucial competencies, helping them to be prepared for future circumstances. To achieve the vision of Education 4.0, new educational models and enablers will need to be developed and deployed.

CONCLUSION

In many studies, people have talked about how important it is for teachers to learn digital literacy. Tondeur et al. (2012) came up with a way to think about how pre-service teachers learn about technology integration. It includes 12 (twelve) different topics. The authors say that each concept must be linked to teamwork. Age has minimal bearing on a person's desire to innovate in the classroom. There is a good chance that new teachers are open-minded about experimenting with and incorporating new

technologies into their teaching methods. More experienced teachers may not have the experience necessary to make informed selections for new technology. The term “digital literacy” refers to a larger set of digital behaviors, activities, and identities than simply knowing how to operate a computer. Academic and professional practices that utilize technological advancements necessitate digital literacy acquisition. Increasingly, digital literacies are being defined as communication skills that are not tied to any one technology. A significant increase in the number of people who use the internet has been observed in Indonesia recently. A report from the World Wide Web Consortium says that by January 2022, Indonesia will have more than 200 million people who use the internet. Indonesians spend more time on the internet than Singaporeans and Vietnamese. Unfortunately, Indonesia has a bad track record when it comes to literacy. PISA 2018 ranked Indonesian 15-year-olds 71st out of 79 countries regarding educational achievement.

It includes the Indonesian ministries of education and culture, religious affairs, and communications. Managing such a wide set of essential skills necessitates coordinating programs and activities across many government agencies. Critical thinking and the ability to investigate, analyze, and evaluate information are essential components of digital literacy. Students’ conceptual domain abilities show their ability to seek, sort, assess, and grasp digital information. Audio-visual creation refers to students’ capacity to create digital artifacts such as movies, infographics, posters, presentation slides, and podcasts. In higher education, there are various ways to assess digital literacy. Teachers and students have improved educational procedures by utilizing present infrastructure and emerging technology. The pedagogy of Education 4.0 is based on humanist and constructivist notions that focus on the student.

Metacognition (understanding one's learning process) and self-awareness are encouraged. With the advent of Education 4.0, an ancient concept called peer-led learning has been rethought. New educational models and enablers must be developed and implemented to assist institutions in accomplishing this objective.

REFERENCES

- Alexander, B., Adams, Beker, S., & Cummins, M. (2016). Digital Literacy: An NMC Horizon Project Strategic Brief. *Scientific American*, 3(3), 4. <https://doi.org/10.1038/scientificamerican0995-190>
- Daud, W. A. A. W., Teck, W. K., Ghani, M. T. A., & Ramli, S. (2019). The Needs Analysis of Developing Mobile Learning Application for Cybergogical Teaching and Learning of Arabic Language Proficiency. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 9(8), 33–46. <https://doi.org/10.6007/ijarbss/v9-i8/6206>
- Erstad, O., Eickelmann, B., & Eichhorn, K. (2015). Preparing teachers for schooling in the digital age: A meta-perspective on existing strategies and future challenges. *Education and Information Technologies*, 20(4), 641–654. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10639-015-9431-3>
- García-Martín, J., & García-Sánchez, J. N. (2017). Pre-service teachers' perceptions of the competence dimensions of digital literacy and of psychological and educational measures. *Computers and Education*, 107, 54–67. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2016.12.010>
- Jisc. (2014). *Developing digital literacies*. <https://www.jisc.ac.uk/full-guide/developing-digital-literacies#>

- Kemp, S. (2022). *Digital 2022: Indonesia*. <https://datareportal.com/reports/digital-2022-indonesia>
- Miranda, J., Lopez, C. S., Navarro, S., Bustamante, M. R., Molina, J. M., & Molina, A. (2019). Open Innovation Laboratories as Enabling Resources to Reach the Vision of Education 4.0. *Proceedings–2019 IEEE International Conference on Engineering, Technology and Innovation, ICE/ITMC 2019*. <https://doi.org/10.1109/ICE.2019.8792595>
- OECD. (2022). *PISA 2018 Result*. Development, Organization for Economic So-Operation And. https://www.oecd.org/pisa/PISA-results_ENGLISH.png
- Ouhrir, S., Lotfi, S., & Talbi, M. (2019). Online peeragogy: Effects of videos developed by students on peer learning and their impact on academic results. *International Journal of Emerging Trends in Engineering Research*, 7(11), 576–583. <https://doi.org/10.30534/ijeter/2019/287112019>
- Reyna, J., Hanham, J., & Meier, C. P. (2018). A framework for digital media literacies for teaching and learning in higher education. *E-Learning and Digital Media*, 15(4), 176–190. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1177/2042753018784952>
- Salmon, G. (2019). May the Fourth Be With You: Creating Education 4.0. *Journal of Learning for Development*, 6(2), 95–115. <https://doi.org/10.1145/3133956.3134029>
- Sparks, J. R., Katz, I. R., Beile, P. M., Carlson, J., Bridgeman, B., Golub-smith, M., & Stone, E. (2016). *Assessing Digital Information Literacy in Higher Education: A Review of Existing Frameworks and Assessments With Recommendations for Next-Generation Assessment* (Issue December).

Tondeur, J., Van Braak, J., Sang, G., Voogt, J., Fisser, P., & Ottenbreit-Leftwich, A. (2012). Preparing pre-service teachers to integrate technology in education: A synthesis of qualitative evidence. *Computers and Education*, 59(1), 134–144. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2011.10.009>

AUTHENTIC ASSESSMENT IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

Ridwan¹ and Sri Wahyuningsih²

English Education Department,
Faculty of Teacher Training and Education,
Universitas Borneo Tarakan¹,
Mts Hurrasul Aqidah Tarakan²

Abstract

This chapter aims to provide an overview of the essential authentic assessment in English language teaching in Indonesia. Authentic assessment is required to determine the learning process of students as the current assessment method used in the 2013 curriculum. It aims to assess the student's emphasis on cognitive, psychomotor, and affective domains. This chapter is based on critical ideas using the literature review method. The authors reviewed the authentic assessment of information literacy and teaching design that can be applied by teachers in the classroom.

Keywords: authentic assessment, English language teaching

INTRODUCTION

In global communities where English is a common language of communication, knowledge of English language becomes very significant to advance oneself in the global community. To answer the need for English in a global network, Indonesia has changed the curriculum several times and now the 2013 curriculum has been implemented in Indonesia. The evaluation must be done by the teachers to assess the ability of students not only emphasized on the cognitive domain but also the in psychomotor and affective domains. However, the teaching and learning environment in Indonesia is very different from the classroom context of natural English for Second languages. Indonesian students barely use English in the real world even for simple purposes (Suryanto, 2015). Lack of exposure to English in daily conversation and low motivation of students contribute to the achievement of students' English proficiency.

Curriculum 2013 is applied with the aim of preparing Indonesian students to have life skills as individuals and citizens who are faithful, productive, creative, innovative, and effective and can contribute to social life, state, nation, and to world development. One of the important aspects of education to reach the goals of curriculum 2013 is the implementation of assessment in the classroom. The appropriate form of assessment will have an impact on students in the learning process. It plays a role in evaluating learning achievement and influencing decisions on grades, placement, and learning progress, can diagnose problems, and guide instruction in learning, so as to give increased attention to students regarding assessment (Li, 2018). Curriculum 2013 which is currently used as a reference in the Indonesian learning process requires the teachers to

apply authentic assessment as a method of assessing student competence.

AUTHENTIC ASSESSMENT IN ELT

Authentic assessment is a method of assessment where students are asked to carry out real-world activities (Mueller, 2005). It is used to express the value of information and skills that are substantially applied in a student's real life. Another definition proposed by Barkatsas & McLaughlin (2021) states that authentic assessment is a concept more closely defined as an umbrella term that seeks to immerse students in environments where they can gain highly practical and lifelong learning skills. Authentic assessment can be used to monitor and measure the capability of students in many kinds of possibilities of solving problems that they face in the real world. According to Mueller, there are several reasons for using authentic assessment. First, authentic assessments are direct measures. Students will get to use the skills and knowledge that they have learned in the real world and will provide the most direct evidence. Second, an authentic assessment reflects the constructive nature of learning. Students can not only ask to repeat the information that they have received but also have to be asked to prove that the students have precisely constructed the meaning of what has been taught. Third, the authentic assessment provides multiple avenues for demonstrating learning. Students can use a variety of ways to demonstrate the knowledge and skills that have been acquired. The authentic assessment process views how students work and learn in the classroom. Likewise, students are involved in interesting, important and beneficial tasks. Students are also required to be active, creative, and think critically during learning.

IDENTIFYING CHARACTERISTICS OF AUTHENTIC ASSESSMENT

Many teachers have difficulty in carrying out assessments in the 2013 Curriculum, especially difficulties in assessing attitudes and assessing thematic learning, as well as difficulties in analyzing assessment instruments and revision of items (Setiadi, 2016). To assess the authenticity of an assessment, nine components were identified as characteristics that are frequently reported. (Frey, 2013) described authenticity dimensions, grouped into three general categories, are as follows:

1. The context of the assessment

a) Realistic activity or context

Realistic activity or context means that outside of an artificial classroom setting, the role and assessment methods are equivalent to what would be needed or anticipated in the real world. As far as possible, authentic learning should be adapted to the activities carried out by students in daily life and in a professional environment where they will apply the knowledge gained.

Example:

1. Students are asked to arrange a conversation about their favorite songs, poems, singers, and poets.
2. Students design an advertisement and present their advertisement plan to their clients. In this session, they have to convince their clients the best way they can.
3. Students are asked to solve the problem given "You came to know that your friends had a fight. They have not been on talking terms for some time now. Since you are common friends, it is difficult for you because you want to hang out with both of them but

they can't stand each other. you have to find a way to offer and suggest a solution so that the fight is over".

b) Cognitively complex

Successful execution of tasks requires critical thinking or high levels of understanding. According to Bloom's taxonomy, the cognitive domain consists of six levels, from the simplest level to the more complicated one, namely: knowledge, understanding, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. C4-C6 are categorized as high-order thinking skills and the students need critical thinking to solve the tasks.

Example:

1. Students are asked to write their opinions regarding various issues and create an opinion dialog supported with reasons and examples using opinion-giving techniques that they have learned.
2. Students are asked to analyze, synthesize, and create new meanings in the text.
3. Students are asked to choose one of the topics given and do research on it "Formation of rainbows, the life cycle of any animal, how tsunamis are formed". After that, explain it to a friend or present it in the class.

c) Performance-based

Skill or ability is evaluated through product performance or development. Therefore, the performance tasks candidates are faced with in communicative tests should be representative of the type of task they might encounter in their own real-life situations and should correspond to normal language use where integration of communicative skills is required with little time to reflect on, or monitor language input and output.

Example:

1. Students in pairs are asked to choose one of the topics for their project and then explore the consequences of the topic by writing the cause and effect. After that, present the project they have done using one of the following forms: video, comic strip, PowerPoint presentation, or a blog.
2. Students are asked to work in pairs to do role play. Each student acts as an interviewer or interviewee for a job interview.
3. Students are asked to write a letter and use the proper letter-writing they have learned.

2. The role of the student

a) Formative assessment

The assessment is intended to provide feedback to students to control students learning and the scores do not affect grades. Formative assessment is one of the most profitable assessment strategies because it focuses on what still needs to be learned rather than what students should already have mastered. This gives students enough time to improve and acquire the necessary information and skills during the learning process

Example:

1. Students are asked to do reflection and self-assessment of what they have done.
2. Students are asked to draw concept maps in class to represent their understanding of a topic.
3. Students are asked to send a sentence or two identifying the main points of a lesson to the teachers.

b) Collaborative

The students are asked to work with one another or with the teachers during the task. Collaborative activities encourage motivation and a competitive spirit in a positive sense for students.

Example:

1. Students are asked to make pairs and then create the postcard based on the situation given.
2. Students are asked to make pairs and then choose one of the tasks given.
3. Students are asked to work in groups. Each group arranges a conversation about their habits.

c) Defense is required

Students maintain or defend the answer or performance and this might be a formal, oral defense in front of the students and adults or it might be a written defense as part of the assessment.

Example:

1. Students were asked to note down their opinions and reactions to the questions in life.
2. Students are asked to debate with their classmates whether they agree or disagree with the motion “smoking should be banned in public places”
3. Students are asked to discuss with their classmates and share their thoughts pro and contra about recent issues.

3. The scorings

a) Criteria are known by student

In order to help teachers to assess student work, a rubric for assessment criteria is needed. The rules of assessment are well understood by all of the students or participate in student creations and teachers may have used these criteria as a part of their teaching. The

wide-held belief is that when students know what aspects are related to quality performance, that they can apply this knowledge successfully to their own performance.

Example:

1. Teachers should share the criteria with students before they start writing their text. Criteria may well explain how the work will be graded, but they do so in rather discrete and abstract terms. For example, consider the following criteria (Ridwan, 2007):

Content	30%
Organization	20%
Vocabulary	20%
Sentence Fluency	20%
Conventions	10%
TOTAL	100%

b) Multiple indicators or portfolio

A score on the assessment is a combination of several scores that reflect the quality of several components or product portfolios and student works. The focus of portfolio assessment is more on awareness and autonomous learning than on language structure so that it can be said to be a reflection of learning. It can measure a student's individual progress. Students become freer to express themselves and play an active role in the assessment process through portfolios.

Example:

1. The assessment is divided into 4 tasks (Task 1, correction; Task 2, complete sentences; Task 3, analyze; Task 4 complete transactional conversation).

c) Mastery expectation

The task and scoring are intended to provide input or feedback on whether the student has mastered ability

or skills as opposed to comparing the student to other students.

Example:

1. Students are asked to complete the transactional conversations and perform a role-play to re-enact the conversation with their classmates to know if the students had mastered the skills.
2. Students are asked to write an opinion conversation using the expressions they have learned by using the role-play approach and re-enact the opinion conversation they have made in front of the class.
3. Students are asked to write a formal invitation (wedding invitation) using the knowledge they have acquired

AUTHENTIC ASSESSMENT AND YOUNG CHILDREN

Authentic assessment practices help educators or early childhood teachers to ensure that they do not mistake children for something that they are not. It is even more powerful because it can reduce unwanted, or implicit bias. Implicit bias is our automatic and subconscious way of reading the environment and predicting behavior. Puckett and Black (2008), in their book on meaningful assessments of the young child, define authentic assessment for this population as obtaining information that truly reflects how a child pursues knowledge and skills and the outcomes of the child's efforts. The assessment should be teacher-mediated, child-centered, and based on multiple theories and knowledge about child growth and development.

Frey (2013) states several ways to increase the authenticity of assessments with young children as follows:

- a. The teacher takes on the role of a mentor, with the child as a novice.

- b. Teachers and students share experiences from outside the classroom.
- c. Teachers incorporate children's interests into classroom activities and assessments.
- d. Learning is understood as part of social and emotional life.

Implementing authentic assessments can allow teachers to plan activities and experiences that are responsive to children's interests and needs. Teachers also can share their understanding of each child's growth with his or her family, while also gaining important insight from them in return. Authentic assessment is culturally responsive because children can demonstrate how they apply concepts within their own cultural schemas rather than in a predetermined way.

AUTHENTIC ASSESSMENT AT SCHOOL LEVEL

Authentic assessment is operationalized as a three-pronged; approach-self assessment, peer assessment, and teacher assessment. These three sources of assessment apply to an ongoing series of formative, performance-based assessments designed to provide meaningful feedback, summative assessments that are multidimensional, and collaborative broad evaluations from multiple perspectives. Factors to be achieved for this population are (Frey, 2013):

1. Breakthrough; students can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases and also can interact in a simple way.
2. Waystage; students can understand frequently used sentences and expressions related to the most relevant fields.

3. Threshold; students can understand the main points of clear standard input about things commonly encountered in the workplace, school, and leisure time.
4. Vantage; students can understand the main ideas of complex texts on concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in the domain of interest.
5. Effective operational proficiency; students can understand various demands, and longer texts, and recognize implied meanings.
6. Mastery; students can easily understand almost everything that is heard or read.

Authentic assessment measures a student's achievement in learning, both in the level of cognitive abilities, higher order thinking, and problem-solving skills assessed in the form of task completion.

AUTHENTIC ASSESSMENT AT HIGHER EDUCATION

The University supports authentic assessment in teaching and learning strategies. At the tertiary level, authentic assessment is used to guide lecturers to see the learning outcomes of the courses being taught (Martin et al., 2019). All authentic tasks are complex and elaborate, not simple and straightforward. There are many kinds of task that can be implemented for higher education such as:

1. Students are challenged to 'gather' their disciplinary expertise in their groups to develop a coherent and complete proposal that helps clients understand the concepts and considerations involved in delivering the brief.
2. students are assessed on a presentation of their design proposals to the client

It may be easier to think about authentic assessment as an ‘umbrella term for several important pedagogical strategies that seek to immerse students in environments where they can gain highly practical, lifelong learning skills...’ (Adams Becker et al., 2017). Higher education has shifted from an objective and standardized testing assessment culture to one that encourages:

1. Students being responsible for their own learning
2. Interpretation, performance and collaboration
3. Use of higher order cognition skills
4. Various alternative formats
5. Formative (multiple touch points with educator) and summative purposes
6. A focus on learning and competence development

STRENGTH OF AUTHENTIC ASSESSMENT

Authentic assessment is an assessment that is done comprehensively to assess learning input, process, and output. By doing so, the assessment covers all domains of cognitive, affective, and psychomotor to consider students’ characteristics and levels. The advantage is that the teacher is able to obtain the whole picture of student’s learning progress, to monitor the process, progress, and continuous improvement. With regard to domain coverage, the authentic assessment does not only measure what students know but also what they can do (Suwartono & Riyani, 2019). It will improve the teaching and learning process, students will more clearly know their obligations to master the assigned tasks, and teachers believe that the assessment results are meaningful and useful for improving teaching.

Swaffield (2011) states that by implementing authentic assessment makes the students more independent to self-regulate. Authentic assessment involves students in

processes and evaluations that are meaningful to them, both now and in the future. Students are influenced to move from consumers of knowledge to creators of knowledge. Fox et al. (2017) argue that authentic assessment also touches on socio-cultural standpoint. It offers students the opportunity to learn through engaging peers and with a broader community.

CHALLENGES OF AUTHENTIC ASSESSMENT

Despite its many benefits, a number of challenges have been identified with regard to authentic assessment. The most problematic part of authentic assessment is the creativity and attention it takes to think about and identify value-authentic tasks (Frey et al., 2012). Start by identifying some important or clearly significant issues and then listen to the results of one or two students on each of those issues. Next, specify in each finding the criteria for success. If the task requires complex thinking, such as interpretation, problem-solving, and investigation, then the task is authentic. The assignments or tasks must also have to seem attractive and engaging to the students. Some students may find authentic assessment challenging because of the increased emphasis on language and the group work that often accompanies it (Bohemia & Davison, 2012).

As written above, authentic assessment to most teachers dramatically leads to a harder job. It is because applying the authentic assessment is time-consuming. teachers' main problem in applying authentic assessment is that they have a large number of students, exhausting, time-consuming activities, and complicated administration (Aliningsih & Sofwan, 2015). Authentic assessment takes effort from the instructor to develop and more difficult for teachers to assess students' tasks. To overcome the difficulty

of assessing authentic assessments, it is often useful to create an assessment rubric that defines the attributes to be evaluated and the criteria for assessing them.

CONCLUSION

Authentic assessment is needed to evaluate learning from the realm of students' knowledge, attitudes, and skills. It will be more accurate in knowing the success or failure of the level of competence achievement during the learning process through authentic assessment. It helps students analyze what they have learned and apply it to their own experiences. The students don't have to memorize facts for exams, instead, the students can use their creativity to demonstrate what they have learned. For students in higher education who can use a combination of writing and speaking, authentic assessment helps them improve their oral writing and presentation skills. Authentic assessment is perfect for groups, so students can gain experience collaborating on projects with their peers.

Some of the strengths of authentic assessment are that teachers will be able to find out where the strengths and weaknesses of students are, improve the teaching and learning process, and the students will more clearly know their obligations to master the material and tasks. While the challenge to implementing authentic assessments are that it takes a lot of time and energy to assess students' abilities. The assessment tends to focus on complex or contextual tasks for students that enable them to clearly demonstrate their competencies or skills. To overcome these obstacles, it is hoped that the scope of the assessment can be reduced, the teachers can make rubrics guides and the government will provide deeper training for teachers who do not understand the 2013 Curriculum and authentic assessment.

REFERENCES

- Adams Becker, S., Cummins, M., Davis, A., Freeman, A., Hall Giesinger, C., & Ananthanarayanan, V. (2017). NMC Horizon Report: 2017 Higher Education Edition. *Journal of Open Learning*.
- Aliningsih, F., & Sofwan, A. (2015). English Teachers' Perceptions and Practices of Authentic Assessment. *Language Circle: Journal of Language and Literature*, 10(1), 19–27. <https://doi.org/10.15294/lc.v10i1.4154>
- Barkatsas, T., & McLaughlin, P. (2021). Authentic Assessment and Evaluation Approaches and Practices in a Digital Era. In *Authentic Assessment and Evaluation Approaches and Practices in a Digital Era*. <https://doi.org/10.1163/9789004501577>
- Bohemia, E., & Davison, G. (2012). Authentic Learning: The gift project DRS BANGKOK 2012 Authentic Learning: The gift project. *Design and Technology Education*.
- Fox, J., Freeman, S., Hughes, N., & Murphy, V. (2017). “Keeping it Real”: A review of the benefits, challenges and steps towards implementing authentic assessment. *AISHE-J: The All Ireland Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*, 9(3).
- Frey, B. B. (2013). *Modern Classroom Assessment* (R. Hester (ed.)). SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Frey, B. B., Schmitt, V. L., & Allen, J. P. (2012). Defining authentic classroom assessment. *Practical Assessment, Research and Evaluation*.
- Li, X. (2018). Self-assessment as ‘assessment as learning’ in translator and interpreter education: validity and washback. *Interpreter and Translator Trainer*. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1750399X.2017.1418581>

- Martin, F., Ritzhaupt, A., Kumar, S., & Budhrani, K. (2019). Award-winning faculty online teaching practices: Course design, assessment and evaluation, and facilitation. *Internet and Higher Education*. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.iheduc.2019.04.001>
- Mueller, J. (2005). *The Authentic Assessment Toolbox: Enhancing Student Learning through Online Faculty Development*. *Merlot Journal of Online Learning & Teaching*.
- Puckett, M. B., & Black, J. K. (2008). *Meaningful Assessments of the Young Child: Celebrating Development and Learning* (3rd ed.). Pearson/Merrill Prentice Hall.
- Ridwan. (2007). Using Portfolio Assessment to Develop Students' Writing Skills. *Unpublished Thesis: Graduate Program of State University of Makassar*.
- Setiadi, H. (2016). Pelaksanaan penilaian pada Kurikulum 2013. *Jurnal Penelitian Dan Evaluasi Pendidikan*, 20(2), 166–178. <https://doi.org/10.21831/pep.v20i2.7173>
- Suryanto, S. (2015). Issues in teaching English in a cultural context: A case of Indonesia. *The Journal of English Literacy Education: The Teaching and Learning of English as A Foreign Language*, 1(2), 75–82.
- Suwartono, T., & Riyani, C. (2019). Authentic Assessment in Elt: Hopes, Challenges, and Practices. *Refleksi Edukatika: Jurnal Ilmiah Kependidikan*, 9(2). <https://doi.org/10.24176/re.v9i2.2865>
- Swaffield, S. (2011). Getting to the heart of authentic Assessment for Learning. *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy and Practice*. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0969594X.2011.582838>

**TEACHING TRANSLATION: TRANSLATION
LEARNING METHOD, TRANSLATION
TECHNIQUES, AND TRANSLATION QUALITY
ASSESSMENT STRATEGIES IN UNIVERSITY**

Syarifa Rafiq

English Education Department,
Faculty of Teacher Training and Education,
Universitas Borneo Tarakan, Indonesia

Abstract

This study aimed to found translation learning methods, translation techniques, and translation quality assessment strategies in translation classes at universities. The results show that the collaborative method has many benefits if it is applied in the translation class. Students become more active, have positive relationships with students, build meaningful learning, experience solving problems in translation, and provide space for creativity like students. The translation techniques used vary depending on the translator because each translator has his translation technique, adjusted to the type of text to be translated. Translators always evaluate the results of their translations, because the assessment criteria are implicit in the selection of certain translation techniques, which have been defined from the start taking into account various factors. The most

important thing in translation is to get the equivalent/accuracy, acceptability, and readability of the translation results and adjust it to the translation quality assessment instrument.

Keywords: teaching translation, translation learning methods, translation techniques, and translation quality assessment strategies.

INTRODUCTION

One of the translator's goals is to transfer the meaning from one text to another. To achieve these goals, we need a way to achieve them. Newmark calls this activity a method, which in a narrow sense can be called the theory of translation (Newmark, 1988). What translation methods are suitable to be used in translating certain texts related to language theory? (Catford, 1965) argues that the main problem in translation is finding equivalence in the target language (TL). The term translation method is more popular with the terms word by word translation (word for word translation), literary translation (literal translation), and free translation (free translation).

In translation classes in college, students are often reminded to try to remain 'faithful' in their translation practice. 'Faithful' in translation requires that a translator will do his best to transfer messages in the source language (SL) to TL. A translation that is considered 'loyal' is a translation capable of conveying the same meaning or equivalent meaning in TL. However, the concept of equivalence in translation is an issue that has been debated until recently. Munday provides an overview of various perspectives on equivalence (Munday, 2008), formal and dynamic equivalents (Nida, 2001), the notion of equivalence

in semantic and communicative translations (Newmark, 1988), types of equivalence at the word level, above word level, text level and pragmatics level (Mona Baker, 1992). So, it is clear that the meaning contained in a linguistic unit must be given proportionately in every translation in any language (House, 2001).

Students achieve different developments because translation which is carried out professionally with the main objective of translation is very different from translation in classrooms in college only as a means. Therefore, students in higher education prove their English skills to a certain extent but not specifically regarding translation (Petrocchi, 2019). So the need for appropriate learning methods, translation techniques, and quality assessment strategies to be used in teaching translation in translation classes in universities. The methods used in translation classes also vary, but from several studies, it can be concluded that 2 learning methods are most often used and effective, namely the cooperative and collaborative models, (Puzio & Colby, 2013) found that various kinds of research support students' reading practice. Discuss, and negotiate meaning in cooperative and collaborative groups. Translation techniques are used to develop student translation competencies in a real professional context by using total text translation or part of pre-translation activities (Bogotá & Marín, 2013), and equally important by using technology that makes it easier for students to translate projects that are become their responsibility (Cem & Kocuturk, 2015). Meanwhile, the assessment of translation quality often does not measure what you want/should measure and also the teacher's lack of ability to assess the quality of the student's translation. The above can be done in college classes so that translation can be done professionally. However, we can also provide additional training in translation classes in universities by

providing training with an integrated approach by combining linguistic and pragmatic features (Petrescu, 2015).

TRANSLATION LEARNING METHODS

Active learning can improve low-level thinking skills to high-level thinking (analysis, synthesis, and evaluation), in higher education, 3 things are important in active learning (Hennessy, 2007) namely active learning to make students; independent & critical thinking, collaborative, and increase student investment, motivation, and performance. Learning in college classes must be active learning using learning methods that are by the goals and characteristics of students so that they can develop the desired thinking skills.

There are several methods in active learning that can be used in translation classes such as cooperative, collaborative, and problem-solving methods. Collaborative learning in tertiary institutions was researched by (Rocca, Margottini, & Capobianco, 2014) who explained that collaborative learning in a university environment can positively influence students to maintain constant motivation and affection for their studies. They also reduce dropouts and encourage greater regularity in academic careers. In cooperative learning at translation classes, it is better to use authentic material to develop students' translation and language skills (Ku & Ünlü, 2015), use of blogs (Azizinezhad & Hashemi, 2011), effective use of technical and non-technical media in translation classes (Hashemi & Azizinezhad, 2011) and the use of technology in translation classes (Cem & Kokturk, 2015).

The collaborative method has many benefits as teamwork, (Johnson, David, W., Johnson, Roger, T., & Smith, 1991) highlighting the following: students' motivation to do work together and to meet planned goals, responsibility

shouldered by all team members, greater productivity, and positive relationships among team members as well as developing awareness to become a translator and integration with other members. (Kiraly, 2000) creates classroom communities that promote collaboration and interaction to build meaningful learning, gaining experiences to solve translation problems similar to those they will find as professional translators. In line with this, research (Barros, 2011) shows that translation is increasingly becoming a team activity, therefore introducing teamwork in translator training will enable students to develop the required generic competencies and to experience professional situations. This is also shown by (Lee, 2012) finding that collaborative learning is more effective and provides space for creativity for learners and collaborative learning to a certain extent can improve the quality of the learner's translation even when they face difficult sentences.

The results of the research show that the learning method in the translation class is very important as mentioned above. Determining and applying translation learning methods must be done so that learning objectives can be achieved as well as possible.

TRANSLATION TECHNIQUES

The main problem of translation practice is the search for equivalents in TL whose characteristics and circumstances must be explained by a theory to get equivalents in TL (Catford, 1965), Catford divides translation based on the extent of the level and the ranks. 1) Translation range consists of two. a) Full translation, that is, all text is processed through the translation process; each part of the TL text is replaced with TL material. b) Partial translation, namely the TL text part left untranslated. These sections

were only transferred and included in the TL text. 2) The translation level consists of two. a) Total translation, namely the transfer of SL grammar and vocabulary to the equivalent TL grammar accompanied by transferring TL phonology or graphology (which is not their equivalent). b) Restricted translation, namely, the transfer of the textual meaning of the SL with the equivalent textual material at one level. 3) Translation level consists of two. a) Rank bound translation is the TL equivalent at the same level. b) Unbounded translation, namely the equivalent of TL not at one level, for example, phrases become clauses. As for the scheme as follows:

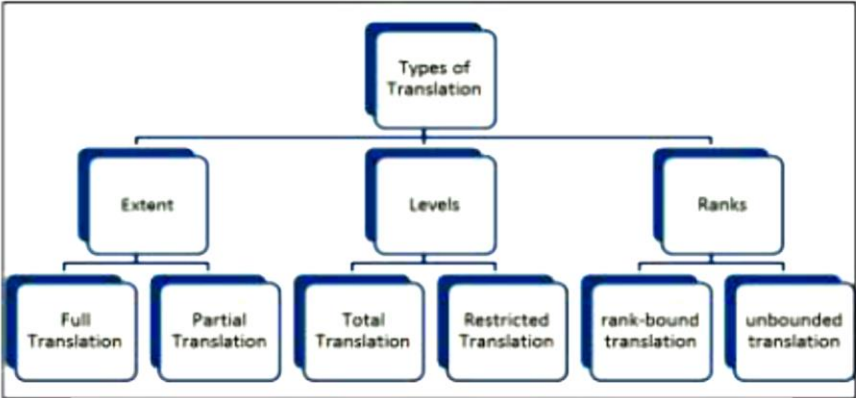


Figure 1. Catford Translation Techniques

Translation techniques are divided into two based on their focus, first emphasizing the source language (SL) and the second focusing on the target language (TL) (Newmark, 1988). In the source language, it consists of 4, namely: word for word translation, namely the BS word structure is maintained and word by word is translated singly by the most common meaning, out of context. The main use of word-for-word translation is to understand SL mechanics or to interpret a difficult text as a translation process. The

literal translation that is, the grammatical construct of SL is converted to its nearest SL equivalent but the lexical words are once again translated singly, out of context. Faithful translation, namely, faithful translation seeks to reproduce the exact contextual meaning of the original within the constraints of the TL language word structure. Semantic translation, that is, this translation takes into account the aesthetic value of the SL text and compromises on 'meaning'. The target language consists of 4, namely: adaptation, namely, the freest form of translation is usually used for drama, poetry, themes, characters, SL culture converted to TL culture, and the rewritten text. Free translation, namely, a free translation whose translation content is without its original form. The idiomatic translation that is, producing messages from the original text but tends to distort the nuances of meaning by preferring colloquialism and idioms where these are not present in the original text. Communicative translation, that is, this translation seeks to provide original contextual meaning in such a way that the content and language can be accepted and understood by readers. The scheme is as follows:

SL emphasis	TL emphasis
Word-for-word translation	Adaptation
Literal translation	Freetranslation
Faithful translation	Idiomatic translation
Semantic translation	Communicativetranslation

Figure 2. Newmark Translation Techniques

Meanwhile, Vinay and Dabernet classify the translation techniques into 2, namely literal translation (direct translation) and obligate translation (oblique translation). Literal translation consists of; 1) borrowing, namely borrowing words directly from SL. 2) Calque, namely, words

or phrases that are translated and put together into other languages. 3) Literal translation that is, word for word translation. Obligate translation consists of; 1) transposition, namely, shifting the class or category of grammatical words, examples of verbs into nouns. 2) Modulation, namely, a shift in viewpoints or cognitive categories, for example: abstract to concrete. 3) Equivalence, that is, the same translation situation uses a completely different phrase. 4) adaptation, namely, changes in the cultural environment (Vinay & Darbelnet, 1995).

Then Molina & Albir classified translation techniques based on several criteria such as; functional translation techniques, which do not evaluate whether a technique is correct or correct, because it depends on the situation in the text and the context and the translation technique that has been chosen; only procedures which are characteristic of the translation of the text and are not related to language comparisons; to retain the most commonly used terms; formulating new techniques to explain mechanisms not yet described; The techniques are as follows: 1) adaptation, namely, replacing the cultural elements that exist in SL with cultural elements that are similar to TL; 2) amplification, namely, paraphrasing the information implicit in the SL; 3) borrowing, namely borrowing words or expressions from SL; 4) calque, namely translating a BS phrase or word literally; 5) compensation, namely, conveying a message to another part of the translated text; 6) description, namely replacing a term or expression with a description of its form and function; 7) discursive creation, namely, the use of equivalents that are out of context; 8) established equivalence, namely, the use of terms or expressions that are familiar; 9) generalization, namely, using a more general term in TL for a more specific SL; 10) linguistic amplification, namely, adding linguistic elements in TL; 11) linguistic compression, namely,

synthesizing the linguistic elements in TL; 12) literal translation, that is, translating word for word and translation does not relate context; 13) modulation that is, changing the point of view, focus or cognitive category in relation to SL; 14) particularization, that is, the translator uses more concrete, precise or specific terms from superordinate to subordinate; 15) reduction that is, partial elimination because the omission is considered not to cause distortion of meaning; 16) substitution, namely changing the linguistic elements and linguistics; 17) transposition, namely, translating by changing grammatical categories; 18) variation, namely changing the linguistic or paralinguistic elements (Molina & Hurtado Albir, 2012).

TRANSLATION QUALITY ASSESSMENT STRATEGY

Quality is a top priority, both translation as (product) and translation as (process) (Schaffner, 2011). Various translation quality assessment strategies have been widely offered in the translation theory literature but these strategies measure the quality of translation partially but not comprehensively and holistically.

The translated text must fulfill three aspects as parameters for quality translation (Larson, 1998; Nababan, Nuraeni, & Sumardiono, 2012), these three aspects are as follows; 1) accuracy, namely, a term used in evaluating a translation to refer to whether the SL text and TL text are equivalent or not. The concept of equivalence refers to the similarity in content or message between the two. So that efforts to reduce or add content or SL text messages in TL text must be avoided. Because reduction or addition can have fatal consequences for humans who use a high-risk translation work such as translated texts in the fields of law, medicine, religion, and engineering. 2) Acceptability, namely,

the translation expressed under the norms, norms, and culture that apply in TL, both at the micro level and at the macro level. The concept of acceptance is important because even though the translation is accurate in terms of content, the translation will be rejected by the target reader if the way of disclosure is contrary to the norms, norms, and culture of TL. 3) Readability that is, legibility of SL text and TL text is very important because of the essence every translation process which always involves both languages at once. However, there is no indicator used to measure the legibility of a text.

Assessment of the quality of translation is very relevant to be applied in four fields, namely 1) the field of published translation, 2) the field of professional translation, 3) the field of translation produced in the context of teaching translation practice courses and 4) the field of translation studied in the context of translation research. In this study, the authors focused on the resulting translation in the context of teaching the translation practice course. The assessment of translation in the context of teaching has three functions, namely, 1) a diagnostic function, which is to diagnose the potential of students, abilities, and weaknesses of students and is carried out before the learning process begins. 2) Summative function, which is used to determine the final score and to assess the knowledge that students have acquired as well as to determine whether the teaching objectives have been achieved or not. 3) formative function, namely to obtain information for training purposes (Nababan et al., 2012).

RESEARCH METHODS

This study used a descriptive qualitative method. The data sources of this research are humans (students, lecturers, and translators) and literature (books and scientific articles) on research problems. The research data were collected through review articles available in Science Direct publications and journals indexed by Sinta and analyzed. The main indicators in selecting articles are the keywords for teaching translation and Translation quality assessment. After that, use the observation and note technique used to collect data about orientation and the strengths and weaknesses of translation learning methods, translation techniques, and existing translation quality assessment strategies and modify them so that they can be used in universities. Furthermore, discussing with students, lecturers, and translators in a Focus Group Discussion, to explore data about prototypes of methods, techniques, and strategies in translation learning in tertiary institutions.

DISCUSSION

The results of previous research on translation learning methods show that collaborative methods greatly affect students in their learning, this is also found in several studies, for example (Puzio & Colby, 2013) found various kinds of research support the practice of students reading, discussing, and negotiating meaning in cooperative and collaborative groups for bilingual students, in particular, a quantitative synthesis (August & Shanahan, 2009; Slavin & Cheung, 2003) and qualitative (Genesee, Lindholm-leary, Saunders, & Christian, 2005; Learners & Gersten, 2000; Lightbown, 2000) research provides positive evidence for this form of activity because collaborative dialogue shows

increased participation (Taguchi, 2017; Zarrinabadi & Ebrahimi, 2018) negotiation (Ammar & Hassan, 2017; Baradaran & Moezzy, 2011), and language acquisition (Cole, 2013; Haydan, 2013). Collaborative learning does not only involve the division of work in certain tasks but also requires joint solutions so that team members can build shared meaning and can develop cultural and professional knowledge (Kiryly, 2019).

The collaborative learning method in the translation class provides many benefits for students as previously described so that researchers find that there are five collaborative aspects in the translation class, namely, 1) translation techniques, 2) assessment strategies, 3) translators, 4) media and materials, 5) Information Technology. The five collaborative aspects of the translation class that the researchers summarize are as follows:



Figure 3. Five Collaborative Aspects of the Translation Class

The main objective of translation is to transfer an SL text into TL, to arrive at this goal a method or technique is needed to achieve it. The translator has full power to decide what BS text will be translated into TL text. The decisions taken must certainly prioritize meaningfulness, follow the linguistic rules that exist in the SL text and TL text and predict who the readers are. Of the several techniques proposed by experts regarding translation techniques, the most frequently used in research is the translation technique proposed by Catford, Newmark, Viney & Darbelnet, and Molina & Albir, the most popular which has been successfully written by the authors of various articles as in table 1. Following:

Table 1. Popular Translation Techniques

No.	Investigators	Translation Technique
1	<i>Catford (1965)</i>	1) extent; full translation & partial translation 2) levels; total translation & restricted translation 3) Ranks; rank-bound translation & unbounded translation
2	<i>Newmark (1988)</i>	1) BS emphasis; a word for word translation, literal translation, faithful translation, semantic translation 2) BT Emphasis; adaptation, free translation, idiomatic translation, communicative translation
3	<i>Viney & Darbelnet (1995)</i>	1) Literal translation; borrowing, calque, literal translation. 2) Obligate translation; transposition, modulation, equivalence, adaptation.
4	<i>Molina & Albir (2002)</i>	1) adaptation, 2) amplication, 3) borrowing, 4) calque, 5) compensation, 6) description, 7) discursive creation, 8) established equivalence, 9) generalization, 10) linguistic amplification, 11) linguistic compression, 12) literal translation, 13) modulation, 14) particularization, 15) reduction, 16) substitution, 17) transposition, 18) variation.

Many studies use a variety of translation techniques, for example, research using the translation technique of Molina Albir; namely to examine translation in journal abstracts (Fitria, 2018), identify cultural elements (Rahma, Diah, & Marmanto, 2018), international news translations (Akhiroh, 2013), satire expressions in novels by looking at translation techniques and quality (Dhyaningrum & Nababan, 2016). While the easiest method to use is the word-by-word equivalent method proposed by Catford and has become popular as a *word by word translation*, *literary translation* dan *free translation* (Darma, 2007) in several studies it was explained that the word by word translation technique is the most in demand by translators, as in research (Safinaz & Mat, 2012; Sundari & Febriyanti, 2019) which explains that students use more word-for-word translation techniques by 72.48% than other translation techniques, (Bogotá & Marín, 2013) 90% of students use text translation totally and partially.

Each translator has his translation technique, adjusted to the type of text to be translated. Because a good translation fulfills its purpose, for example, an informative text conveys data naturally from an authoritative or expressive text that requires translation considering the importance of content and form.

Translators will always judge the results of their translation. The assessment is carried out at the time of the translation or after completion. In the assessment process, the translator may judge the results of the translation but must also assess the translation process itself. Because actually, the assessment criteria are implicit in the selection of certain techniques, which have been defined from the start taking into account various factors. The main thing in translation (Catford, 1965) is to get translation equivalents. Meanwhile (Newmark, 1988) explains that translation

assessment is included in the ‘translation criticism’ which is the link between translator theory and translator practice.

To make it easier to assess the quality of translations, an instrument to assess the quality of translations is needed. There are three instruments for assessing the quality of translation (Larson, 1998; Nababan et al., 2012) namely an instrument for measuring the accuracy of the message, an instrument for measuring the level of acceptance of translation, and an instrument for assessing the level of translation readability. The instrument uses a rubric based on a scale of 1 to 4, as follows:

Table 2. Translation Quality Assessment Instruments

No.	Category		Qualitative Parameter	Quantitative Parameter
1	Accuracy	Very Proportionate	a. message conveyed exactly	1
			b. there is no deviation/ distortion of meaning	
			c. there is no addition, omission or change of information.	
			d. equivalence in the selection or use of terms in each translation unit	
		Proportional	a. the message is conveyed correctly but some are not quite right.	2
			b. certain translations experience a distortion of meaning	
			c. there is no addition, omission or change of information.	
			d. equivalence in the selection or use of terms in each translation unit	
		Less Proportionate	a. the message delivered is not correct in the target language	3
			b. there is a distortion of meaning	
			c. there were several additions, omissions or changes to information.	
			d. there are several errors in matching in the selection	

No.	Category	Qualitative Parameter	Quantitative Parameter
		or use of terms in each translation unit	
	Disproportionate	a. the message conveyed is not in the target language b. a lot of distortion/distortion of meaning c. there are many additions, omissions or changes in information. d. many errors in the equivalence in the choice or use of terms in each translation unit	4
2	Acceptability	Very Acceptable	1
		Acceptable	2
		Less Acceptable	3
		Not Acceptable	4
		a. the translation is very natural, reasonable, and not stiff	
		b. it doesn't look like the translation	
		c. the translation reflects communication and grammar that are common in the context of the target language	
		d. not tied to the structure of the target language	
		a. natural translation, fair, and not stiff	
		b. it doesn't look like the translation	
		c. translation reflects communication and grammar that are common in the context of the target language	
		d. tied to the structure of the target language	
a. translation unnatural and natural, and stiff			
b. looks like the translation			
a. translation reflects communication and grammar that are common in the context of the target language			
d. tied to the structure of the target language			
a. translation unnatural and natural, and stiff			
b. looks like the translation			
c. the translation does not reflect the usual			

No.	Category		Qualitative Parameter	Quantitative Parameter
			communication and grammar in the context of the target language	
			d. tied to the structure of the target language	
3	Readability	Very Easy	a. the translation is easy to understand and understand its meaning	1
			b. the specific terms used in the translation are familiar to readers	
			c. syntactic function placement is precise and appropriate	
			d. suitability of the use of syntactic categories	
		Easy	a. the translation is easy to understand and understand its meaning	2
			b. the specific terms used in the translation are familiar to readers	
			c. syntactic function placement is precise and appropriate	
			d. improper use of syntactic categories	
		Difficult	a. the translation is difficult to understand and understand the meaning	3
			b. the specific terms used in the translation are familiar to readers	
			c. the placement of syntactic functions is inappropriate and inappropriate	
			d. improper use of syntactic categories	
Very Difficult	a. the translation is very difficult to understand and understand the meaning	4		
	b. the specific terms used in the translation are largely unknown to the reader			
	c. improper and inappropriate syntactic function placement			
	d. improper use of syntactic categories			

These three aspects have different weight values, adjusted to the basic concept of the translation process as a process of transferring messages (accuracy) from SL text to TL text, then acceptance is directly related to the suitability of translation with the rules, norms, and culture that apply in BS. Accuracy weight of 4, acceptability has a weight of 3 and readability has a weight of 2.

CONCLUSION

The translation learning method that is considered to have many benefits and is very suitable for use in translation classes at universities is collaborative. The collaborative method has five aspects in the translation class, namely, 1) translation techniques, 2) assessment strategies, 3) translators, 4) media and materials, 5) information technology. The translation techniques used vary depending on the translator, because each translator has his translation technique, adjusted to the type of text to be translated. Translators always evaluate the results of their translations, because the assessment criteria are implicit in the selection of certain translation techniques, which have been defined from the start taking into account various factors. The most important thing in translation is to get the equivalent/accuracy, acceptability, and readability of the translation results and adjust it to the translation quality assessment instrument. The translation quality assessment strategy produced through this study can assess the quality holistically because the aspects assessed are not only problems of accuracy and acceptability but also the readability of the translated text. This assessment strategy can be used in a variety of contexts, both in the context of assessing the quality of professional translation and in the context of translation research and teaching.

REFERENCE

- Akhiroh, N. S. (2013). The Influence of Translation Technique on The Quality of The Translation of International News in Seputar Indonesia Daily. *Journal of Language and Literature Vol., VII(2)*, 41–51.
- Ammar, A., & Hassan, R. M. (2017). Talking It Through: Collaborative Dialogue and Second language Learning. *A Journal of Research in Language Studies*, 1–37. <https://doi.org/10.1111/lang.12254>
- August, D., & Shanahan, T. (2009). English Language Learners: Developing Literacy in Second-Language Learners — Report of the National Literacy Panel on Language-Minority Children and Youth. *Journal of Literacy Research*, 41, 432–452. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10862960903340165>
- Azizinezhad, M., & Hashemi, M. (2011). The use of blogs in teaching and learning translation. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 28, 867–871. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2011.11.159>
- Baradaran, A., & Moezzy, M. (2011). A Study of the Role of Collaborative Negotiation in the Acquisition of Lexical Meaning. *Australian Journal of Basic and Applied Sciences*, 5(12), 2252–2259.
- Barros, E. H. (2011). *Collaborative learning in the translation classroom: preliminary survey results*. (16), 42–60.
- Bogotá, C. N., & Marín, P. (2013). *Identifying Translation Teaching Strategies: An Exploratory Study School of Humanities and Social Sciences School of Humanities and Social Sciences*. 3(21), 71–78. Retrieved from [http://www.ijhssnet.com/journals/Vol_3_No_21_\[Special_Issue_December_2013\]/7.pdf](http://www.ijhssnet.com/journals/Vol_3_No_21_[Special_Issue_December_2013]/7.pdf)

- Catford, J. C. (1965). *Language and Language Learning a Linguistic Theory of Translation*. London: Oxford University Press.
- Cem, M., & Kokturk, S. (2015). The effects of technology on translation students in academic translation teaching. *Procedia–Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 197(February), 1085–1094. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.07.349>
- Cole, M. W. (2013). Rompiendo el Silencio: Meta-Analysis of the Effectiveness of Peer-Mediated Learning at Improving Language Outcomes for ELLs. *Bilingual Research Journal: The Journal of the National Association for Bilingual Education*, 36(August 2014), 37–41.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/15235882.2013.814609>
- Darma, Y. A. (2007). Metode Pembelajaran Penerjemahan. *Jurnal Pendidikan Dan Kebudayaan*, 13(67), 678. <https://doi.org/10.24832/jpnk.v13i67.391>
- Dhyaningrum, A., & Nababan, M. R. (2016). Kalimat yang Mengandung Satire dalam Novel The-100-Year-Old Man Who Climbed Out of the Window and Dissapeared. Universitas Sebelas Maret, Surakarta, Indonesia Professor at Universitas Sebelas Maret, Surakarta, Indonesia Professor in Linguistic. *Prasasti: Journal of Linguistics*, 1(2), 210–229.
- Fitria, T. N. (2018). Translation Techniques Found in English To Indonesian Abstract Translation of Journal Edunomika 2018. *ELITE Journal*, 05(02), 145–160.
- Genesee, F., Lindholm-leary, K., Saunders, W., & Christian, D. (2005). *English Language Learners in U. S. Schools: An Overview of Research Findings*. 10(4), 363–385.
- Hashemi, M., & Azizinezhad, M. (2011). Teaching media translation: Which one to choose, technical or nontechnical media-based lessons? *Procedia–Social*

- and Behavioral Sciences*, 28, 444–447.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2011.11.085>
- Haydan, R. (2013). *Graduated in 22 February 2013 from English Education Study Program of Indonesia University of Education. *Journal of English and Education*, (2007), 57–64.
- Hennessy, J. L. (2007). Teaching at Stanfords An Introductory Handbook. In *Education*. The Board of Trustees of the Leland Stanford Junior University.
- Johnson, David, W., Johnson, Roger, T., & Smith, K. (1991). *Cooperative Learning: Increasing Collage Faculty Instructional Productivity*.
- Kiraly. (2000). *Summary of discussion on collaboration, teamwork and group work. Innovation and E Learning p.51-57*.
- Kiraly, D. (2019). A Social Constructivist Approach to Translator Education; Empowerment from Theory to Practice, Manchester, UK & Northampton MA, St. Jerome. *Journal Des Traducteurs*, 48(2000), 596–597.
- Ku, S., & Ünlü, S. (2015). *Teaching translation: A suggested lesson plan on translation of advertising through the use of authentic materials*. 199, 407–414.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.07.526>
- Larson, M. L. (1998). *Meaning-Based Translation A Guide Cross-language Equivalence*. Oxford: University Press of America.
- Learners, E., & Gersten, R. (2000). *What we Know About Effective Instructional Practices for*. 66(4), 454–470.
- Lightbown, P. M. (2000). *Anniversary Article Classroom SLA Research and Second Language Teaching*. 431–462.
- Molina, L., & Hurtado Albir, A. (2012). Translation Techniques Revisited: A Dynamic and Functionalist Approach. *Meta: Journal Des Traducteurs*, 47(4), 498.
<https://doi.org/10.7202/008033ar>

- Mona Baker. (1992). *In Other Words A Coursebook on Translation*. New York: Routledge.
- Munday, J. (2008). *Introducing Translation Studies: Theories and applications, Second Edition*. New York: Routledge.
- Nababan, M., Nuraeni, A., & Sumardiono. (2012). Pengembangan Model Penilaian Kualitas Terjemahan. *Kajian Linguistik Dan Sastra*, 24(1), 39–57.
- Newmark, P. (1988). *A Textbook of Translation*. New York: Prentice Hall. International.
- Nida, E. (2001). *Contexts in Translating*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Petrescu, C. (2015). Trainer's Choices in Teaching Translating/Interpreting. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 197(February), 922–929. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.07.274>
- Petrocchi, V. (2019). Pedagogic Translation vs. Translation Teaching: A Compromise Between Theory and Practice. *American Association of Teachers of Italian*, 91(1), 95–109.
- Puzio, K., & Colby, G. T. (2013). *Journal of Research on Educational Cooperative Learning and Literacy: A Meta-Analytic Review Cooperative Learning and Literacy: A Meta-Analytic Review*. 6:4(December 2014), 37–41. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19345747.2013.775683>
- Rahma, A., Diah, K., & Marmanto, S. (2018). Analisis Teknik Penerjemahan Adaptasi dan Variasi pada subtitle film Batman Versi Bahasa Jawa Mataraman. *Prasasti Journal of Linguistics*, 3(1), 13–29.
- Rocca, C. La, Margottini, M., & Capobianco, R. (2014). *Collaborative Learning in Higher Education*. (February), 61–66.
- Safinaz, I., & Mat, N. (2012). *Teaching translation techniques in a university setting: problems and solutions*.

- 46(1995), 800–804. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.05.202>
- Schaffner, C. (2011). From “Good” to “Functionally Appropriate”: Assessing Translation Quality. *Current Issues in Language and Society*, 4(1), 1–5. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13520529709615476>
- Slavin, R. E., & Cheung, A. (2003). Effective Reading Programs for English Language Learners a Best-Evidence Synthesis. In *Published by the Center for Research on the Education of Students Placed at Risk (CRESPAR)* (Vol. 66).
- Sundari, H., & Febriyanti, R. H. (2019). Translation Techniques and Translation Competence in Translating Informative Text for Indonesian EFL Learners. *Scope: Journal of English Language Teaching*, 1(01), 17. <https://doi.org/10.30998/scope.v1i01.862>
- Taguchi, N. (2017). *Collaborative Dialogue in Learning Pragmatics: Pragmatic-Related Episodes as an Opportunity for Learning Request-Making*. (January 2016). <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amu039>
- Vinay, J. P., & Darbelnet, J. (1995). *Comparative Stylistics of French and English a methodology for Translation*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Zarrinabadi, N., & Ebrahimi, A. (2018). Increasing peer collaborative dialogue using a flipped classroom strategy. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 0(0), 1–10. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17501229.2018.1455688>

CRITICAL LITERACY WITHIN THE CONTEXT OF EFL CLASSROOM

Sophia Fithri Al-Munawwarah

Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia
Universitas Muhammadiyah Lampung

Abstract

It is fair to say that critical literacy can be considered as a meaningful idea for EFL as well as ESL classroom. Being literate in this 21st century means than just being able to read and write are not enough. It is due to the reason that the amount of information on certain source demands people to be able to critique and navigate text. Consequently, language lesson should also focus on the goal of social justice for community. Hence, the need to conduct critical literacy-oriented activities in order to develop students' higher-order thinking skills in language teaching and learning process. Dealing with this, this paper focuses on elaborating the main concept of critical literacy in EFL teaching for adolescent students. In details, this paper discusses (1) the nature of critical literacy, (2) the information of the use of multimodal texts in critical literacy activities, (3) the information of conducting critical literacy-oriented activities in EFL reading class to adolescents, and (4) related research.

Keywords: Critical literacy, EFL, Higher order thinking skills

INTRODUCTION

Promoting students' critical literacy within the context of foreign language learning can be considered as a complex and important teaching practice. Dealing with this, providing language teaching with meaningful activities that develop students' creativity and higher order thinking skills in this disruptive era is crucial (Rachmawati, 2020). It is in line with the demand of disruptive age in which it is not enough if we only value text by seeing its linguistic mode (Huang, 2017). Consequently, teaching reading and writing should facilitate students in questioning social justice and power related to certain issues.

In connection with the explanation above, it can be seen that critical literacy deals with ideology and author position in a text that may influence the reader (Alford, 2001). Commonly, critical literacy-oriented activity is entwined with language learning. It is highlighted that critical literacy has been studied since the 1980s in variety of levels of schooling in countries whose native language is English (Fajardo, 2015). Moreover, in English as foreign language context just like in Indonesia, Alwasilah (2007) highlights that some principles on critical pedagogy are fully relevant, while some other principles are partly acceptable. That is to say that it is possible to apply critical pedagogy in foreign language teaching since it is appropriate for the language curriculum, particularly in Indonesia.

Having the explanation above, this paper focuses on (1) the nature of critical literacy, (2) the information of the use of multimodal texts in critical literacy activities, (3) the information of conducting critical literacy-oriented activities in EFL reading class to adolescents, and (4) related research.

THE NATURE OF CRITICAL LITERACY

The word *critical* comes from the Greek word for ‘critic’ (*kritikos*), which means “to question, to make sense of, to be able to analyze” (Chaffee, 2012: 52). Furthermore, critical literacy has to do with some aspects of higher order comprehension (Luke, 2000). Critically literate means “developing a sense that literacy is for taking social action, an awareness of how people use literacy for their own ends and a sense of agency with respect to one’s own literacy” (Dozier, Johnston, & Rogers, 2006). Moreover, a way of understanding the notion of critical is a form of problematizing practice (Pennycook, 2001).

In addition, Critical literacy is grounded in critical social theory and rooted in the Frankfurt School (Luke, 2012). The seminal book of this area is a book entitled *Pedagogy of the Oppressed* (Freire, 1970). In his book, Freire (1970) affirms that dialogue between some people is a tactic to be utilized for domination. Meanwhile, in Australia, Luke (2000) highlights that critical literacy begins with the assumption that reading and writing are about social power and critical literacy should go beyond individual skill acquisition to engage pupils in the analysis and reconstruction of social field.

Actually, critical literacy has been elaborated in different ways by some experts. It is more than linguistics since it deals with social and political practice that limits or creates opportunity for people to be literate (Sluys, Lewison, & Flint, 2006). Dealing with this, critical literacy can be defined as the use of texts to analyze and transform relations of cultural, social, and political power (Luke, A. & Dooley, K., 2009; Jones, 2012). When people are critically literate, they examine their ongoing development in order to show the subjective positions from which people make sense of the

world and act in it (Shor, 1999). Seeing this, it can be said that the value of critical literacy fits to language teaching.

Multimodal Texts in Critical Literacy Practices

In Critical literacy practice, it is obvious that the existence of multimodal texts plays a dominant role in providing information. Since multimodal texts commonly represent particular societies and culture, this may enable people including language learners to build meaningful connections between literacy and their lives. To make it clear, Walsh (2015, p.1) defines multimodal texts as;

...those texts that have more than one 'mode' so that meaning is communicated through synchronization of modes. That is, they may incorporate spoken or written language, still or moving images they may be produced on paper or electronic screen and may incorporate sound...multimodal texts that students commonly encounter in their educational environment in print form are picture books, information books, newspapers, and magazines. Multimodal texts in non-print form are film, video and, increasingly, those texts through the electronic screen such as email, the internet and digital media such as CD ROOMs or DVDs. In addition, Suhor (1991, cited in Nallaya, 2010) points out that semiotic codes, such as symbol in the form of signs or icons that represent meaning for words, that are provided in multimodal texts can facilitate understanding.

Multimodal text can be seen as making meaning in multiple articulations (Kress & Leeuwen, 2010). Meaning making is possible in the form of different modes including audio, visual, gestural, tactile, spatial, verbal spoken or verbal written (Kress, 2010). Furthermore, multimodal literacy is defined as "the ability to encode or decode linguistic, visual, spatial, gestural, and audio modes of meaning within texts that modify word meanings in different digital contexts and cultural contexts of use" (Mills et al.,

2015). Nowadays, pupils commonly spend their times to read and write multimodal texts, such as create power point presentations, read advertisement in the magazines, watch videos, and visit certain websites. In other words, it is common for the pupils to read texts which include several modes, such as images, symbols, film clips, and sounds.

Recently, as a result of the revolution of communication technology, it has brought about shifts of literacy and literacy practices (Ajayi, 2015). As mentioned above, new technologies provide media and integration of multimodal sources for literacy practices. In terms of critical multimodal literacy, since it is common to use different modes of communication, it is necessary to read and write critically not only of print-based texts but also of multimodal texts to critique unequal social relations. In relation to this, multimodal texts can be appropriate to be utilized in developing students' critical literacy (Black 2010 cited in Fajardo, 2015). Moreover, it is presumably that critical multimodal literacy facilitates language learners to question inequalities of power in particular texts as they relate to textual practices.

CRITICAL LITERACY ACTIVITY: READING FOR ADOLESCENTS

Adolescent can be considered as the period in a person's life between childhood and adulthood. Adolescence illustrates the teenagers' year between 13 and 19 (Lesiak, 2015). Apart from that, APA (2002 cited in Curtiz, 2015) points out that the most commonly used chronologic definition of adolescence involves the ages of 10-18, however can incorporate a span of 9-26 years depending on the source. For the purpose of this paper, APA's statement of chronologic definition of adolescence will be utilized.

The teens are an age of transition, confusion, self-consciousness, growing and changing bodies and minds (Brown, 2001). It is a stage of human development in which an individual must move from dependency to independence, autonomy and maturity (Geldard, 2004). Given this, it is fair to say that teaching adolescents can be a challenge for teacher.

Teens learning potential can be considered greater than those younger children. However, they may be difficult to manage and motivate themselves (Ur, 2009). To cope with these, teacher should avoid conducting lessons that bore them with over analysis. In addition, it is necessary for secondary school teachers to keep self-esteem high by encouraging small group-work where risks can be taken more easily by teenagers (Brown, 2001).

The present paper focuses on critical literacy practice for adolescents since they are critically engaging with texts on regular basis (Kurki, 2011). Adolescents respond to the literacy demands of their subject area classes especially language subject when they have appropriate background knowledge and strategies for reading variety of texts (Alvermann, 2002). Good adolescent readers are purposeful, strategic, and critical readers who comprehend the content of particular text.

In some extent, it is safe to say that adolescents sometimes struggle with text comprehension for different reasons. In terms of adolescent literacy, it is noted that “adolescents deserve instruction that builds both the skills and desire to read increasingly complex materials” (Moore, Bean, Birdyshaw & Rycik, 1999 cited in Alvermann, 2002: 190). Furthermore, reading lessons that includes critical literacy perspective should assist students examine biases and purposes of particular texts, assess the broader societal

message about value, attitudes and power that are being conveyed in certain texts.

RELATED RESEARCH

Seeing this, actually, several studies have been conducted on critical literacy in English language classroom. A study conducted by Ko (2013) within the context of second or foreign language learning to English major pupils in Taiwan. In order to help learners to become critically literate, she conducted the study by posing critical questions and conducting critical dialogue with the learners to raise their awareness related to the issue in given text.

Apart from that, a study conducted by Gustine (2013) aimed at discovering the design and the utilization process of a critical approach in teaching English in an Indonesian secondary school. It is action research. Through classroom observation, students' reflective journals, and interview, the data of this study is beneficial in order to provide both theoretical and practical frameworks that are required to prepare pre-service teachers to teach ELT by implementing critical approach. Besides, research carried out by Kurniawati (2016) focused on investigating the impact of infusing critical literacy in a critical reading course at one public university in Indonesia. This is a kind of case study. In this study, the data revealed that the implementation of CL in reading program was successful and applicable.

Given this, it is highlighted that in EFL context, critical literacy has not been widely investigated. In Asian EFL setting, this area of research commonly has been conducted at tertiary level.

CONCLUSION

It is pointed out that critical literacy can be seen as the relation between literacy and power. Critical literacy practice in the language classroom deals with how teacher pose critical questions about various texts into the activities of everyday life at school and how the students' responses towards given questions related to certain texts. Although critical literacy is not a new term among scholars in literacy education (Lee, 2011), in EFL teaching, limited studies have been conducted at secondary level of education. Given this, this synthesis paper has discussed theoretical frameworks for the researchers in conducting the research on the implementation of critical literacy-oriented practices in EFL classroom for adolescent students.

REFERENCES

- Alford, J., & Jetnikoff, A. (2016). *Orientations to Critical Literacy for English as an Additional Language or Dialect (EAL/D) Learners: A case study of four teachers of senior English*. Australian Journal of Language and Literacy, vol. 39, no.2, pp. 111-125.
- Alvermann, D. E. (2002). *Effective literacy instruction for adolescents*. Journal of Literacy vol. 34, no.2, pp. 189-208.
- Ajayi, L. (2015). Critical Multimodal literacy: How Nigerian Female Students Critique Text and Reconstruct Unequal Social Structures. Journal of Literacy Research, Vol. 47 (2). sagepub.com/journalsPermissions.nav DOI: 10.1177/1086296X15618478.
- Alwasilah, A. C. (2007). *Language, Culture, and Education: A Potrait of contemporary Indonesia*. Bandung: Andira.

- Amari, F. Z. (2015). The Role of Critical Discourse Analysis in EFL teaching/Learning. *Frontier of language and teaching* vol. 6, pp. 87-93.
- Brown, H. D. (2001). *Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy*. New York: Pearson Education Company.
- Chaffee, J. (2012). *Thinking critically (10th edition)*. Australia: Wadsworth Cengage learning.
- Curtiz, A. C. (2015). Defining Adolescence. *Journal of Adolescence and Family health* vol. 7 no. 2, pp. 1-40. Retrieved from: <https://scholar.utc.edu/jafh/vol7/iss2/2>.
- Dozier, C., Johnston, P., & Rogers, R. (2006). *Critical literacy critical teaching*. New York: Teacher College Press.
- Emilia, E. (2005). *A critical genre based approach to teaching academic writing in a tertiary efl context in Indonesia*. Melbourne, Australia.: Doctoral dissertation the University of Melbourne.
- Farrallelli, M. (2000). Using critical literacy approach in the EFL class. *Journal of NELTA, Vol. 14, no. 1-2*, pp. 26-31.
- Freire, P. (1970). *Pedagogy of the oppressed*. London: Continuum
- Fajardo, M. F. (2015). A Review of Critical Literacy Beliefs and Practices of English Language Learners and Teachers. Paper in TESOL, 10, 29-56.
- Giambrone, A. (2016). Education in the 21st Century: Critical Literacy and Agonistic Conflict as a Response to Current Issues. *International Conference on Education*.
- Gee, J. P. (1999). *An introduction to discourse analysis: Theory and method*. London: Routledge.
- Geldard (2004). The nature of adolesence. retrieved from: sagepub.com.

- Gustine, G. (2018). A survey on critical literacy as a pedagogical approach to teaching english in indonesia. *indonesian journal of applied linguistics Vol. 7, no.3*, 531-537.
- Gustine, G. (2013). Designing and implementing a critical literacy-based approach in an Indonesian EFL secondary school. *International Journal of Indonesian Studies*, vol. 1, pp. 2-21.
- Hazaea, A. N. & Elzubi, A.A. (2017). Effects of CDA Instruction on EFL Analytical Reading Practices. *Research on Youth and Language* 11 (2) pp. 88-101.
- Haydey, D., Kostiuk, J., & Phillips, S. (2008). Embracing critical literacy: developing higher level thinking skills for all adolescent readers. *The Mern Journal vol. 2*, pp. 10-16.
- Janks, H. (2000). Domination, Access, Diversity and Design: A Synthesis for Critical Literacy Education. *Educational Review*, 52(2), 175-186.
- Janks, H. (2013). Critical literacy in teaching and research. *Education inquiry vol.4, no. 2*, pp. 225-242.
- Kress, G. & Van Leeuwen, T. (2010). *Multimodal Discourse: The modes and nedia of contemporary communication*. Great Britain: Bloomsbury.
- Kathy A. Mills, John Davis-Warra, Marlene Sewell & Mikayla Anderson (2015): Indigenous ways with literacies: transgenerational, multimodal, placed, and collective, *Language and Education*, DOI: 10.1080/09500782.2015.1069836.
- Ko, M. (2013) A Critical Discourse Analysis of EFL Learners' Post-reading Reflections in a Critical Literacy-based Class. *English Linguistics Research vol. 2 no. 2*, pp. 1-14.

- Kunjara, E. (2005). Literacy in a Multicultural Indonesian Society: A Feminist Perspective. *Antropologi Indonesia, Januari 2005, Vol. 29, no. 1.*
- Kurki, S. B. (2011). investigating adolescents critical literacy practices. A thesis. University of Victoria.
- Kurniawati, N. (2016). *A Critical literacy program incorporated in a critical reading course at state Islamic university in indonesia.* Bandung, Indonesia.: Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Indonesia University of Education.
- Kuo, J. (2014). Critical Literacy in the EFL Classroom: Evolving Multiple Perspectives through Learning Tasks. *The Journal of Asia TEFL Vol. 11, No. 4*, pp. 109-138.
- Lee, C. J. (2011). Myths about critical literacy: What teachers need to unlearn. *Journal of language and literacy education, 7 (1)*, pp. 95-102.
- Lesiak, K. (2015). Teaching English to adolescents. *World Scientific News, 7*, pp. 246-260.
- Loannidou, E. (2015). Critical literacy in the first year of primary school: Some insights from Greek Cypriot classroom. *Journal of early childhood literacy, Vol. 15 (2)*, pp. 177-202.
- Luke, A. (2000). Critical Literacy in Australia. *Journal of Adolescent and Adult literacy, 43.*
- Medina, A. F.G. (2016). Encouraging Students to Develop Critical Literacies through Local Issue Articles. A Master Program Thesis in Applied Linguistics of TEFL. Bogota: Columbia.
- McLaughlin, M., & DeVogd, G. (2004). Critical Literacy as Comparison: Expanding Reader Response. *journal of adolescent & Adult Literacy, 48(1)*, 52-62.
- Nallaya, S. (2010) The Impact of Multimodal Text Seeing this, it can be said that the value of critical literacy fits to

- language teaching. A Thesis for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy, The University of Adelaide. Adelaide.
- Pennycook, A. (2001). *Critical applied linguistics: A critical introduction*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Rachmawati, U. (2020). Developing students' reflective skills in the teaching and learning of reading in Disruptive Era. In Madya et.al. (2020) English linguistics, literature, and language teaching in a changing era: Proceeding of the 1st international conference on English linguistics, literature, and language teaching. London: Routledge.
- Rahimi, E. & Sharififar, M. (2015). Critical Discourse Analysis and Its Implication in English Language Teaching: A Case Study of Political Text. ISSN 1799-2591 Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 5, No. 3, pp. 504-511. DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.17507/tpls.0503.08>
- Reisigl, M., & Wodak, R. (2009). The discourse-historical approach. In P. Wodak, & M. Meyer, *Method of Critical Discourse Analysis*. London: Sage Publication.
- Roberge, G. D. (2013). *Promoting critical literacy across the curriculum and fostering safer learning environments*. Retrieved from [www. Edu.gov.on.ca](http://www.edu.gov.on.ca).
- Shor, I. (1999). What is critical literacy?. *Journal of Pedagogy, Pluralism & Practice*.
- Suherdi, D. (2012). *Towards the 21st Century English Teacher Education: An Indonesian Perspective*. Bandung: Celtic Press.
- Sluys, K. V., Lewison, M., & Flint, A. S. (2006). Researching critical literacy: A critical study of analysis of classroom discourse. *Journal of literacy research*. Vol. 38 (2), pp. 197-233.
- Ur, P. (2009). *A course in language teaching: Practice and theory*. New York: Cambridge university Press.

- Van Dijk, T. (1998). Critical Discourse Analysis. To appear in Deborah Tannen, Deborah Schiffrin & Heidi Hamilton (Eds.), *Handbook of Discourse Analysis* (in preparation). Retrieved from: <http://www.hum.uva.nl/~teun/cda.htm>.
- Walsh, M. (2015). Reading visual and multimodal texts: how is reading different? Retrieved from: <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/266184461>.
- Wallace, C. (2013). Critical literacy awareness in the EFL classroom. In N. In Fairclough, *Critical language awareness* (pp. pp. 59-92). New York: Routledge.
- Zhang, G. (2015). *Learning Critical Literacy in ESL Classrooms*. Retrieved from Creative Education, 6, 1316-1321.: <http://dx.doi.org/10.4236/ce.2015.612131>.

ACTIVE LEARNING: A MEANS OF IMPROVING SPEAKING SKILLS FOR ADULT EFL

Aco Nasir

Universitas Al Asyariah Mandar

Abstract

Currently, when teaching English as a foreign language, teachers need to selectively apply strategies. Therefore, many strategies can be used for English education that has been advocated by many researchers. This study suggests that active learning can improve students' Speaking Skills. This strategy is considered one of many suitable strategies, as many studies show that active learning strategies positively impact student performance. Therefore, this study describes the incorporation of English education to facilitate student projects. Findings from important review data show that students taught active learning strategies significantly improve their English proficiency compared to students in the comparison group. Using active learning strategies, students are encouraged to share ideas and collaborate with peers in the critical selection of important information. In addition, upon completing the project, students will be asked to practice and practice their language skills before speaking.

Keywords: *Active Learning, Speaking English Language Teaching*

BACKGROUND

In today's world of language teaching, especially in teaching English as a foreign language, (EFL) places more emphasis on activating students in the language learning process. According to Nurchalis (2019), Students are mostly talkative outside the classroom, but they are more apathetic in English class. This is a common problem many English teachers face that should be overcome. That's why this study tries to propose a strategy to activate students' learning. In this case, students are given more opportunities to be active in interacting with the teacher and actively interact with their friends. Meanwhile, the teacher only acts as a facilitator, director, and mentor. The role of the teacher is minimized so that the role of students in learning is maximized. The basis of this teaching pattern is a strategy to create an atmosphere of teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) to be more communicative and meaningful. Various studies in language teaching tend to propose that the application of active learning strategies is one solution in dealing with passive students.

English teachers have the main task of creating an active atmosphere in language learning, especially in the aspect of activating students' skills in speaking, listening, reading, and writing. The four aspects of these skills characterize a person's success or failure in learning English. That's why researchers or teachers continue to develop teaching according to design that can accommodate improvements in English learners. Involving students in active learning is a way to help students improve and improve their English language skills. In the active learning pattern, students are encouraged or encouraged to actively apply the knowledge and skills they have to do certain tasks given by the teacher.

Implementing active learning means active learning is a challenging task for teachers because several factors need to be known, such as variations in student characteristics and needs, instructional objectives, a large number of students, and preparation in carrying out active learning tasks. Teachers who are accustomed to teaching with a teacher-centered learning system such as the teacher's more dominant role in giving lectures compared to providing broad opportunities for students to actively participate in seeking all information, may not find it easy to switch to a student-centered approach. Thus, students may not accept the idea of active participation; they believe that the teacher should explain everything and tell them what to do during the lesson. If this paradigm persists, active learning can hardly be implemented in the classroom and meaningful learning experiences may not be achieved. Drew and Mackie (2011) see the shift in the role of teachers in active learning classrooms as a challenge that must be faced by teachers.

RESEARCH METHOD

This study uses descriptive qualitative research in which the value of changes in the data is not expressed in numbers in this case in the form of an overview of the Power of Experiences in learning English. As a whole, the study is a critical review of the research results. The data sources used in this study are primary and secondary data. Primary data is data obtained from the source directly. While the primary data is a general description of the Power of Experiences obtained directly through scientific articles that are directly related to the object being studied, in this case, the researcher chooses one research report in the form of an international journal article that examines efforts to make students actively involved in learning English. Furthermore,

as a supporter of this study, secondary data is also obtained, namely, the data obtained which is processed first in the form of a report on the results of research by Jumriati (2015) about efforts to increase student activity in learning.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This section presents the characteristics and advantages of active learning, considerations in selecting and implementing active learning strategies in the classroom, and examples of strategies based on what I often use in teaching English. In addition, it is also based on several results of a critical review of many research results related to active learning strategies. Characteristics of Active Learning To make it easier for teachers to apply active learning models, they must master the characteristics of active learning. By mastering the model of active learning characteristics, it will be easier for teachers to involve students in actively participating in learning. Active learning itself has many definitions of what has been defined by experts. Meyer and Jones (1993:6) define active learning as an activity that “involves providing opportunities for students to meaningfully talk and listen, write, read, and reflect on the content, ideas, issues, and concerns of an academic subject.” Meanwhile, Bell and Kahrholl (2006: 1) describe active learning as “a process wherein students are actively engaged in building an understanding of facts, ideas, and skills through the completion of Instructor-directed tasks and activities. It is any type of activity that gets students involved in the learning process. Drew and Mackie (2011) asserted that active learning requires students to actively participate in the learning process not necessarily at the physical level but also at the cognitive level, applying information into assignments, and reflecting on what has been learned. they

learn.” These definitions imply that in an active learning classroom, each student is actively involved in creating an understanding of the concepts being studied by applying the concepts to specific tasks and thinking about what they are learning.

In active learning, it is not necessary to work in teams or collaboratively where collaborative activities are always in the form of active learning. This makes active learning a clear form of cooperative learning (Keyser, 2004). Active learning can be done either individually or in groups as long as the active participation of students occurs. Individuals can actively understand the subject matter by asking questions, and making frameworks or concept maps. write Individual summaries or complete other individual tasks. Meanwhile, cooperative work is always carried out at least in pairs or small groups which can make students work together to build meaning that requires active participation from each member through discussion, problem-solving, and task-based activities. Bonwell and Eison (1991) proposed three important characteristics of active learning: 1) students are actively engaged in learning, 2) students take the learning responsibility for their own and sometimes others, and 3) teachers do not merely transfer knowledge but provide activities to facilitate students’ active learning.

The continuation of the active learning model is categorized by Bonwell and Eison (1991) as a task that starts from a simple task to a more complex task. Thus, tasks in active learning can move from simple tasks at one end to more complex tasks at the other. Both ends of the continuum play an important role in the learning process. The following figure shows the continuation of the active learning model.

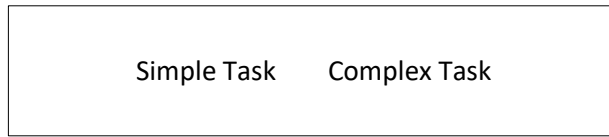


Figure 1. The Active Learning Continuum

The series of pictures above show that active learning tasks are not always complex tasks but can range from simple tasks such as giving a definition, explaining, predicting, or writing a summary in a minute or two to more complex ones that take longer. extra time and effort in design and implementation such as task-based tasks and problem-solving. The choice of tasks depends on the level of student proficiency and competence to be achieved in learning but the basic idea is the active participation of students.

The implementation of active learning does not always eliminate the teacher's lecture system or teacher explanations, but this model seeks to reduce the number of lectures, in this case, the teacher's efforts to describe the length and length of the material are reduced and the teacher gives more portions for students. to process or think about and explore information during learning. So that students continue to actively participate in various activities in class. Studies show that lecture techniques are less effective than active teaching strategies (McCarthy & Anderson, 2000, Michel, et al., 2009; Hackathorn, et al., 2011) in terms of students' retention of learned information because active learning requires students' active involvement. In processing information, the retention rate is longer than listening to lectures. In that way, active learning emphasizes the role of students as active learners; not as passive ones, who just sit, listen to the teacher, do the exercises, and submit the results as students do in a traditional classroom.

Overall, active learning classrooms allow for a shift in the roles of students and teachers. As previously mentioned, the role of students in active learning is active, participatory, and reflective learners who are actively involved in the learning process by thinking, asking questions, processing knowledge, and taking responsibility for their learning. Meanwhile, the teacher's role in active learning activities shifts from being a transmitter of knowledge or information to facilitators and guides who helps and supports students in developing their knowledge and skills. In active learning, the lecture or lecture system is still given but the portion is reduced and the involvement of students in activities is more dominant in clarifying, adding, or processing further information. This is the difference between active learning and conventional strategies. The application of active learning places more emphasis on a student-centered learning approach or generally with the term Student-centered approach.

The advantages of Active Learning have many advantages, both perceived by the teacher and the benefits for students. Below are the advantages of active learning based on research results and it is very suitable for teachers to apply active learning in their English teaching practice (Bonwell & Eison, 199; Keyser, 2004; Michel, et al. 2009; Odom, et al., 2009; Cavanagh, 2011; Drew & Mackle, 2011; Gibson & Shaw, 2011; Ning & Hornby. 2014):

Active learning that engages students in building knowledge can improve students' understanding and retention of knowledge and thereby improve their cognitive performance.

Active learning increases students' interest and motivation as they engage in meaningful activities rather than being passive listeners.

Active learning increases students' responsibility for their learning as they are encouraged to find answers to questions about knowledge through specific tasks.

Active learning engages students in higher-order thinking, such as analysis, synthesis, and evaluation which facilitates the development of their learning.

Active learning offers highly influential direct feedback for students to see their strengths and weaknesses in the area they are studying.

Active learning in pairs or groups helps students develop their social skills to share ideas, negotiate meaning, and listen to other people's ideas.

Active learning offers many benefits for teachers and students as studies show. However, to be effective, there are several considerations that teachers need to make before selecting, designing, and implementing active learning in their classrooms (Bonwell & Sutherland, 1996; Auster & Wylie, 2006; Drew & Mackie, 2011; Hung, et al., 2013). Following are some considerations:

Student needs. This means that teachers need to consider instructional objectives as standards to achieve in the principle of meaningful and authentic activities. Thus, the teacher can ensure that the activity will be beneficial for students who are learning. The complexity of the activity. Teachers must ensure that any active learning that is designed is not complicated so that students can enjoy or feel happy with the activities that take place so that when students learn they can improve their knowledge and skills. For example, in one meeting, the teacher needs to set a goal or two that are realistic and do not overwhelm students by targeting multiple goals. This can ensure that the teacher can still deliver the day's subject matter without spending too much time on active learning activities.

The classroom interaction. This indicates that the active learning that the teacher chooses to use involves a two-way interaction: interaction between students and interaction between teachers and students. Thus, each student can participate in the interaction. In large classes of 30 students or more, the teacher's classroom management skills are certainly needed to ensure that interactions occur to support active learning. The measurement of learning outcomes. For the assessment of active learning activities, Gibson and Shaw (2011) specifically mention that teachers need to determine what should be assessed (learning objectives), what benefits will be obtained by assessing (benefits for teachers and students) when the assessment is carried out (during or after the activity). and how the assessment is designed (its objectives are explicit for students and vary in form: observations, self- or peer-assessments, and rubrics).

The impact of the activity on students' attitude and motivation toward learning. By observing and interviewing students, the teacher can obtain information on whether students feel comfortable and enjoy the activity and have a positive attitude towards it. And are they motivated during learning? This is very important as a basis for teachers to make better plans in the future regarding the implementation of activities. The integration of (Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL). CALL integration stimulates students' cognitive development, practices their language skills, and increases their learning motivation. In addition, internet-based activities provide students with more opportunities outside the classroom to explore information and continue to practice the skills they are learning. Examples of integrating CALL with active learning strategies are examples using blogs, digital storytelling, writing e-journals, using Skype to practice speaking and listening

skills, or using visual lectures via video-enabled stream, followed by writing a summary.

In short, active learning brings several benefits for the development of student learning as long as it pays attention to the above aspects. Considering these aspects can help teachers design the most appropriate active learning strategies to be applied in their teaching practice. In that way, teachers can maximize the probability of success of the strategies they use.

As active Learning Strategies in Improving Student Skills, many activities lead students to active learning who are familiar with the teacher. Among them are brainstorming, concept mapping, pause-procedure, discussion, jigsaw, Think-Pair-Share, role-play presentations, simulations, field trips, debates, and project-based activities. These strategies promote active student learning either individually or in pairs/groups where students engage in activities of processing, applying, and retaining information.

The following are strategies I frequently use in teaching my students at the high school and middle school levels that I believe can increase their engagement, interest, and skills in listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Some of the strategies are general strategies that I have modified to meet the characteristics of my students and the competencies to be achieved. The technique is below:

Questions and Answers. This activity is usually carried out by teachers to improve students' critical thinking. The challenge is how to get students to respond to the teacher's questions. Usually, I give hints to help them answer my question by pronouncing the first letter of the answer and sometimes I give extra points to the student's score on the day's assignment for those who can answer my question or who ask follow-up questions (the latter is more challenging

because generally our students are reluctant to ask). If there is no response in more than 30 seconds, I paraphrase the question and provide another clue. This usually works when students find it challenging to answer a question by guessing without fear of any punishment, but expecting a reward. At the same time, encourage them to talk even with advanced students.

Survival Games. I use this game to challenge students' memory, improve their listening and speaking skills and apply grammar rules. This game is played in groups of 5 (The bigger the group, the more challenging the game) which I invite in front of the class. Each group member takes turns saying for example, "I woke up this morning at 6 and..." with each continuing the sentence by adding one phrasal verb. A player exits when he cannot say the correct sentence or cannot add a new phrasal verb to it. The winner is the last person in the group who can remember and pronounce the sentence correctly.

Show Me What You Learned. This is a type of short quiz about a particular material that is taught in a meeting. I usually use it in the last 15 or 10 minutes of a lesson by asking students to write down what they learned that day. Writing can take various forms such as writing a summary, concept or word map, or a table containing the main points of the lesson at the meeting. Results are submitted and published that day so students can get immediate feedback from either their teachers or classmates. By doing this, students engage in understanding the lesson by writing summaries or drawing concept maps, or completing tables and become more responsible for their learning. Especially with summary writing, students practice their writing skills

Group Outlining and Mapping. This activity is carried out outside the classroom where students are placed in small groups (3 students each) to read an assigned passage and

make an outline and concept map each on poster size and decorated paper. The results are then presented in class and given feedback by the teacher and classmates. Then, the product that gets the highest score is published in the department wall magazine. This encourages active student participation during passage reading, creating, and presenting outlines and concept maps.

The activities presented in this chapter are just a few examples of active learning strategies. Many other strategies can build active engagement of students who may be familiar with teachers and have been practiced in their classrooms.

CONCLUSION

Research shows that students learn best when they are engaged with the lesson material and actively participate in their learning. Therefore, teaching strategies that create an active learning atmosphere are seen as more effective than traditional teaching models. In an active learning framework, students are engaged to actively participate in building their understanding of knowledge, applying knowledge in assignments, and practicing their language skills. In addition, students are made aware of their responsibility for the development of their learning and to reflect on what they have done in the lesson considering the benefits that active learning brings, teachers as decision-makers to design and implement teaching practices are encouraged to implement active learning. effective in their classroom. There are many active learning strategies developed by educators and those discussed in this chapter are just a few those teachers may be familiar with. Select and implement active learning strategies.

REFERENCES

- Bell, D., & Kahrhorff, J. (2006). *Active Learning Handbook*. Ouis, Missouri: Webster University Press.
- Bonwell, C.C., & Eison, J. (1991). Active learning: Creating excitement in the classroom. *ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report Series (AEHE)*. Washington DC: George Washington University, School of Education and Human Development.
- Cahyono, Y.B. (2015). *Inspirations and Innovations for English Classroom*. State University of Malang Press.
- Drew, V., & Mackie, L. (2011). Extending the Construct of Active Learning: Implication for Teachers' Pedagogy and Practice. *The Curriculum Journal*, 22(4), 451-467.
- Hackathorn, J., Solomon, E.D., Blankmeyer, K.L., Tennial, R.E., & Garczynski, A.M. (2011). Learning by doing: An empirical study of active teaching techniques. *The Journal of Effective Teaching*. 11(2), 40-54.
- Hung, H.C., Young, S.S & Lin, C.P (2003). No student left behind: A collaborative and competitive game-based learning environment to reduce the achievement gap to EFL students in Taiwan. *Technology, Pedagogy and Education*, DOI: 10.1080/1475939X2013822412.
- Keyser, M.W. (2004). *Active Learning and Cooperative Learning: Understanding the Difference and Using Both Styles Effectively*. Kingsville: Texas A & M University.
- Mayer, c., & Jones, T.B. (1993). *Promoting Active Learning: Strategies for the Challenging Classroom*. San Fransisco: Jossy Bass.
- McCarthy, J.P., & Anderson, L. (2000). Active learning technique versus traditional techniques styles: Two

- experiments from history and political science. *Innovative Higher Education*, 24 (4)279-294.
- Michel, N., Cater, J.J & Varela O. (2009). Active versus passive techniques styles: An empirical study of students learning outcomes. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 20(4)397-418.
- Ning, H., & Hornoby, G. (2014). The impact of cooperative learning on tertiary EFL learners' motivation. *Educational Review*, 66 (1): 108-124.
- Nurchalis, N. F., Selviana, S., & Riza, E. A. (2019). Activating Students to Speak English by Using ELTIS Resource Pack. *Loquen: English Studies Journal*, 12(2), 76-84.
- Odom, S., Glenn, B., Sanner, S., & Cannella. K.A.S. (2009). Group peer review as an active learning strategy in a research course. *International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*. 21 (1) 108-117.

LEARNING AND TEACHING IN HIGHER EDUCATION PERSPECTIVE MODERATION

Muh. Zainal & Hanafi Pelu

Balai Diklat Keagamaan Makassar

Abstract

The purpose of this study is to demonstrate how student learning in higher education is influenced by both formal and informal experiences. Formal learning occurs as a result of a teacher and/or others structuring a classroom or related activity to assist pupils in achieving specific cognitive, or other, objectives. Teaching isn't as vital as learning. If students do not learn as a result of what they are taught, it is pointless to teach. It assists the instructor in determining, evaluating, and refining their educational strategies, as well as in establishing, refining, and clarifying the objectives. The Teaching and Learning Research Initiative aims to improve learner outcomes by strengthening the linkages between educational research and teaching practices. The government established the fund in 2003. Moderation is the process by which teachers share, discuss, and agree on their understanding of the expected levels of student achievement and growth across the curriculum. Moderation is critical for maintaining the integrity of assessment tasks. This method, particularly at the assessment design and point of assessment stages, identifies and improves assessment

validity and reliability difficulties. In other words, moderation is the process through which teachers or students share and grow their understanding of what learning looks like through the examination of samples of various types and levels of student work and their comparison to formal criteria.

Keywords: *learning and teaching, higher education, moderation*

HIGHER EDUCATION

Higher education institutions play a critical role as knowledge creators and disseminators, laying the groundwork for society's advancement and improvement. Despite some higher education systems' long-standing traditions, higher education continues to evolve to meet the difficulties that today's society presents.

Over the last two decades, Indonesia's higher education sector has undergone tremendous transformation. The Asian financial crisis of 1997, the overthrow of the Suharto dictatorship in 1998, and the quick development of globalization have all been key influences in the restructuring of higher education. This reform has improved the financial and managerial autonomy of public universities, which is significant, (Jenny Ngo and Lynn Meek, 2019).

The Indonesian government devotes 20% of the country's national budget to education. Although the amount of money devoted to higher education has increased in recent years, the OECD noted in 2015 (p. 205), "the share spent on tertiary education from the overall budget for education has decreased from 50.48 percent in 2013 to 48.97 percent in 2014." According to the Ministry of Research, Technology, and Higher Education's 2017 annual report, the 2018 budget

allocation grew to IDR 41.27 trillion from IDR 39.73 trillion in 2017.

The government only provides a minor subsidy to private HEIs. They rely mainly on student tuition fees, which can be up to five times greater than those paid by students at public universities. Private HEIs are relatively self-contained by the government. They are in charge of their resources and personnel appointments, including the selection of their rectors. There are, however, some rules that apply to them. The Directorate General of Higher Education (DGHE) is responsible for ensuring compliance with these laws by private HEIs through its 14 provincial Offices for the Coordination of Private HEIs. Institutional admission tests are used by private HEIs to recruit potential students. Many private HEIs are not extremely tough in terms of entrance requirements to maximize recruiting.

Since 1975, the government has regularly released Higher Education Long Term Strategies (HELTS) for up to ten years, (Education, 2010). The Government proposed a new vision for higher education in HELTS III, which covered the years 1996-2003, described by (Fahmi, 2007), as part of an effort to build a “new paradigm in higher education management, demanding advances in quality and relevance, as well as geographic and socioeconomic equality”. Quality, autonomy, accountability, accreditation, and evaluation were among the five pillars of this new paradigm, (Education D. G., 2003). The Asian financial crisis of 1997, and subsequently political upheaval following the fall of the Suharto regime in 1998, hampered the efficient implementation of HELTS III. Universities were allowed to define their function in society more or less on their own in these conditions, and a typically centralized approach to governing public HEIs became increasingly outmoded, (Ngo, 2013). Higher education’s new strategic challenges have been

institutional autonomy, accountability, and transparency, (Rosser, 2016).

In sum, higher education institutions, most notably universities, provide three functions. These include, in addition to education, research, and contribution to society. The functions of research and education are complementary; research enables higher levels of education, while education, in turn, produces the human resources needed to do research. Higher education institutions have recently been asked to make more societal contributions. This means that higher education institutions must take steps to ensure that collected knowledge is returned to society and that they do not become “ivory towers”, (Kemendikbud, 2003).

LEARNING

Learning is the process by which people gain a wide range of skills, abilities, and attitudes. From infancy, when a baby learns a few basic abilities, to adulthood, when an individual is expected to have mastered certain work responsibilities and other functional skills. Human competencies can be gained in a variety of formal and informal contexts, ranging from the constraints of a school classroom to the wide-open spaces of the countryside or a quiet nook where a chance encounter led to a deeper grasp of some issue or another. Learning is not solely the domain of educational institutions. Learning begins long before school, continues considerably longer after school, and occurs swiftly and concurrently with school in a wide variety of ways and locations. Learning takes place in a variety of ways, as defined and explained by a variety of interested scholars and opinion-makers over the years.

(Bell-Gredler, and Margaret E., 1986), stated that the ability to learn is a distinguishing feature of humans that

sets them apart from other species. It has advantages for both individuals and society. Individuals' ability to learn new things helps to the development of a wide range of lifestyles. Learning is important for society because it allows the culture's collected knowledge to be passed along to new generations. It enables fresh discoveries and treatments that build on previous achievements.

Learning is a difficult notion and action to grasp. In addition to the cognitive components of learning, reasoning, and problem-solving, most teachers and students understand the importance of social and emotional aspects of learning. But exactly, what is learning? Is it a deliberate or unintentional action? What role do notions like learning styles, learning techniques, and self-regulated learning play in this? Some of these ideas may be familiar to you, while others may be unfamiliar. They will all be useful to professionals and students in the classroom.

In the English Dictionary as proposed by (Hilgard, G.H. & Bower, H.R., 1981), in Fudyartanto, 2002), The etymological definition of learning is: 1) to gain knowledge, comprehension, or mastery of a subject via experience or study, 2) to fix in the mind or memory, memorize; 3) to acquire a subject through experience, and 4) to change from being informed to discovering. Learning, by definition, means to gain knowledge or to have gained knowledge by experience, recall, master the experience, and obtain information or find information.

(Weinstein, C.E., Husman, J. and Dieking, D.R., 2000), states that "Learning occurs when an individual's knowledge or behavior changes in a relatively permanent way as a result of their experiences. Changes that occur as a result of learning might be purposeful or unintentional and can lead to better or worse outcomes. The experiences gained from interacting with the surrounding environment impact the

quality of one's learning. Learning can sometimes result in a simple change, but it can also result in complicated alterations.

According to (Pritchard, 2009), It is feasible to find a variety of definitions of the learning process without seeking too hard or going too deeply into learned sources. In common words, learning is thought to be the process of getting more knowledge or learning how to do something, such as riding a bike. As we will see, persons who have spent time exploring and experimenting in the field have diverse perspectives on learning, depending on the context of their work and other factors at the time. We'll examine the work of both behaviorist and cognitive psychologists, examining the very different approaches each takes and the very different descriptions each might offer of a process that comes very readily to most of us. For people who plan to construct activities that have the potential to contribute to successful learning taking place in classrooms, such as teachers, a fundamental understanding of learning processes is required.

According to some definitions of learning put forward by experts. There are some characteristics of learning, (Wahyuni, E.N. & Baharuddin, 2015), namely;

1. Learning is marked by a shift in behavior (change behavior). This means that the learning effects can only be seen as a change in behavior, such as from not knowing to know, from unskilled to skilled, and so on;
2. Relatively permanent behavior changes, which indicates that behavioral changes that happened as a result of learning over some time will be fixed or not modified;
3. Although behavioral changes cannot be detected immediately while the learning process is in progress, these behavioral changes are possible;
4. Practice or experience leads to a change in behavior;

5. Any prior experience or instruction can serve as a source of reinforcement. Something that bolsters one's morale or motivates one to modify one's habits.

TEACHING

The interaction between the teacher and the pupils is at the heart of teaching. Some experts have provided several definitions, those are from Bennion (2015) in (Almasi, M., Machumu, H., & Zhu, C, 2017), which stated that Teaching is the process of educating a person through the construction of habits, the acquisition of knowledge, the installation of ideals, and the establishment of long-term interests. According to Edmund Amidon (1967) cited in (Bezhovski, 2016), has defined Teaching as an interactive process, primarily involving classroom talk between teacher and students, which takes place during defined activities.

According to (Brown, 2004), Teaching is defined as demonstrating or assisting someone in learning how to do something, providing instructions, directing in the study of anything, supplying knowledge, or causing someone to know or understand something. According to (A.B. Nilsen, & G. Albertalli, 2002), in its broadest meaning, teaching is the process through which a teacher leads a student or a group of students to a greater level of knowledge or skill. (Schlechy, 2004), defines teaching as the art of persuading students to behave in ways that are thought to lead to learning, including the endeavor to persuade students to behave in such a way. What Schlechy teaches is referred to as an "art" because it requires the teacher to create settings that encourage learning and then motivate students to be interested in what is being taught to them.

(Smith, 2004), sees teaching as the process of carrying out activities that experience has shown to be effective in

getting students to learn. He goes on to say that teaching is that which results in learning—learning is the responsibility of the teacher and that if students do not learn, it is the fault of the teacher. He capped his statements on teaching by stating that teaching is undertaking certain ethical tasks or activities, the intention of which is to induce learning. Confucius cited in (M. Knott, & P. Mutunga, B., Matiru, A Mwangi, & R. Schlette (Eds.), 1993), said: “in his teaching, the wise man guides his students but does not pull them along; he urges them to go forward and does not suppress them; he opens the way but does not take them to the place If his students are encouraged to think for themselves, we may call the man a good teacher”. Based on the definitions above, it can be concluded that; Teaching is the process of assisting pupils in gaining or acquiring knowledge through the use of a learning activity that is guided by a teacher.

MODERATION

Moderation is defined as an engagement technique in which members of the teaching team build shared knowledge of assessment needs, standards, and evidence that demonstrates varying levels of performance quality. Its goal is to ensure that assessment processes are equitable, fair, and valid and that judgments are consistent, trustworthy, and based on evidence within the task answer. In most cases, university-wide regulations and practices govern the moderation process in higher education. This takes the shape of an established practice of external and internal moderation that is part of the quality management process in the United Kingdom and New Zealand, for example, (Zealand, 2011). In Australia, the process has traditionally been housed within individual institutions, with the use of external experts only when necessary. External moderation

incorporates expert judgments to assure consistency with national standards across higher degree institutions, whereas internal moderation supports uniformity of judgments and standards within an institution. Moderation has long been a feature of civilization's history and the traditions of all religions around the world. All faiths' teachings tend to point to one single point as the most ideal vision of religion: taking the middle road between two extreme poles without exaggerating.

In broad terms, as (Schwedler, J., & Schwedler, J. M., 2006) asserts, "Moderation is a process, not a category, that comprises change that can be described as a progression from radical to moderate. Liberal conceptions of individual rights and democratic notions of tolerance, plurality, and cooperation are implicitly (and sometimes expressly) linked to moderation. Actors must become more open to the notion that alternative perspectives are genuine, even if not equally so, to become more moderate, according to the research. However, mere participation in elections or democratic processes, which may appear to indicate an embrace of liberal and democratic governance norms, is insufficient as a sign of moderation; participation is a type of political behavior that a group may adopt for purely strategic reasons while harboring a more radical political agenda. Scholarly models propose some methods for determining when moderation has occurred and identifying the mechanisms that cause it. He avoids using the term moderation to describe a shift in attitudes toward democracy and instead uses the term de-radicalization to describe the process of giving up militancy.

Kamali (2015) emphasized that the notion of balance and fairness in the concept of moderation (*wasathiyah*) means that when practicing religion, one should not be radical in their viewpoints, but should always seek common

ground. For Kamali, *wasathiyah* is a vital part of Islam that Muslims frequently overlook, even though it is the essence of Islamic beliefs.

Scholars have differentiated between behavioral and ideological moderation to reflect this gap between real and dishonest moderation, suggesting that both behavior and values must alter before a group can be deemed truly moderate. The idea of behavioral moderation is apparent, but ideological moderation is a little more difficult to grasp. Ideological moderation, according to Wickham, is the “abandonment, deferral, or revision of radical aims that allows an opposition movement to fit itself to the give and take of “normal” competitive politics.” Similarly, (Islam, T., & Khatun, A., 2015), see ‘Political actors promote beliefs that do not contradict the values of popular sovereignty, political pluralism, and restrictions on arbitrary governmental authority,’ according to ideological moderation.

LEARNING AND TEACHING IN HIGHER EDUCATION PERSPECTIVE MODERATION

Moderation is the process by which teachers share, discuss, and agree on their understanding of the expected levels of student achievement and growth across the curriculum. Moderation is critical for maintaining the integrity of assessment tasks. This method, particularly at the assessment design and point of assessment stages, identifies and improves assessment validity and reliability difficulties. In other words, moderation is the process through which teachers or students share and grow their understanding of what learning looks like through the examination of samples of various types and levels of student work and their comparison to formal criteria.

When teachers combine the culture of the students' society as well as indigenous wisdom, such as the students' religion's principles, English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) instruction becomes more meaningful. Teachers could, for example, improve student motivation by using a real-world example and integrating information about the student's social and cultural backgrounds. As a result, the instructor will be able to combine the teaching and learning process with the students' Islamic beliefs. Teachers of English at the school should be able to teach and learn English while keeping Islamic values in mind. As a result, they feature a learning method, in which teachers regulate the teaching and learning process, (Hanafie Pelu, Murni Mahmud, Sahril Nur, Kisman Salija, 2021).

Instilling Islamic moderation values should occur not only through religious subjects, but also through general subjects such as Maths, Biology, English, and so on, because students, as the next generation, are responsible for the nation's survival, and should be provided with Islamic moderation values at an early age. (Irveanty, 2013), stated that Students might apply the ideals of Islamic character in daily life if Islamic character values were integrated into every topic in school, particularly in English classes. It is not difficult to include the Islamic ideal of moderation in the teaching and learning process. The teacher has the option of using a variety of instructional strategies to cover classroom activities that require collaboration.

Understanding the moderation process and how it might be used in the classroom is crucial for improving student learning outcomes. Teachers can utilize moderation to build and implement a consistent and precise assessment language that can be used by teachers, students, and families to define and discuss student learning, (Education O. M., 2007). Moderation is the process through which

teachers or students share and improve their understanding of what constitutes learning by assessing and comparing samples of various types and quality of students' work to defined standards and success criteria, (Bini, 2019). The technique gives teachers and students the structure and processes they need to carefully examine data (student work samples) to identify what should be learned, how learning should continue, and what should be learned next. The Victorian Curriculum F-10 Achievement Standards can be interpreted in a variety of ways, thanks to moderation, (Bini, 2019; Victorian Curriculum and Assessment Authority, 2002), what students need to learn to meet the standards, and what success looks like.

Moderation is a type of evaluation, but it's also a technique for enhancing other types of evaluation. It creates a structure and approach for teaching teams, teachers, classes, and individual students to gain a common and comprehensive understanding of learning objectives, success criteria, and the curricular standards that are used to assess students. Teacher moderation is a process in which a group of teachers, usually from different year levels and with diverse degrees of experience, convene to evaluate student work samples that are matched with the Victorian Curriculum's Achievement Standards, (Bini, 2019; Victorian Curriculum and Assessment Authority, 2002).

Student moderation is a strategy for embedding learning objectives and empowering students to define their success. This can be done through the assessment of (anonymized) student work samples, the use of rubrics for self- or peer assessment, or the collaborative design of learning objectives. Both moderation and data walls allow robust debate on evidence of student learning, therefore they can be utilized together. The establishment of successful learning and classroom practices is aided by both

moderation and data barriers. Moderation also aids in the development of collective efficacy, or instructors' collective power to improve student learning results, (Heineke, A. J., & McTighe, J., 2018).

When moderation is incorporated into the overall school planning process, consistent teacher judgments, reliable reporting of results, and effective evidence of student learning are all possible. In diagnostic evaluations, moderation can also be used. Additionally, before the start of a unit of work, a rubric created during the moderation process might be used to obtain information on student comprehension. As part of a moderation conversation within a teaching team, a teacher can collect evidence of students' current accomplishment levels and compare them to the rubric. The teaching team can then assess what students are willing to learn and collaborate on how to set learning objectives, choose an instructional emphasis, and choose effective strategies for each learning area. Students can learn critical self-regulation and metacognitive skills including self-reflection, self-questioning, and critical inquiry through moderation. Moderation can be used by students to set personal and group goals. Teachers should, for example, encourage students to use self-questioning to reflect on class success criteria, self-evaluate, and define their objectives. Teachers then led a group discussion in which students are encouraged to probe others' thoughts, practice critical listening skills, and come to an agreement on what they want to learn more about to assure comprehension. For example, a teacher could have students review the evaluation criteria and standards connected with a unit of work, then analyze and grade the samples using anonymous work examples from another class. To keep track of their progress, as well. For example, a teacher can provide students a copy of a formative assessment rubric with examples of stages on a

learning continuum and ask them to match these phases to their learning objectives. Even toddlers can use a range of metacognitive processes to set goals and assess their understanding. Twelve students with good self-control can reflect on their information, make objectives, and plan for progressively difficult learning assignments, practices that enable them to notice and direct their learning as well as teach others, (Frey, 2018).

REFERENCES

- Nilsen, A.B. & G. Albertalli. (2002). *Introduction to Learning and Teaching Infants Through Elementary Age Children*. New York: Delmar.
- Almasi, M., Machumu, H., & Zhu, C. (2017). Internet use among secondary schools students and its effects on their learning. *INSTEAD*, 2379–2390.
- Bell-Gredler, and Margaret E. (1986). *Learning and Instruction: Theory and Practice*. New York: Macmillan Publishing.
- Bezhovski, Z. &. (2016). The Evolution of E-Learning and New Trends. *Information and Knowledge Management*, 50-57.
- Bini, M. (2019). The Victorian Curriculum: F-10 capabilities. *Synergy*, 17.
- Brown, H. D. (2004). *Teaching by Principles an Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy Second Edition*. New York: Pearson Education Company.
- Education, D. G. (2003). *Higher Education Long Term Strategy 2003- 2010 (HELTS IV)*. Jakarta: the DGHE, Ministry of National Higher Education.
- Education, M. o. (2010). *Directorate General of Higher Education (DGHE). (2003). Higher Education Long Term Strategy 2003- 2010 (HELTS IV)*. Jakarta: DGHE, Ministry of National Higher Education.

- Education, O. M. (2007). *Teacher moderation: Collaborative assessment of student work*. Maschauttes: Ontarion.
- Fahmi. (2007). *Indonesian Higher Education: The Chronicle, Recent Development, and The New Legal Entity Universities*. Department of Economics. Bandung: Padjadjaran University, Working Papers in Economics and Development Studies (WoPEDS).
- Frey, N. H. (2018). *Developing assessment-capable visible learners, grades K-12: Maximizing Skill, will, and thrill*. England: Corwin Press.
- Hanafie Pelu, Murni Mahmud, Sahril Nur, Kisman Salija. (2021). Models of Moderation-based Instructions in Teaching ENGLISH at Islamic Senior High Schools in Makassar. *Penguatan Riset, Inovasi, dan Kreativitas*, 954-965.
- Heineke, A. J., & McTighe, J. (2018). Using Understanding by Design in the Culturally. *Jeineke*, 79.
- Hilgard, G.H. & Bower, H.R. (1981). *Theories of Learning*. New York: Prentice-Hall.
- Irveanty, M. (2013). *Integrasi Nilai-Nilai Karakter Islami dalam Pembelajaran Bahasa Inggris di SMAN Banjarbaru*. Pascasarjana. Banjarbaru: Pascasarjana.
- Islam, T., & Khatun, A. (2015). "Islamic Moderation" in Perspectives: A Comparison Between Oriental and Occidental Scholarships. *International Journal of Nusantara Islam*, 69-78.
- Jenny Ngo and Lynn Meek. (2019). Higher Education Governance and Reforms in Indonesia: Are the Matrices of Autonomy Appropriate? *Journal of International and Comparative Education*, 2019, Volume 8, Issue 1, 20-25.
- Kamali, M. H. (2015). *The Middle Path of Moderation in Islam: The Qur'anic Principle of Wasatiyyah*. England: Oxford University Press.

- Kemendikbud. (2003). *Approaches for Systematic Planning of Development Projects/Higher Education*. Jakarta: JICA/IFIC.
- M. Knott, & P. Mutunga, B., Matiru, A. Mwangi, & R. Schlette (Eds.). (1993). *M. Knott, & P. Mutunga, "Methods of teaching and learning". In B., Matiru, A Mwangi, & R. Schlette (Eds.), Teach your best: A handbook for University lecturers: University of Kassel. Germany: Press, Kassel.*
- Ngo. (2013). *Lions or Lambs? How Deans Lead and Manage their Faculties at Indonesian Universities*. Enschede: Universiteit Twente.
- Pritchard, A. (2009). *Ways of Learning: Learning Theories and Learning Styles in the Classroom*. New York: Routledge.
- Rosser. (2016). Neo-liberalism and the politics of higher education policy in Indonesia. *Comparative Education*, 109-135.
- Schlechy. (2004). *The Art of Teaching*. New York: Prentice Hall Inc.
- Schwedler, J., & Schwedler, J. M. (2006). *Faith in Moderation: Islamist Parties in Jordan and Yemen*. Yaman: Cambridge University Press.
- Smith. (2004). *Educational Development in Ghana*. Accra: Unimax Publishers.
- Wahyuni, E.N. & Baharuddin. (2015). *Teori-Teori Belajar dan Pembelajaran*. Yogyakarta: Aruzz Media.
- Weinstein, C.E., Husman, J. and Dieking, D.R. (2000). Self-regulation interventions with a focus on learning strategies, in M. Bokaerts (ed.) *Handbook of Self-regulation*. New York: Academic Press.
- Zealand, N. (2011). *National External Moderation Manual for Tertiary Education Organizations: 2011 TEO Manual*. New Zealand: Qualifications Authority.

CONTENT-BASED LANGUAGE TEACHING FOR ESP COURSES IN INDONESIAN HIGHER EDUCATION

Muliati

Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris, Universitas Bosowa

St. Asriati. Am

Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris,
Universitas Muhammadiyah Makassar

Abstract

ESP is a compulsory course at universities in non-English study programs. Learning ESP means learning English with specific content or specialized topics. Therefore, lecturers need to apply an approach that helps students develop English language skills with specific vocabulary or content. This paper discusses the application of content-based language teaching as an approach that lecturers applied in teaching ESP. The purpose of this paper is to describe the definition of CBLT, models of CBLT, and the benefits of applying CBLT in learning ESP courses. The method of this study is reviewing data sourced from the literature that relates to the application of CBLT in ESP courses in universities. The findings reveal that the implementation of CBLT had a beneficial impact on lecturers and students. Lecturers can apply ESP learning related to

the study program. Lecturers provide opportunities for students to know more vocabulary terms related to students' study programs. Meanwhile, students can develop their knowledge and skills in English, especially the ability to speak English with certain topics. Also, students are motivated to learn ESP by implementing CBLT. Therefore, the application of CBLT in ESP is highly recommended as an approach that assists in ESP learning.

Keywords: CBLT, ESP, Model of CBLT, Benefits

INTRODUCTION

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) arose as a term in the 1960s as it became more and more aware that general English courses did not meet learners' needs (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). As English continues to dominate as the lingua franca of technology, business, media, education, law, etc., the need for ESP is increasing rapidly, particularly in Asia countries where English is mainly used for active purposes (Pranckevičiūtė & Zajankauskaite, 2012; Agustina, 2010). As a result of these developments, and growing research in educational psychology, tailoring ESP courses according to learner needs historically played a pivotal role in both the design and teaching of ESP (Strevens, 1988; Dudley-Evans, 2000; Lockwood, 2012).

For the last decade, there have been limited reports in Indonesia evaluating the implementation of content in teaching ESP in higher education in Indonesia. Most presented about the communication ability in ESP teaching, for instance, the student's ability in communicating by using specific English. Students should learn English based on their needs to learn English. This is because having specific English will guarantee to find a job in the future time

(Bhatia, 2008). In the Indonesian context, students need to consider learning English to accomplish the education curriculum requirement, and to attain promotional or professional development at work (Poedjiastutie et al., 2018; Darsih, 2014; Nur & Madkur, 2014). But instead of learning English for such purposes, Therefore, preparing students for active learners and engagement through the practice of developing critical thinking skills should be considered.

However, the consequences of the CBLT in ESP courses are not well understood. In an educational context, both teachers and students can be intellectual curiosity and critical orientation because designing a curriculum or syllabus is a guiding principle that matters in teaching and learning language (Jalilzadeh & Tahmasebi, 2014; Cotterall, 2000; Christison & Murray, 2014). In this case, there is no reason for ESP lecturers to not design around such principles and the student's needs. ESP lecturers assist students in contexts where they have to think deeply about complex topics while developing proficiency in the target language (Ali, 2015)

To better understand the consequences of CBLT in ESP courses, studies across different approach losses are required. Such a CBLT is needed for a recommendation for ESP courses. ESP lecturers should favor a focus on themes that are deeply connected to authentic life concerns and can impact students' lives and those of others, such as themes linked to their disciplines (Paltridge & Starfield, 2016). Thus, adopting inquiry as a core driving principle for developing curricula is a strategy to motivate students in their language learning (Cammarata, 2016; Bernaus et al., 2009; Clément et al., 1994). In other words, the use of specific themes in teaching ESP helps ESP lectures take a much more important role in the overall intellectual development of students. In line with content, learning a language based on

content assists ESP students to develop self-consciousness as well as create their creations which can be flexible and critical thinking (Filipović, 2018) such as research that explores the capability of speaking the English language.

In relation to ESP courses, CBLT, is one of the topics at the center of debate today in both academic and institutional policy contexts in the hope of discovering effective teaching methods and approaches to content and language learning. Thus, teachers have learning preferences that are applied to their teaching methods. One of the choices for the majority of students within CBLT provides for a strict link between language and content. Lightbown (2014b) refers to CBLT as an approach rather than a methodology, also emphasizing that, since the content is learned in full, the teacher in charge (if it is a subject-matter course) needs to focus on language; otherwise, there will be a separation of language and content that will lead to continual errors being made by and reinforced in the students.

From these studies, it shows that none of the studies investigating CBLT in ESP courses in Indonesian higher education focuses on three models of CBLT, namely theme-based language teaching, sheltered language teaching, and adjunct language teaching (Brinton, 2013). CBLT in ESP courses is a consideration for both ESP lecturers and ESP students to achieve the goal of teaching and learning process in ESP courses. The model of CBLT will affect teachers more effectively in ESP teaching. Lecturers in higher education can consider the varieties of content in teaching ESP courses. Also, the model CBLT will guide lecturers to be creative and innovative in designing the syllabus, classroom activities, and content based on students' needs and students' disciplines.

Concerning the importance of considering content in teaching ESP, and more high education in Indonesia are

offering ESP courses to meet students' future career needs (Agustina & Cahyono, 2017) as well as offering ESP courses for all faculties at the university (Hossain, 2013). Robinson (1989) described ESP as a type of English language teaching and defines it as goal-oriented language learning implying that the students have a specific goal that is going to be accomplished. Indeed, those specific goals are closely linked with students' interest in various disciplines, or faculties they are enrolled in (Gestanti et al., 2019). Students study English for a specific purpose, which corresponds to their subject matter, to gain and develop certain knowledge and skills through English (Xhaferi & Xhaferi, 2011).

THEORIES OF CBLT

CBLT comes in many different shapes and sizes and fact is called by other names and acronyms, including Content-Based Approach (CBA), Content-Based Instruction (CBI), Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) whether called CBLT, CBA, CBI, CLIL, a range of instructional initiatives can be identified along a continuum with language-driven programs at one end and content-driven programs at the other end (Allen et al.1990). First, CBLT comes from North America, CBI is an instructional and curricular approach specifically designed to embed language instruction in the context of content that is meaningful to learners. It has also been called Content-Based Language Teaching (Lightbown, 2014b; Simbolon, 2018; Leis, 2017; Creese, 2005b). A similar approach to language instruction, CLIL emerged in Europe in the 1990s and has been increasingly adopted in other parts of the world. The term of CBLT because of its North American roots and because it remains one of the most widely recognized labels associated

with language instruction that embeds a focus on meaningful content.

According to Brinton (2013), ESP course developers may choose to use a Content-Based Instruction (CBLT at present) syllabus as an organizing principle. Although there is no single most appropriate approach to teaching English as Foreign Language, there are a few methods identified in previous research on CBLT that are suitable for teaching EFL. In CBLT the focus is on the content and the students are only concerned with mere information or the subject matter (Akomaning, 2019). Students are not only concerned about the language but also the content (Peng, 2017). Moreover, Tseng (2015a) claimed that CBLT in the EFL context is feasible and can work effectively in promoting both content and language learning with deliberate implementation.

The theories of CBLT are based on research conducted in epistemology. CBLT is an approach in which the target language is large as the vehicle through which subject matter content is learned rather than as the immediate object of study (Brinton et al., 1989). According to Krulatz (2019), integrating content and language has many benefits for students. Learning becomes more relevant and cognitively demanding, which leads to increased learner motivation. Hernandez (2012) states that teachers should start to implement a different methodology in which not only language itself is important, but also the development of interesting topics and content to involve and motivate students' learning and understanding of the new language.

Research has indicated that the earliest theory supporting language learning in the CBLT was based on Krashen's (1981) claims that the necessary and sufficient condition for the second language (L2) acquisition was comprehensible input targeted to a language level slightly

beyond the student's current level of language knowledge. His claim assured instructors that students, in their role as input processors, attended to input subconsciously, integrating new language data from the input into existing interlanguage forms and syntactic structures. For example, studies of immersion education in Canada showed theoretical content-based Instruction, such as extensive research in Canadian immersion classrooms. However, Swain and her colleagues argued that the provision of comprehensible input alone did not produce what was intended by the theory (Swain & Lapkin, 1989). For instance, listening comprehension exceeded their non-immersion counterparts, immersion students' productive abilities in oral interpersonal communication and written literacy were not advancing as predicted by the theory (Lyster, 2007).

CBLT involves the concurrent and balanced teaching of both language and content, and therefore language in CBLT in the classroom serves both as the subject that language offers meaning and object (Allen et al., 1990). In other words, teachers need to integrate a focus on meaning and form in the classroom. CBLT can be at once a philosophical orientation, a methodological system, a syllabus design for a single course, or a framework for an entire program of instruction (Lyster & Ballinger, 2011). CBLT implies the total integration of language learning and content learning. It represents a significant departure from traditional foreign language teaching methods in that language proficiency is achieved by shifting the focus of instruction from the learning of language through the study of subject matter (Hernandez, 2012).

MODEL OF CBLT

This section discusses the CBLT model as a review of the literature in this research. The different goals of ESP teaching and General English (GE) can be seen in the implementation of the CBLT Model. These three models of CBLT are known as follows;

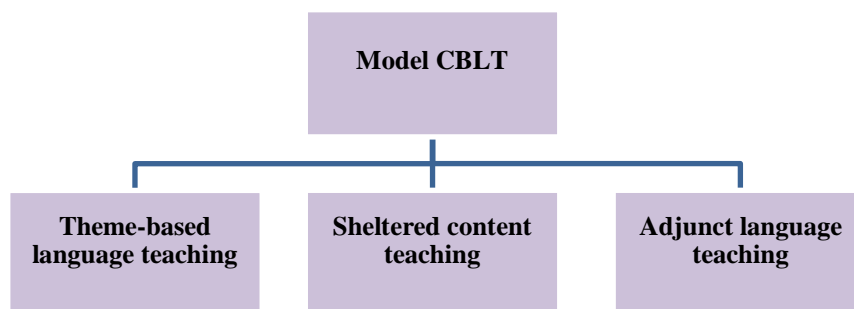


Figure 1. Model of CBLT (Brinton, 2013)

The models of CBLT vary in design and implementation based on such factors as setting, level, and the nature of teaching. Some models are utilized in foreign language situations while others are used in second language environments. Some models have proved successful at the elementary school level whereas some have demonstrated their effectiveness at secondary or post-secondary levels. And finally, some models emphasize the content but, in some models, more emphasis is put on language (Duenas, 2004). As Brinton et al. (1989) argued CBLT aims at eliminating the artificial separation between language teaching and subject matter classes which exist in most educational settings (p. 2). In line with the purposes of the study, three general models of CBLT, namely, theme-based language instruction, sheltered content instruction, and adjunct language instruction will be introduced (Brinton, 2013).

Three models of CBLT are going to elaborate, as follows;

a. Theme-Based Language Teaching

Themes of specific interest, relevance, or both to the learner provide the organizing principle for the course. The theme of each unit serves to contextualize the new language that is presented and provides the point of departure for skill and language-based instruction and practice. Typically, a theme extends over several days or even weeks, providing rich linguistic input and creating the necessary conditions for learners to acquire a new language (Brinton, 2013). Moreover, Arslan and Saka (2010) stated that the theme-based model of CBLT can teach academic English language skills. They reported that students needed to learn English for academic reasons to pursue future courses taught in English. For example, those students who studied science-related thematic units argued that their motivation to learn English increased as they were able to improve their academic language skills through the content they received and the activities they were involved in. It seems that the theme-based model of CBLT can meet language needs since such a practice involves learners in science English, equipping them with necessary academic language skills.

Theme-based language instruction (the concern of this study): In this model, which is also called theme-based or content-infused language instruction, the course is taught by a language instructor and “is structured around topics or themes, with the topics forming the backbone of the course curriculum” (Brinton et al., 2003, p.14). As Stephen and Leaver (1997) asserted that “theme-based approaches,” which have existed for a long time in foreign language education, are often supplementary activities that interrupt the systematic study of grammar with readings and activities on topics such as food, music, dating, and the family. In CBLT, these kinds of themes often take on a central role in

the curriculum (Arslan & Saka, 2010; Akomaning, 2019). The content modules described by several of the contributors are, in a sense, expansions of the theme-based concept, but in these cases, the entire course is designed around an in-depth study of topics such as a country's economy, political system, family structure, or the role of women in the society. Instead of being a course based on the study of grammar, the study of grammar in these courses becomes linked to, defined by, and dependent upon the topics (Stephen & Leaver, 1997).

b. Sheltered Content Teaching

The number of limited English proficient students because students have limited skills in English. Freeman & Freeman (1988) in his research in U.S. schools has one type of instructional approach that offers promise in helping LEP students develop academic competence. He decided to develop English proficiency through sheltered English. According to Freeman & Freeman (1988), in sheltered English classes, the variety of teaching methods employed includes (1) extralinguistic cues (visuals, props); (2) linguistic modifications (pauses, repetition); (3) interactive lectures; (4) cooperative learning strategies; (5) focus on central concepts rather than on details; and (6) development of reading strategies (mapping). While sheltered English programs can be either monolingual or bilingual, English instruction is the key element in both.

Teachers for sheltered English programs are drawn from the regular teaching staff, but may also include teachers of English as a Second Language (ESL). Sheltered English programs can contain elements of three other instructional approaches: bilingual education, immersion education, and content-based instruction.

Students for whom the language of instruction is second or additional (L2) are separated or sheltered from their first language (L1) peers for content area teaching (Brinton, 2013). Huang & Chuang (2016) studied CBLT to promote the reading abilities of English majors at a technology university in Taiwan. This course dealt with multiple situations: multi-approaches (CBLT and task-based teaching); multi-skills (flash animation software skills–various animation effects; language skills–computer vocabulary and reading comprehension); multi-level learners (various English language proficiency levels–mostly low proficiency level; computer abilities; learning styles), and a large class taught by one instructor. In most versions of this model, the content instructors who teach the sheltered section of the course receive specialized training in techniques to help students access the content material and to provide a nurturing atmosphere for the learning of both language and content.

In theory, students' exposure to the rich academic language and complex concepts presented in the sheltered class provides the necessary conditions for L2 acquisition to occur (Brinton, 2013). Sheltered content teaching: through this model, the teaching is implemented by a content expert who is a native speaker of the target language. In other words, it is defined as “content courses taught in the second language to a group of learners by a content area expert, such as a university professor who is a native speaker of the target language” (Brinton et al., 2003, p.5). For instance, the term “sheltered content,” once an erudite term used in second language acquisition, has become a mantra in many public-school systems in the United States (especially in California) that encompasses specially designed math, science, history, English, and social studies courses for K-12 second language learners. In a sheltered class, the teacher

uses special methods and techniques to “shelter subject matter,” such as making the content more accessible to second language learners. In this general sense, all the authors in this volume use sheltered methods and techniques in their foreign language classrooms. Just as sheltered content approaches can make connections that stimulate students’ interest, adjunct courses can enhance students’ self-confidence with a feeling of using the new language to accomplish real tasks. Therefore, the term sheltered content teaching has become a widely used metaphor representing a common pedagogical intervention intended to help English language learners simultaneously gain English proficiency and academic content knowledge (Fritzen, 2011).

c. Adjunct Language Teaching

One or more content area courses are paired with a language course. At the outset of the course, as well as on an ongoing basis, the instructors negotiate their syllabuses to coordinate their instructional objectives (Brinton, 2013). Typically, the objectives of the language course are identified concerning students’ linguistic needs in the content course, though adjustments in the content course objectives may also occur. Second language acquisition occurs through students’ exposure to the academically challenging language of the content course and the systematic linguistic guidance provided in the language course (Brinton, 2013).

Adjunct language instruction engages the students to take part in two linked courses, a content course and a language course both of which include the same content in common and complement each other regarding jointly coordinated homework (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 216). Having presented some aspects of CBLT, it seems warranted here to have a close look at the other method of teaching

English employed in this study such as the Grammar Translation (Amiri, 2014). “Adjunct courses” have appeared in many secondary and post-secondary settings as a means of connecting English as a Second Language (ESL) classes, often offered in a language institute on or near campus, to content classes in the regular academic program. Several researchers used a variation of the adjunct model to make connections between the study of a foreign language and the study of a particular subject matter.

For those three models of CBLT, language learning in the communicative environment of the content classroom furthers the goals of language teaching by offering a context for language. It provides language use in the context of communication about the important subject matter. Language learning in the language classroom can further the goals of content teaching by offering learners help with the language of the thinking processes and the structure or shape of content. The CBLT literature, however, does not directly address how to deal with knowledge hierarchies that spring up around language and content (Creese, 2005a).

Three models of CBLT had been implemented in the Indonesian context such as Pipit’s (2018) researched theme model in teaching English through varied fields of study which are based on the CLIL concept. She preferred to use the CLIL for mathematics teachers to intensify their English performance in teaching. The syllabus is an integrated one that combines content and communicative function. closing session. Moreover, Agustina and Cahyono (2017) one of the learning platforms on the Internet is Quipper School, and this platform has been used by EFL teachers in Indonesia.

The results of the study show that the Indonesian EFL teachers used the platform not only for coping with the limited time available for EFL teaching but also due to the significant value of the platform to support the students’ EFL

learning. Furthermore, Faisal (2015) identified teachers into four competencies, namely pedagogical, professional, personal, and social competencies. Those researchers emphasize types of model content-based language teaching which have the language targeted at the end of the teaching process.

BENEFITS OF CBLT

Applying CBLT for teaching ESP courses in the classroom expects ESP students to communicate language well and therefore, it is essential for ESP teachers to combine a communicative approach with CBLT. As Littlewood (1981) pointed out, the communicative approach to language teaching is characterized by systematic attention given to language abilities and structures. Moreover, CBLT helps to guarantee students' constant motivation and interest apart from language knowledge and linguistic abilities developed during the whole process of language learning (Wang & Zhu, 2020). It is expected that when language lecturers choose or develop authentic communicative contexts and encourage students to participate in language activities with active thinking, the goal of teaching will be realized in an active learning atmosphere, and meanwhile, language knowledge and abilities will be naturally acquired during the communicative process.

The importance of considering content in teaching ESP helps students develop competence in academic discourse. The coordination of language and content learning resulting from this approach to CBLT reinforces knowledge structures and teaches related language functions and forms (Tseng, 2015b). CBLT is an approach that is taught through specific content or topics related to students' interests and needs, to motivate and allow students to interact about real-life issues

in the target language (Lyster, 2011). This is supported by Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research which deals with natural language acquisition occurs in context; natural language; meaning, and content-based instruction provide a context for meaningful communication (Met, 1989) and therefore SLA increases with content-based language teaching because students learn language best when there is an emphasis on relevant, meaningful content rather than on the language itself. People do not learn languages and then use them, but learn languages by using them, however, both form and meaning are important and are not readily separable in language learning (Tseng, 2015b). Several researchers have done CBLT in teaching language and formulated benefits of CBLT.

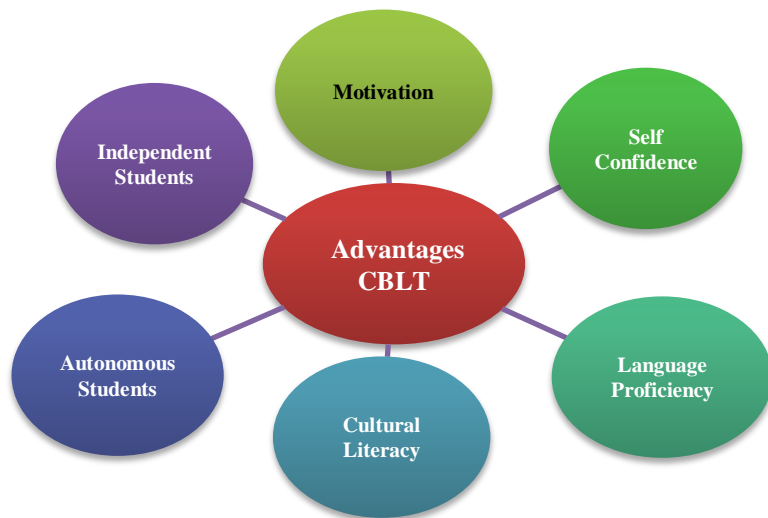


Figure 2. Benefits of CBLT (Stephen, 1997)

Research has indicated that CBLT is an approach in teaching language and it has the most useful for students particularly. This section will elaborate on the advantages of CBLT as follows:

a. Motivation

CBLT has an important role for students who learn EFL/ESL. According to Peng (2017), CBLT benefits students in some elements including the potential to enhance students' motivation, accelerate students' acquisition of language proficiency, broaden cross-cultural knowledge, and make the language learning experience more enjoyable and fulfilling. Furthermore, another aspect to be noted is the course syllabus. As Brown (2007) argued that within the profession of language teaching for specific purposes, language course syllabuses can be more motivating for students when they are closely connected to students' specialty courses. It is a content-centered language teaching method suited to specific learners' needs, increases teaching efficiency, and integrates CBLT in college English courses to improve students' learning needs.

The great majority of the students who experienced CBLT programs commented on their increased motivation to learn the language, as well as their increased appreciation of the culture of the areas they studied. Perhaps the term most used by students was relevance (Stephen & Leaver, 1997). Next, Bernaus et al., (2009) suggest that teacher motivation is related to teacher use of motivating strategies, which in turn are related to student motivation and English Achievement. As Dja'far et al., (2016) also stated that the students' motivation is moderately related to ESP learning achievement for both groups of students and therefore it is recommended teachers apply motivational strategies in ESP classrooms as the strategies bring benefits to the improvement of students' ESP learning achievement. Dja'far et al., (2016) recommended teachers apply motivational strategies in ESP classrooms as the strategies bring benefits to the improvement of students' ESP learning achievement.

b. Self-confidence

By implementing CBLT, students may gain a new interest in English learning for professional or communicating purposes rather than to fulfill a course requirement or pass a course test. Meanwhile, ESP teachers shouldn't neglect the complexity of setting a thorough CBLT college English course system in one particular college with lots of major choices for undergraduates, since for different majors the content of the English courses should differ accordingly.

A good example of the early development of strategic competence is illustrated in the anecdote related by Corin in which a student, after only four weeks of study, answered the telephone speaking in Serbo-Croatian and, without hesitation, successfully transcribed a message from a native speaker calling from Belgrade. Another example, Leis (2017) examined students' self-confidence within flipped learning in CBLT. Leis prefers students with opportunities to discuss cultural differences between the students' home country (i.e., Japan) and other countries. He concluded that the flipped learning method brings benefits for such a course, as students' understanding and preparation can be assisted through the use of videos that provide closed captions and previews of discussion topics to be conducted in the class itself. students' linguistic self-confidence appeared to increase significantly.

c. Language Proficiency

Several of the programs indicate that CBLT can accelerate foreign language proficiency. The example from Stryker observation that when the Spanish Section introduced CBI at the end of its twenty-four-week basic course, statistical results showed average increases in speaking and reading scores that were significantly higher

than the norms for Spanish training (Leaver & Stryker, 1989).

According to Arnó-Macià and Mancho-Barés (2015), content and language programs can improve students' language proficiency in English, this is the importance of language learning and the implications in ESP teaching. The benefit of language proficiency, lecturer and student perspectives provide useful insights for action that can be taken by ESP course designers to adapt courses to make them more relevant to students' discipline-related needs.

d. Cultural Literacy

CBLT curriculum should be subject-matter based, using authentic language and texts and meeting the needs of particular units of students. In this case, the subjects, topics, content, materials, and teaching activities should meet the linguistic, cognitive, and communicative needs of the students and should be appropriate to their professional needs and personal interests (Stephen & Leaver, 1997). The outcomes of cultural literacy suggest that a CBLT curriculum, when focused strongly on sociopolitical and cultural information and cross-cultural literacy skills, can provide students with a significant short-cut to cultural literacy that might normally take months or even years of living in-country to achieve (Stephen & Leaver, 1997).

e. Autonomous Students

Many of today's foreign language teachers, certainly those of us who are proponents of CBLT see our central role not as deliverers of linguistic knowledge but as facilitators of communicative competence in learners. This "new goal" is to empower students to become autonomous learners. This situation is effective for students' needs and motivations, helps students to understand their learning process, and

allows them to take charge of their learning. It is argued that CBLT is more than a method that has roles and goals. Additionally, CBLT offers an opportunity to incorporate into one curriculum design all of the characteristics of the new paradigm for communicative language learning, while stressing the important role of foreign language in a shrinking global community (Stephen & Leaver, 1997).

Autonomy is also present Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) in Okay & Balçıkanlı (2017, p.11) point out that ‘ten commandments for motivating language learners: 1). Set a personal example with your behavior. 2). Develop a good relationship with the learners. 3). Increase the learners’ linguistic self-confidence. 4). Make the language classes interesting. 5). Promote learner autonomy. 6). Personalize the learning process. 7). Increase the learners’ goal-orientedness. 8). Familiarize learners with the target culture. 9). Create a pleasant relaxed atmosphere in the classroom. 10). Present the tasks properly.

The fact that autonomy is regarded as a commandment of motivation also supports the assumption that autonomy comes before motivation.

f. Independent Students

CBLT offers to students more independent students. It helps students develop valuable study skills such as note-taking, summarizing, and extracting key information from texts. As Villalobos (2014) states that one of the main characteristics of the CBI classroom is that it is learner-centered, not teacher-centered. Students do not depend on the teacher to control the learning experience. Students play a more active role in the CBI classroom, creating and participating actively in the construction of knowledge. Peer correction and peer input are also significant in this approach.

CONCLUSION

It is undeniable that the implementation of CBLT is very helpful in ESP learning. Lecturers can design teaching materials by adjusting the content or topics in the student's discipline. Lecturers prepare materials or topics according to the needs of students learning ESP courses. The implementation of CBLT plays an important role in improving students' college, especially in ESP courses. Students can improve their English skills on certain topics or special topics. Students have the opportunity to develop skills in English such as the ability to communicate in general or to communicate in their discipline. For example, vocabulary terms related to the law mean that students have legal terms. The writers conclude that the implementation of the CBLT approach is a solution offered for lecturers to meet the needs of students in learning English. It can be recommended by lecturers who teach ESP courses to consider emphasizing content that is following the student's discipline or student needs which is the reason for learning ESP courses.

REFERENCES

- Agustina, At. (2010). ESP; An Approach of English teaching for non-English Department students. *Beta: Tadris Matematika*, 7(1), 37–63.
- Agustina, E., & Cahyono, B. Y. (2017). Perceptions of Indonesian Teachers and Students on the Use of Quipper School as an Online Platform for Extended EFL Learning. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 8(4), 794–800. <https://doi.org/10.17507/jltr.0804.20>
- Akomaning, E. (2019). Improving student internship through collaborative curriculum design: Needs and context analysis to inform the design process. In J. Pieters &

- et al. (Eds.), *Collaborative Curriculum Design for Sustainable Innovation and Teacher Learning* (pp. 105–114). https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-20062-6_6
- Ali, S. U. (2015). ESP Teacher education model in Indonesian Context. *Pendidikan*, 13(2), 344–354. <https://doi.org/10.33387/j.edu.v13i2.54>
- Allen, P., Swain, M., Harley, B., & Cummins, J. (1990). Aspects of classroom treatment: toward a more comprehensive view of second language education. In *The Development of Second Language Proficiency* (pp. 57–81). Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781139524568.007>
- Amiri, M. (2014). The Impact of Content-based Instruction on Students ‘ Achievement in ESP Courses and Their Language Learning Orientation. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 4(10), 2157–2167. <https://doi.org/10.4304/tpls.4.10.2157-2167>
- Arnó-Macià, E., & Mancho-Barés, G. (2015). The role of content and language in content and language integrated learning (CLIL) at university: Challenges and implications for ESP. *English for Specific Purposes*, 37(1), 63–73. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2014.06.007>
- Arslan, R. Ş., & Saka, C. K. (2010). Teaching English to science students via theme-based model of content-based instruction. *Journal of Turkish Science Education*.
- Bernaus, M., Wilson, A., & Gardner, R. C. (2009). Teachers’ motivation, classroom strategy use, students’ motivation, and second language achievement. *Porta Linguarum*, 1(12), 25–36.
- Bhatia, V. K. (2008). Genre analysis, ESP, and professional practice. *English for Specific Purposes*, 27(2), 161–174. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2007.07.005>

- Brinton, D. M., Snow, M. A., & Wesche, M. B. (1989). *Content-based second language instruction*. Newbury House.
- Brinton, D., Sow, M., & Wesche, M. (1989). *Content-Based Second Language Instruction*. Heinle and Heinle Publishers.
- Brinton, D M, Snow, M. A., & Wesche, M. (2003). *Content-based second language instruction*. The University of Michigan Press.
- Brinton, Donna M. (2013). Content-Based Instruction in English for Specific Purposes. In C. A. Chapelle (Ed.), *The Encyclopedia of Applied Linguistics*. Blackwell Publishing Ltd. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781405198431.wbeal0191>
- Brown, D. N. (2007). *Language Learner Motivation and the Role of Choice in ESP Listening Engagement*.
- Cammarata, L. (2016). Content-Based Foreign Language Teaching. In L. Cammarata (Ed.), *Content-Based Foreign language teaching: Curriculum and pedagogy for developing advanced thinking and literacy skills*. Routledge.
- Christison, M. A., & Murray, D. E. (2014). What English language teachers need to know volume III: Designing curriculum. In *What English Language Teachers Need to Know Volume III: Designing Curriculum*. Taylor and Francis. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203072196>
- Clément, R., Dörnyei, Z., & Noels, K. A. (1994). Motivation, Self-confidence, and Group Cohesion in the Foreign Language Classroom. *Language Learning*, 44(3), 417–448. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1994.tb01113.x>
- Cotterall, S. (2000). Promoting learner autonomy through the curriculum: Principles for designing language courses. *ELT Journal*, 54(2), 109–117. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/54.2.109>

- Creese, A. (2005a). Is this content-based language teaching? *Linguistics and Education*, 16(2), 188–204. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2006.01.007>
- Creese, A. (2005b). Is this content-based language teaching? *Linguistics and Education*. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2006.01.007>
- Darsih, E. (2014). Indonesian EFL teachers' perception in the implementation of the 2013 English curriculum. In *International Postgraduate Colloquium of Research in Education (IP CORE)*.
- Dja'far, V. H., Cahyono, B. Y., & Bashtomi, Y. (2016). EFL Teachers' Perception of University Students' Motivation and ESP Learning Achievement. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 7(14), 28–37. <http://ezproxy.lib.utexas.edu/login?url=http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=eric&AN=EJ1102990&site=ehost-live>
- Dudley-Evans, T. (2000). Genre analysis: a key to a theory of ESP? *Ibérica: Revista de La Asociación Europea de Lenguas Para Fines Específicos (AELFE)*.
- Duenas, M. (2004). The whats, whys, hows, and whos of content-based instruction in second foreign language education. *International Journal of English*, 4(1), 73–96.
- Faisal, F. (2015). Pedagogical Content Knowledge in English Language Teaching in Indonesia. *Asia Pacific Journal of Multidisciplinary Research*.
- Filipović, L. (2018). Speaking in a second language but thinking in the first language: Language-specific effects on memory for causation events in English and Spanish. *International Journal of Bilingualism*, 22(2), 180–198. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1367006916661636>

- Freeman, D., & Freeman, Y. (1988). Sheltered English Instruction. *ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics Washington DC*.
- Fritzen, A. (2011). Teaching as Sheltering: A Metaphorical Analysis of Sheltered Instruction for English Language Learners. *Curriculum Inquiry*. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-873X.2011.00548.x>
- Gestanti, R. A., Nimasari, E. P., & Mufanti, R. (2019). ESP issue in Indonesia tertiary context: What students need in learning English. *PUPIL: International Journal of Teaching, Education and Learning*, 3(1), 98–117. <https://doi.org/10.20319/pijtel.2019.31.98117>
- Hernandez, A. M. B. (2012). *Teaching English through Content-Based Instruction*. Universidad Technologica de Pereira.
- Hossain, J. (2013). ESP Needs Analysis for Engineering Students: A Learner-Centered Approach. *Journal of Presidency University*, 2(2), 16–26.
- Huang, Y. H., & Chuang, T. Y. (2016). Technology-assisted sheltered instruction: instructional streaming video in an EFL multi-purpose computer course. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09588221.2014.1000933>
- Hutchinson, T., & Waters, A. (1987). *English for Specific Purposes* (Cambridge). Cambridge University Press.
- Jalilzadeh, K., & Tahmasebi, A. (2014). Content-Based Syllabus. *European Scientific Journal*, 1(1), 223–231.
- Krashen, S. D. (1981). *Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning*. Pergamon Press Inc.
- Krulatz, A. (2019). Content-based instruction in teacher education: Reshaping pre-service teachers' beliefs about language teaching. *9-16*, 22(1), 9–16.
- Leaver, B. Lou, & Stryker, S. B. (1989). Content-Based Instruction for Foreign Language Classrooms. *Foreign*

- Language Annals*, 22(3), 269–275. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1944-9720.1989.tb02746.x>
- Leis, A. (2017). Content-based language teaching and the flipped classroom: A case study in the Japanese EFL environment. In *Innovations in Flipping the Language Classroom: Theories and Practices*. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-10-6968-0_15
- Lightbown, P. M. (2014). *Focus on Content-Based Language Teaching*. Oxford University Press.
- Littlewood, W. (1981). *Communicative Language Teaching*. Cambridge University Press.
- Lockwood, J. (2012). Developing an English for specific purpose curriculum for Asian call centers: How theory can inform practice. *English for Specific Purposes*, 31(1), 14–24. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2011.05.002>
- Lyster, R. (2007). *Learning and Teaching Languages through Content: A Counterbalanced Approach*. Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Lyster, R. (2011). Content-based second language teaching. In *Handbook of Research in Second Language Teaching and Learning*.
- Lyster, R., & Ballinger, S. (2011). Content-based language teaching: Convergent concerns across divergent contexts. *Language Teaching Research*. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168811401150>
- Met, M. (1989). *Learning Language through Content: Learning Content through Language* (K. Muller (ed.)). American Forum.
- Nur, M. R., & Madkur, A. (2014). Teachers' voices on the 2013 curriculum for English instructional activities. *IJEE (Indonesian Journal of English Education)*, 1(2), 119–134. <https://doi.org/10.15408/ijee.v1i2.1340>

- Okay, A., & Balçıkanklı, C. (2017). The role of motivation in EFL students' perceptions of teacher/learner responsibilities and learner abilities. *Asian-Pacific Journal of Second and Foreign Language Education*, 2(1). <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40862-017-0032-0>
- Paltridge, B., & Starfield, S. (2016). English for specific purposes. In *Handbook of Research in Second Language Teaching and Learning*. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315716893>
- Peng, Y. (2017). *Content-Based Instruction of EFL and Its Effects on Learners' Needs in China*. 6(3), 116–119. <https://doi.org/10.11648/j.edu.20170603.12>
- Pipit, M. (2018). CLIL as an alternative approach for designing English course syllabus in Indonesia. *Asian ESP Journal*.
- Poedjiastutie, D., Akhyar, F., Hidayati, D., & Nurul Gasmi, F. (2018). Does Curriculum Help Students to Develop Their English Competence? A Case in Indonesia. *Arab World English Journal*, 9(2), 175–185. <https://doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol9no2.12>
- Pranckevičiūtė, V., & Zajankauskaitė, Z. (2012). Adjusting an ESP Course to Students' Needs in Tertiary Education: a Case Study. *Studies About Languages*, 1(21), 115–123. <https://doi.org/10.5755/j01.sal.0.21.2465>
- Richards, & Rodgers, T. (2001). *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching* (Second Edi). Cambridge University Press.
- Simbolon, N. E. (2018). EMI in Indonesian higher education: Stakeholders' perspectives. *Teflin Journal*. <https://doi.org/10.15639/teflinjournal.v29i1/108-128>
- Stephen B, S., & Leaver, B. Lou. (1997). *Content-Based Instruction in Foreign Language Education; Models*

- and Methods. In *System*. Georgetown University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2011.08.002>
- Stephen, S. (1997). *Content-based Instruction in Foreign Language Education: Models and Methods*. Georgetown University Press.
- Strevens, P. (1988). The learner and teacher of ESP. In D. Chamberlain & R. J. Baumgardner (Eds.), *ESP in the classroom: Practice and evaluation* (Vol. 128, pp. 39–44). Modern English Publications.
- Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (1989). Canadian Immersion and Adult Second Language Teaching: What's the Connection? *The Modern Language Journal*, 73(2), 150–159. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1989.tb02537.x>
- Tseng, C. H. (2015a). Implementation and perspectives of a content-based instruction course in an EFL context. *International Journal of English Language Teaching*, 3(8), 1–18.
- Tseng, C. H. (2015b). *international journal of English Language Teaching*. 3(8), 1–18.
- Veri Hardinansyah Dja'far, Bambang Yudi Cahyono, & Yazid Bashtomi. (2016). EFL Teachers' Perception of University Students' Motivation and ESP Learning Achievement. *Journal of Education and Practice*.
- Villalobos, O. B. (2014). *Content-Based Instruction: A Relevant Approach of Language Teaching*.
- Wang, C., & Zhu, L. (2020). *Effects of Content-Based Communicative Language Teaching in University English Writing Classes*. 16(1), 32–38.
- Xhaferi, B., & Xhaferi, G. (2011). The English language skills in ESP for law course. *Revista de Lenguas Para Fines Especificos*, 17(January 2011), 1133–1127. <https://doi.org/10.1002/anie.198206201>

**THE EFFECT
OF ROLE-PLAY ACTIVITIES
ON BEGINNERS' SPEAKING SKILL**

Vivit Rosmayanti

Universitas Megarezky Makassar

Abstract

Speaking is generally thought to be the most important of the four communication skills needed by English learners. Various ways are conducted by teachers to promote speaking; one of them is by applying role-play activity. Generally, role-play activity applies for pre-intermediate to advanced learners. However, the writer, in this case, tried to apply role-play to beginner learners. This study aimed to investigate the effect of Role-play activities in teaching speaking to beginners. This research applied an experimental method with one group pre-test and post-test. The population of this research is one class of second-year students in one of the private universities in Makassar which consists of 26 students. The focuses of the research were the effect and the implementation of role-play activities during the class. The result of this research is expected to be useful information for university and teachers in designing teaching activities which is beneficial for students, and for the researchers to improve their ability in writing a scientific

paper, analyzing, and solving problems related to educational matters which exist in society and academic world.

Keywords: Role-play, Class Activities, Speaking, Beginner.

INTRODUCTION

Teaching English as a foreign language in Indonesia has been an issue for many years. There is a lot of research related to language teachings like teaching approaches and methods (Boakye, 2021; Hall, 2010; Kumaran, 2017), learning strategies (Aditama & Sugiharto, 2021; Atmowardoyo et al., 2021; Bahri et al., 2021; Nunan, 2015a; Plonsky, 2011), etc. to support the effectiveness of language teaching. We rarely come across students, whether from secondary university or tertiary level, who is fluent in English, particularly those who attend university in a city. This difficulty has made it difficult for English teachers to meet the need for qualified output, such as students who speak English well.

English is one of the subjects which is studied by students from the elementary university to tertiary level. For many years, the lecture method was the most widely used (Chaudhury, 2011; Sajjad, 2011; Sutherland, 1976) in many universities. Just like most universities in Indonesia, they employ some forms of lecture teaching methods to teach students. McIntosh (1996) pointed out that lecturing is frequently a one-way process unaccompanied by discussion, questioning, or immediate practice which makes it a poor teaching method. On the other hand, Jameel (2011) said that contemporary English as a language for learning is better presented in the form of communication, unconscious of the systematically standard theories and grammar rules.

Teachers need to be creative in teaching and be well prepared with the material which is going to be taught. They should be able to provide appropriate activities for students to practice their speaking. Speaking skills usually become a problem for beginner learners and one of the good ways to promote their speaking skills is by applying role-play activities in class (Boakye, 2021; Fadilah, 2016; Kuśnierek, 2015; Liu & Ding, 2009; Rahayu, 2015). Applying role-play activity in the classroom provides students with lots of benefits in the learning process; role-play activities enable students to practice English more by authentically exploring their imagination. The reason why the writers conduct this research in one of the private universities in Makassar is that most students there are still low in English, especially in speaking. The students there still have difficulties communicating using English. Some students are good enough in writing and reading but most of them have problems with speaking skills. Therefore, the writers think that there should be an alternative way that can be applied in teaching them which is useful in improving students' speaking skills. The writers argued by applying Role-play activities in the class will help them practice speaking skills in communication in a more authentic way. To make the problem examinable, the researcher needs to formulate the following research questions: 1) What is the effect of role-play activities on beginners' speaking skills? 2) How are role-play activities implemented in the class?

LITERATURE REVIEW

Speaking Skill

Speaking is generally thought to be the most important of the four communication skills needed. Indeed, one frustration commonly voiced by learners is that they have

spent years studying English, but still, they cannot speak it (Rosmayanti & Yahrif, 2019; Sabina, 2018). Speaking is one of the most difficult aspects for students to master. This is hardly surprising when one considers everything that is involved when speaking: ideas, what to say, language, how to use grammar and vocabulary, pronunciation as well as listening to and reacting to the person you are communicating with (Pollard, 2008). We can find some students who have good points in grammar, but when they have to deal with a native speaker or have a conversation with other people using English, they get lost. Grammar is one of the language elements that can be learned autodidact at home, by reading many grammar books, doing lots of exercises, etc. while the only way to improve the speaking skills of students is by listening and practicing much. According to (Nunan, 2015b) language ability in terms of linguistic competence, that is, the mastery of sounds, the vocabulary, and the grammar of the language. It was assumed that once these elements have been mastered. Kurum (2017) pointed out that speaking is more than forming grammatically correct sentences and then pronouncing them, language teachers need to recognize more than mechanics such as functions and pragmatics.

Role-play

Greco (2009) defined role-play as a game where each player takes on the role of a character. However, according to Woodhouse (2014) whomever the role player is, there is the adoption of the role of social position (e.g., Doctor, nurse, patient, etc.), and the roles are set in context (e.g., home, hospital, etc.), to which is added the function or purpose of the individuals being there. Ertruk (2015) stated that role-play, as an active teaching strategy, can incorporate positive elements of enjoying learning and digesting knowledge. Role-

play activity is One of the good ways to get the students to speak confidently and fluently by providing a mask for students to speak in the real-world situation as Harmer (1998) claims that role-play can be used to encourage general oral fluency or to train students for a specific situation. Applying role-play encourages students to be creative and imaginative and the most important reason to use role-play is that it is fun. Many topics can be used to run role-play activities for example the students act as doctors and patients in learning, asking and giving advice, making a telephone call to talk about daily activities, seller and buyer to learn about countable and uncountable, numbers, some and any, etc.

According to Pollard (2008), Role-play involves students taking on a role and carrying out a discussion with each person playing their role. For example, if the teacher is teaching “some & any” as a grammar point, then the role-play of seller and buyer can be performed. The classes are divided into two groups, one group as a seller and another group as a buyer. The sellers are given a goods list to sell while the buyers are given a shopping list to complete. In this activity, the teacher has to be able to set the situation and give clear instructions. Pollard (2008) suggested some tips and advice for role-play such as 1) Choose the topic carefully because if students don’t have anything to say, the role play won’t work; 2) This type of activity can take a long time to set up; the preparation phase is essential if the activity is to work well. Don’t be tempted to skip preparation to save time; 3) The time needed for the input of the topic and language as well as preparation, the actual role play, and feedback means that you need to allow a lot of time. Don’t expect to be able to do a role play quickly; 4) During feedback after a role-play it is important to comment on the content of what was said as well as on the language used.

METHOD

This research applied quantitative research with a pre-experimental design. This section covered the research variable, research design, population and samples, data collection procedure, and technique of data analysis.

Research Variables

There are two variables in this research, dependent variable and independent variable. The dependent variable is students' speaking skills and the independent variable is the application of role-play activities.

Research Design

This research is the pre-experimental design used one group pretest-posttest which is designed in the following table:

Table 1. Research Design

Select Experimental Group	Pretest	Experimental Treatment	Posttest
--	----------------	-----------------------------------	-----------------

(Creswell, 2008)

The experimental group of this research was selected randomly. After selecting the experimental group, the pretest was given to measure students' ability before treatment. The experimental treatment applied in this research was role-played activities. After giving the treatment of role-play activities, the students were given a posttest to measure their ability after the treatment.

Population and Sample

The populations of this research were the second-grade students of one of Privat University in Makassar consisting of two classes, XI IPA and XI IPS. The samples were XI IPS class consist 26 students selected by using a simple random sampling technique.

Data Collection Procedure

In collecting data, the researcher employs speaking tests in pretest and posttest. Pretest was intended to see the students' speaking skill before giving treatment. While the posttest was intended to see the students' speaking skills after giving a treatment by applying role-play in the class. The procedures of collecting data were chronologically performed in some steps. Before giving treatment, the researcher administered a pretest using the speaking test. The speaking test was aimed to find out the speaking skill of the students before treatment is given. The result of this pretest, later on, will be compared with the posttest result.

After the pre-test, the researcher performs classroom teaching. In performing teaching, the teacher applied different role-play activities for eight meetings. The roleplay activities performed were related to language points taught at every meeting. After giving treatment, the researcher administers post-test to see the students' speaking achievement. The item and content of the post-test are the same as in the pre-test. The result of this posttest was then compared with the result of the pretest.

The Technique of Data Analysis

In this research, the writers use descriptive and inferential statistics to analyze the data. As this research suggested that in quantitative research technique analysis the data is presented to answer the research questions or to

test the hypothesis, and because the data is quantitative then the technique of data analysis uses statistical methods. The descriptive and inferential analyses in this research were done by using SPSS program version 20,0.

RESULT

The Result of Statistical Analysis

a. The result of students' speaking skills

Based on categorization criteria, distribution frequency is found through descriptive data analysis as seen in the following table:

Table 2. Recapitulation of Students' Speaking Skill Results

Statistic	Pretest	Posttest
Sample	26	26
Mean	5.76	14.57
Median	6.00	15.00
Mode	4.00	16.00
Std. Deviation	1.50	1.52
Variance	2.26	2.33
Range	5.00	5.00
Minimum	4.00	12.00
Maximum	9.00	17.00
Total	150.00	379.00

The next category of students' speaking skills in pretest and posttest on role-play activities can be seen in the following file:

Table 3. Frequency Distribution of Students' Speaking Skills on Role-play Activities

Interval	Speaking Skill Category	<i>Pre-test</i>		<i>Post-test</i>	
		Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency	Percentage (%)
16-20	Very Good	0	0.0	6	23.08
11-15	Good	0	0.0	16	61.54
6-10	Fair	16	38.46	4	15.38
0-5	Poor	10	61.54	0	0.00
Total		26	100	26	100

The Result of Statistical Analysis

The result of inferential statistical analysis was intended to answer the hypothesis. Before doing the inferential statistical analysis it's important to do assumption tests such as the normality tests and homogeneity tests. Based on the statistical analysis, the result of the normality test and homogeneity test of this research were distributed normally.

Table 4. The Result of the T-test

t-test	Significance of P-value
<i>One sample test</i>	0,000
<i>Paired samples test</i>	0,000

It is seen that the significance of P-value = 0,000 on a paired sample test with 26 students was P-value < α which is 0,000 < 0,05 then the samples represented the population and the data were normal, this means that H_0 is rejected and H_1 is accepted. It can be concluded that there is an effect of the application of role-play activities on students' speaking.

DISCUSSION

The Effect of Role-play Activities in Teaching Speaking for Beginners

Based on the hypothesis test of the research it can be seen that the result of the students' speaking is getting better after implementing treatment of role-play activities. This finding is in line with previous researchers' reports (Alabsi, 2016; Goothy & Swathi, 2019; Guilfoyle & Mistry, 2013; Hamdani, 2018; Krebt, 2017; Pettenger et al., 2014). The improvement of students' speaking ability can be caused by some factors such as the quantity and duration of the treatment, the way researchers run the class or perform activities in the class, class condition, and the number of

students taught in the class. The treatments were conducted for eight meetings with eight different role-play activities.

During the treatment, the researchers provide students with role-playing activities to enable them to speak more in communicative ways. It was not difficult for the researchers to handle the class because there were only 26 students in the class and each activity ran well. In addition, the teacher implemented roleplay activities following four points Pollard (2008) suggested such as: choosing the topic carefully, managing the time well to set up the role-play activities, providing more time for students to do the role-play, and giving feedback on students' language.

The Implementation of Role-play Activities in Teaching English for Beginners

The researchers applied the PPP (Presentation Practice Production) method in teaching. In Every meeting, the teacher runs a role-play activity to support students' learning. Each student takes one role and then communicates or discusses with other students with a different role. This is just in line with Pollard (2008) stressing previously that role-play involves students taking on a role and carrying out a discussion with each person playing their role. The roles of the students are different in each meeting such as buyer and seller, doctor and patient, waiter and customer, detective and client, etc. The process of choosing the characters is based on what Woodhouse (2014) suggested whomever the role player is, there is the adoption of the role of social position (e.g., Doctor, nurse, patient, etc.), and the roles are set in context (e.g., home, hospital, etc.), to which is added the function or purpose of the individuals being there. The procedure of teaching for every meeting is elaborated briefly as follows:

Greco (2009) defined role-play as a game where each player takes on the role of a character. However, according to Woodhouse (2014) whomever the role player is, there is the adoption of the role of social position (e.g., Doctor, nurse, patient, etc.), and the roles are set in context (e.g., home, hospital, etc.), to which is added the function or purpose of the individuals being there. According to Pollard (2008), Role-play involves students taking on a role and carrying out a discussion with each person playing their role. The effectiveness of role-play activities has been proven by many researchers. The result of this study is in line with what recent study on the effectiveness of role-play activities in the classroom (Flora & Sukirlan, 2021; Gusmuliana et al., 2021; Luke et al., 2021; Mayasari et al., 2021) suggested.

The researchers taught countable and uncountable nouns as the language point and shopping role-play as the main activity in the first lesson. The researchers start the class, examine the students' previews, and then introduce the language point of countable versus uncountable nouns during the presenting stage. During the practice stage, researchers hand out worksheets to students and have them practice the linguistic point in a sentence. The main action occurs during the procedure stage when the researchers create the environment for the retail role-plays to take place. The students were divided into two groups: sellers and buyers. Students in the seller group were given a list and instructed to pick a price for it and sell it later. Students in the buyer group were given a shopping list and were challenged to complete it with very little money. The researchers advise them that the seller with the most income and the buyer with the smallest budget would be the winners at the end of the activity. The researchers provided a discussion sample and instructed them on how to bargain. The class activity went well since they do shop in their daily

lives and need to do it in English at that time. This activity's materials were prepared by the researcher. The researcher conducted the shopping role-play because it is an activity that corresponds to the linguistic point. The pupils can then put the words they acquired in the role-play into practice. Another reason is that this situation occurs frequently in real life. The students are already aware of the situation; all they need to know is how to communicate in English.

The researchers taught the students about "should" as a linguistic point and the doctor role-play as the major activity on the second day of class. The researchers begin the presentation stage by welcoming the class and explaining the use of the modal "should" in giving advice. The researchers presented the worksheet and encouraged pupils with some spoken activities throughout the practice stage. The doctor's visit was the key production activity. The students were separated into two groups, one for doctors and the other for patients. The doctor group received a doctor's sheet, medicine supply, and some advice cards, while the patient group received a patient's worksheet and condition cards. The patients were asked to visit various doctors to obtain advice regarding their illness; the researchers provided the conversation, and the doctors were free to give other advice instead of using the advice card. The content for this activity was discovered on the internet and then changed based on the student's abilities.

The researchers used basic present tense as the language point and telephoning role-play as the major activity in the third lesson. The researchers began the presentation stage by reviewing the previous session and teaching the students how to use the simple present tense. The researchers used some spoken exercises and written exercises in the form of worksheets for the practice session. The researchers use telephoning role-playing as the major

activity in the production stage. Students are placed into two groups: group A and group B. Each student A and B was given a form to fill out, on which they were to write the name of their friend who called and why they called. The researchers present a sample of a dialogue on the sheet, and the exercise goes smoothly. Even though the session was quite full, the students spoke in English.

The researchers taught some and any as a language point, with restaurant role-play as the major activity, in the fourth lesson. The researchers opened the class during the presentation stage by revisiting the prior session and teaching the students about the use of some and any. The researchers begin their presentation by scribbling a complete and incomplete shopping list on the whiteboard. The researchers then give an example of when to use some and when to use any. The researchers include some spoken and written exercises throughout the practice stage. The researchers used restaurant role-playing for the production processes. The students were separated into two categories: servers and customers. Customers received a customer's sheet and a waiter's sheet, while servers received a waiter's sheet and a restaurant menu. Customers must go to eateries and place their orders there. The researchers highlight that all interactions in this role-play are conducted in English, and they use any methods available.

The researchers taught the prepositions of place as a language point and lost & found role-play as the main activity in the fifth activity. The researchers open the class, review the previous session, and teach the students about some and any during the presenting stage. The researchers include a spoken exercise and a worksheet for the practice session. The researchers use lost and found as the main activity during the production session. Students were placed into two groups: group A and group B. Students A and B

were given maps A and B, respectively. They must ask their spouse for directions to finish the map they have. This is a role-playing activity that was modified from an information-gathering activity. Students were taught how to give direction before beginning the task. And, as is customary, the class was having a great time with this activity.

The researcher taught will and be going to as the language point and even organized role-play as the major activity in the sixth activity. For the presentation stage, the researchers welcomed the students, reviewed the previous session, and demonstrated how to use “will and be going to” in planning and prediction by providing examples. The researchers present the worksheet to the students for the practice session and then discuss the students’ responses. The researchers used organizer role-play as the major activity in the production session. Some groups were formed in the lesson. Three students took on the role of a public figure, and three groups took on the role of event organizers. The public figures require a birthday celebration, and the event organizers compete to host the event; they discuss their plans with their clients.

The researchers used detective role-play as the major activity in the seventh lesson and taught simple past and past continuous as the language point. The researchers opened the class, reviewed the previous lesson, and taught the use of simple past and past continuous in the presenting session. When two activities occur at the same time but one occurs before the other, the researchers explain the usage of simple past and past continuous tenses in sentences. For example, “I was studying in my room when you called me yesterday night.” The teacher goes into greater depth by providing more instances. The researchers include various worksheets and spoken tasks at the practice stage. During the production stage, the researchers engage in investigative

role-playing. The researchers created a scenario in which three students were designated as suspects, while the remaining students were divided into small groups to act as detectives. The investigator must question the suspects and may use simple past and past continuous tense in their questioning, such as “What were you doing in Ms. Marry’s room when she saw you?” After this task, the detective must determine who the real thief is.

The researchers taught present continuous as a language point and spy role-play as the main activity at the last meeting. The researchers opened the class, reviewed the previous lesson as usual, and taught the students about the present continuous and how and when to use it during the presentation stage. For the practice session, the researchers gave the students a worksheet and asked them to create a present continuous tense example. The researchers also used video and questioned the students about the video’s activity. The researchers conduct a spy role-playing session during the production session. Clients and spies are the two groups of students. The spy was asked to monitor someone somewhere and report back to the client whenever they needed information, such as “she is now in a bank, withdrawing money, etc.” Reports were written in the present continuous tense.

CONCLUSION

This last session presents some conclusive points concerning the result of the study, which has been discussed previously. About the research findings and discussion in the previous session, the conclusions are presented in the following statements: 1) The hypothesis testing showed that the result of the students’ speaking skills is getting better after applying a treatment of role-play activities. For this

reason, it can be concluded that the application of role-play activity is effective to be applied in teaching speaking for beginners; 2) The researchers applied PPP (Presentation Practice Production) method in teaching. The procedure of teaching for every meeting applied the same procedure such as presenting functional language points, giving spoken and written exercises for practice, and running role-play as the main activity for production.

In every role-play activity, the researcher adopted the role of certain social positions such as buyer and seller, doctor and patient, waiter and customer, detective and client, etc. Some materials are adopted from the internet and some are created by the researchers. Since the samples of this research are very beginner learners, the dialogue in most activities is provided by the researcher. However, the students can modify or make improvisation on the dialogue based on their needs. The researcher just needs to keep monitoring and go around the class to take notes on students' language use and then give meaningful feedback at the end of the class.

Finally, the result of this study is expected to be a useful reference for English teachers to be applied in teaching beginner to advanced learners. The teachers only need to modify or make improvisation the activity based on the students' level. In addition, implementing role-play activities in the class would be very fun for students as long as the activities are well designed as well as the way the teacher gives instruction. The instruction must be delivered step by step in inappropriate and simple language with a loud voice to make sure that the students know what to do with the activity.

REFERENCES

- Aditama, M. G., & Sugiharto, P. A. (2021). Implementation of 5M Strategy in Distance Learning of English Language Teaching (ELT). *EDUTECH: Journal of Education and Technology*, 5(1), 78–88.
- Alabsi, T. A. (2016). The effectiveness of role-play strategy in teaching vocabulary. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 6(2), 227.
- Atmowardoyo, H., Weda, S., & Sakkir, G. (2021). Learning Strategies in English Skills used by Good Language Learners in Millennial Era: A Positive Case Study in Universitas Negeri Makassar. *ELT Worldwide: Journal of English Language Teaching*, 8(1), 28–40.
- Bahri, A., Idris, I. S., Muis, H., Arifuddin, M., & Fikri, M. (2021). Blended Learning Integrated with Innovative Learning Strategy to Improve Self-Regulated Learning. *International Journal of Instruction*, 14(1), 779–794.
- Boakye, N. A. Y. (2021). Using role-play and explicit strategy instruction to improve first-year students' academic reading proficiency. *Reading & Writing*, 12(1), 1–12.
- Chaudhury, S. R. (2011). The lecture. *New Directions for Teaching and Learning*. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tl.464>
- Creswell, J. W. (2008). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mix Methods Approach*. Sage Publication.
- Ertruk, E. (2015). Role-Play as a Teaching Strategy. In *National Tertiary Learning and Teaching Conference*. <https://doi.org/10.13140/RG.2.1.4287.9449>
- Fadilah, F. (2016). TEACHING SPEAKING BY ROLE-PLAY ACTIVITY. *OKARA: Jurnal Bahasa Dan Sastra*. <https://doi.org/10.19105/ojbs.v10i2.980>

- Flora, F., & Sukirlan, M. (2021). Investigating EFL learners' speaking achievement taught by modified role play at English speaking class. *AKSARA: Jurnal Bahasa Dan Sastra*, 22(1), 85–104.
- Goothy, S. S. K., & Swathi, M. (2019). *Effectiveness of academic role-play in understanding the clinical concepts in medical education*.
- Greco, M. (2009). *The Use of Role-Playing in Learning* (Issue X, pp. 157–173). IGI Global.
- Guilfoyle, N., & Mistry, M. (2013). How effective is role play in supporting speaking and listening for pupils with English as an additional language in the Foundation Stage? *Education 3-13*, 41(1), 63–70.
- Gusmuliana, P., Apriani, E., & Syafryadin, S. (2021). *Improving Students Speaking Motivation by Using Role Play Technique at Institute Islamic in Indonesia*.
- Hall, J. K. (2010). Interaction as a method and result of language learning. *Language Teaching*. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444809005722>
- Hamdani, M. R. (2018). Learning how to be a transformational leader through a skill-building, role-play exercise. *The International Journal of Management Education*, 16(1), 26–36.
- Harmer, J. (1998). *How to Teach English: An Introduction to the Practice of English Language Teaching*. Longman.
- Jameel, A. (2011). Communicative Language Teaching: An Approach Rather than a Method. *Language in India*, 11, 522.
- Krebt, D. M. (2017). The effectiveness of role-playing techniques in teaching speaking for EFL college students. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 8(5), 863.

- Kumaran, S. R. (2017). Benefits and shortcomings of role-playing as a speaking activity in English language classrooms. *The English Teacher*, 22.
- Kurum, E. Y. (2017). *Teaching Speaking Skills*. <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/312538107>
- Kuśnierek, A. (2015). Developing students' speaking skills through role-playing. *World Scientific News*.
- Liu, F., & Ding, Y. (2009). Role-play in English Language Teaching. *Asian Social Science*. <https://doi.org/10.5539/ass.v5n10p140>
- Luke, S. E., Ford, D., Vaughn, M., & Fulchini-Scruggs, A. (2021). Using mixed reality simulation and roleplay to develop preservice teachers' metacognitive awareness. *Journal of Technology and Teacher Education*, 29(3), 389–413.
- Mayasari, A. R., Faridi, A., & Fitriati, S. W. (2021). The Effectiveness of Story Telling and Role Play in Teaching Speaking for Students with High and Low Motivation. *English Education Journal*, 11(2), 187–197.
- McIntosh. (1996). *Delivering Effective Lectures*. http://www.reproline.jhu.edu/english/6read/6training/lecture/delivering_lecture.htm.
- Nunan, D. (2015a). *Teaching English to Speaker of Other Languages: An Introduction*. Routledge.
- Nunan, D. (2015b). *Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages*. NY: Routledge Taylor and Francis Group.
- Pettenger, M., West, D., & Young, N. (2014). Assessing the impact of role-play simulations on learning in Canadian and US classrooms. *International Studies Perspectives*, 15(4), 491–508.
- Plonsky, L. (2011). The effectiveness of second language strategy instruction: A meta-analysis. In *Language Learning*. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2011.00663.x>

- Pollard, L. (2008). *Guide to Teaching English: A Book to Help You Through Your First Two Years in Teaching*. Lucy Pollard.
- Rahayu, P. (2015). Role Play Strategy in Teaching Speaking. *Role Play Strategy in Teaching Speaking. Jurnal Ilmiah Edu Research*.
- Rosmayanti, V., & Yahrif, M. (2019). *The Implementation of Roleplay Activities*. 5(1), 77–92.
- Sabina, Z. (2018). THE IMPORTANCE OF TEACHING LISTENING AND SPEAKING SKILLS. *World Science*, 7(6), 34. https://doi.org/10.31435/rsglobal_ws/12062018/5881
- Sajjad, S. (2011). Effective Teaching Methods at Higher Education Level. *Department of the Special Education University of Karachi*.
- Sutherland, T. M. (1976). The Lecture Method. *NACTA Journal*.
- Woodhouse, J. (2014). Roleplay: a stage of learning. In *Strategies for healthcare education: How to teach in the 21st century*. <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/242156099>

Index

A

- Abilities, 2, 6, 7, 35, 43, 55, 56, 58, 90, 92, 97, 101, 115, 118, 130, 174, 193, 197, 200, 212, 225
- Academic material, 2
- Acquire, 3, 6, 43, 65, 68, 110, 175, 195
- Active learning, xi, 6, 14, 18, 124, 157, 158, 159, 160, 161, 162, 163, 164, 165, 166, 168, 169, 170, 200
- Adjunct, 7, 190, 194, 198, 199
- Adolescent, 5, 37, 144, 148, 149, 151, 153, 154
- Adulthood, 6, 148, 174
- Alternative, 3, 64, 70, 116, 179, 212, 216
- Assessment, vi, xii, 2, 4, 5, 6, 55, 57, 59, 60, 61, 86, 98, 103, 105, 106, 107, 108, 110, 111, 112, 113, 114, 115, 116, 117, 118, 119, 120, 121, 122, 123, 129, 130, 131, 132, 134, 135, 138, 165, 171, 178, 180, 181, 182, 183, 185, 243
- Assumptions, 2, 44, 46, 47
- Atmosphere, 3, 6, 10, 34, 64, 70, 73, 158, 168, 197, 200, 205
- Attitude, 4, 14, 62, 66, 165
- Authentic, 4, 7, 38, 44, 64, 70, 73, 105, 107, 108, 113, 114, 115, 116, 117, 118, 119, 120, 124, 141, 164, 189, 200, 204, 216, 243
- Authenticity, 5, 108, 113

B

- Benefits, xi, 4, 5, 7, 9, 34, 36, 46, 71, 78, 117, 119, 121, 124, 132, 138, 163, 164, 165, 166, 168, 187, 188, 192, 201, 202, 203, 216, 232

C

- Career, 191, 245

CBLT, xi, 6, 187, 188, 189, 190, 191, 192, 193, 194, 195, 197, 198, 199, 200, 201, 202, 203, 204, 205, 206, 247
 Challenges, vi, 5, 13, 46, 60, 102, 117, 119, 120, 173, 207
 Classroom, 1, 5, 6, 8, 10, 12, 13, 15, 18, 19, 34, 44, 46, 47, 49, 50, 51, 60, 61, 63, 70, 72, 92, 93, 100, 105, 106, 107, 108, 113, 119, 125, 139, 141, 143, 144, 150, 151, 154, 155, 156, 158, 159, 160, 162, 165, 167, 168, 169, 171, 174, 175, 177, 181, 182, 186, 190, 193, 199, 200, 205, 207, 208, 211, 213, 216, 220, 224
 CLT, vii, 1, 8, 9, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16
 Collaboration, vi, 2, 63, 70, 71, 72, 93, 115, 125, 141, 181
 Collaborative, x, 5, 51, 93, 99, 110, 114, 121, 123, 124, 131, 132, 138, 139, 142, 143, 161, 169, 182, 185, 206, 207
 Communicate, 1, 8, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 23, 25, 34, 36, 44, 57, 77, 83, 96, 200, 206, 225
 Concepts, 2, 6, 20, 50, 58, 95, 96, 99, 114, 115, 161, 196, 197, 231
 Condition, 3, 23, 34, 64, 65, 66, 71, 192, 222, 225
 Conducive, 3, 6, 34, 62, 70
 Consistent, 6, 21, 178, 181, 183
Construction, 2, 15, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 27, 28, 29, 31, 33, 38, 177, 205
 Contextual language teaching, 1
 Convey, 5, 56
 Creative, 5, 9, 16, 39, 59, 72, 78, 106, 107, 156, 190, 216, 218
 Creators, 6, 116, 172
Critical literacy, 5, 144, 145, 146, 147, 148, 149, 150, 151, 152, 153, 154, 155, 156, 244
 Critical thinking, 2, 14, 33, 42, 44, 45, 47, 48, 50, 56, 58, 59, 60, 61, 93, 96, 101, 109, 124, 166, 189, 190
Crucial, 4, 44, 50, 100, 145, 181
 Curriculum, 6, 31, 32, 36, 48, 63, 77, 97, 105, 106, 108, 118, 145, 155, 169,

171, 180, 182, 184, 189,
195, 204, 205, 206, 207,
208, 209, 210, 211, 212,
243

D

Demonstrate, 4, 21, 30, 35,
43, 44, 56, 95, 107, 114,
118, 171
Development, v, 2, 8, 11, 12,
14, 17, 29, 30, 31, 32, 36,
47, 58, 60, 65, 78, 90, 92,
100, 103, 106, 109, 113,
116, 120, 146, 149, 164,
165, 166, 168, 169, 170,
172, 175, 183, 185, 186,
189, 192, 196, 203, 207,
241, 242, 245
Dialogue, 2, 13, 44, 45, 46,
47, 49, 50, 54, 55, 57, 58,
59, 131, 139, 143, 146,
150, 226, 229
Digital age, 5, 35, 102
Digital communication, 2
Digital literacy, x, 2, 4, 21,
22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28,
29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 35, 36,
38, 39, 41, 90, 91, 92, 94,
95, 96, 97, 98, 100, 101,
102
Digital world, 2
Director, 6, 158
Disseminators, 6, 172

E

EFL classroom, 16, 63, 151,
156
ELT, vi, 7, 10, 18, 81, 89,
107, 120, 150, 208, 230,
240, 245
Encourage, 2, 12, 15, 50, 97,
100, 110, 124, 167, 177,
183, 200, 218
English language, 1, 2, 4, 7,
18, 19, 20, 22, 23, 33, 34,
37, 38, 40, 56, 60, 61,
105, 106, 139, 140, 143,
150, 152, 155, 157, 158,
187, 190, 191, 195, 197,
198, 208, 209, 210, 213,
230, 231, 232, 241, 242,
243, 244, 245, 247
Enjoyment, 3
Evaluate, 3, 36, 44, 58, 96,
97, 101, 118, 121, 128,
138, 182, 183
Evaluation, 3, 4, 42, 57, 61,
87, 93, 97, 106, 109, 119,
120, 124, 164, 173, 182,
183, 213, 243, 244
Evidence, 6, 36, 45, 48, 51,
57, 93, 104, 107, 131,
143, 178, 182, 183
Exercises, 4, 50, 86, 162,
217, 225, 226, 229
Experience, 3, 5, 8, 10, 12,
14, 26, 33, 45, 49, 55, 64,
65, 73, 93, 94, 101, 118,

121, 125, 135, 175, 176,
177, 182, 202, 205, 240
Expertise, 4, 115
Extensive reading, x, 3, 4,
75, 76, 77, 78, 79, 80, 81,
82, 87, 88, 89

F

Facilitator, 6, 158
Family, 2, 114, 152, 195

G

Groundwork, 6, 172
Guarantee, 7, 188, 200

H

Higher education, x, 2, 6, 38,
59, 61, 64, 65, 70, 71, 99,
101, 103, 115, 118, 119,
120, 123, 124, 142, 169,
170, 171, 172, 173, 174,
178, 184, 185, 186, 188,
190, 212, 233

I

Implementation, 5, 6, 16, 42,
63, 72, 88, 106, 150, 151,
162, 165, 173, 187, 188,
192, 194, 206, 209, 213,
214, 223, 230, 233, 246
Infancy, 6, 174
Information, 4, 8, 9, 10, 11,
14, 17, 18, 22, 23, 26, 37,
45, 47, 48, 49, 50, 56, 65,

70, 75, 76, 77, 90, 91, 96,
97, 101, 102, 103, 105,
107, 110, 113, 128, 130,
132, 135, 136, 138, 144,
145, 147, 157, 159, 160,
162, 163, 165, 166, 175,
181, 183, 184, 192, 204,
205, 214, 227, 228, 243

Instruction, 1, 9, 11, 15, 17,
38, 43, 48, 58, 79, 91,
106, 149, 151, 153, 177,
181, 184, 191, 192, 193,
194, 195, 196, 197, 198,
201, 207, 208, 209, 210,
212, 213, 229, 230, 232

Instrument, 5, 62, 70, 122,
135, 138

Intensive reading, x, 4, 76,
78, 79, 80, 86, 87

J

Journey, 51

K

Knowledge, v, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8,
10, 12, 14, 16, 22, 26, 33,
35, 37, 43, 44, 45, 46, 49,
50, 51, 58, 63, 67, 68, 75,
76, 90, 93, 99, 106, 107,
108, 109, 111, 113, 116,
118, 130, 132, 149, 158,
161, 163, 164, 168, 172,
174, 175, 176, 177, 178,
184, 188, 191, 193, 198,

199, 200, 202, 204, 205,
209, 217, 240

L

Language skills, 1, 8, 10, 14,
17, 31, 32, 56, 124, 157,
158, 165, 168, 187, 195,
197, 213

Language teachers, 5, 77,
204, 208, 217

Learners, 2, 3, 5, 7, 9, 10,
12, 13, 14, 15, 37, 40, 60,
61, 75, 77, 78, 79, 80, 81,
82, 83, 84, 86, 87, 125,
131, 139, 140, 141, 143,
147, 148, 150, 151, 152,
153, 158, 162, 163, 170,
185, 188, 189, 191, 195,
197, 199, 202, 204, 205,
210, 212, 214, 216, 229,
230, 231, 240

Lecturers, v, vi, 3, 7, 32, 34,
35, 64, 71, 72, 115, 131,
186, 187, 189, 190, 200,
206, 243

Lesson plan, 3, 66, 70, 141

Linguistics, 18, 19, 20, 36,
37, 39, 41, 61, 129, 140,
142, 146, 153, 154, 155,
208, 209, 210, 240, 244,
247

Listening, 11, 19, 56, 61, 75,
77, 88, 158, 162, 165,

166, 167, 183, 193, 208,
217, 231, 240, 243

Literary, 3, 122, 134, 245

M

Materials, 1, 4, 6, 9, 13, 17,
32, 44, 65, 70, 75, 76, 77,
79, 81, 83, 84, 87, 132,
138, 141, 149, 204, 206,
225, 229

Meaningful, 2, 5, 11, 12, 22,
25, 26, 28, 30, 33, 35,
113, 114, 116, 120, 121,
125, 144, 145, 147, 158,
159, 163, 164, 181, 191,
201, 229

Media, 1, 3, 9, 17, 18, 22,
23, 27, 28, 32, 34, 39, 66,
67, 69, 70, 71, 72, 97,
103, 124, 132, 138, 140,
147, 148, 186, 188, 242,
243, 246

Memorizing, 6

Moderation, 6, 171, 172,
178, 179, 180, 181, 182,
183, 185, 186

Monitor, 3, 55, 107, 109,
116, 228

Multimodal, 5, 23, 27, 28,
32, 33, 35, 37, 38, 39, 93,
95, 144, 145, 147, 148,
151, 153, 154, 156

O

Observation, 1, 3, 28, 70, 71, 131, 150, 203
Observer, 3, 62, 66, 67, 70, 72
Occurrence, 4
Opportunities, vi, 1, 6, 7, 15, 32, 44, 79, 158, 159, 160, 165, 188, 203
Organize, 2, 43, 56, 65
Outcomes, 3, 66, 72, 94, 113, 115, 140, 165, 170, 171, 175, 181, 204

P

Pedagogy, vi, 1, 60, 99, 101, 145, 146, 152, 155, 169, 184, 208, 244
Persistent, 2
Pleasure, 3, 75, 79, 87
Practice, 3, 5, 7, 13, 14, 18, 19, 23, 28, 36, 38, 41, 43, 45, 46, 58, 59, 61, 65, 73, 76, 78, 81, 93, 120, 122, 123, 125, 130, 131, 135, 141, 142, 145, 146, 147, 149, 151, 155, 157, 163, 165, 166, 167, 168, 169, 176, 178, 183, 184, 189, 195, 207, 209, 211, 213, 215, 216, 223, 224, 225, 226, 227, 228, 229, 230, 231

Problem-solving, 5, 58, 115, 117, 124, 161, 162, 175
Proficiency, 1, 3, 4, 8, 10, 23, 64, 96, 102, 106, 115, 157, 162, 189, 193, 196, 197, 198, 202, 203, 204, 207, 230

Q

Quality, v, xii, 3, 5, 16, 49, 55, 58, 64, 86, 98, 111, 112, 121, 122, 123, 125, 129, 130, 131, 134, 135, 138, 139, 143, 173, 176, 178, 182
Questions, 2, 6, 11, 42, 45, 47, 48, 50, 51, 52, 53, 54, 57, 58, 61, 66, 79, 111, 150, 151, 161, 163, 164, 166, 216, 220

R

Reading, v, x, 3, 4, 11, 18, 23, 30, 36, 39, 49, 50, 56, 64, 75, 76, 77, 78, 79, 80, 81, 82, 83, 85, 86, 87, 88, 89, 96, 113, 123, 131, 143, 144, 145, 146, 149, 150, 153, 154, 155, 156, 158, 166, 168, 196, 197, 203, 216, 217, 230, 241
Real-world, 4, 107, 181, 218
Reflect, 3, 66, 72, 109, 112, 136, 160, 168, 180, 183

Regulations, 6, 178
Relationships, 5, 96, 121,
125
Reliable, 6, 183
Requirements, 4, 173
Response, 3, 63, 69, 152,
154, 167
Responsibilities, v, 6, 174,
212
Role-play, xii, 7, 112, 113,
166, 214, 215, 216, 217,
218, 219, 220, 221, 222,
223, 224, 225, 226, 227,
228, 229, 230, 231, 232

S

Schools, 2, 4, 22, 29, 31, 33,
34, 65, 84, 92, 94, 140,
184, 185, 196
Science, 4, 19, 36, 37, 60,
65, 74, 90, 131, 170, 195,
197, 207, 232, 233
Separation, 7, 190, 194
Setting, 1, 4, 7, 13, 16, 18,
24, 56, 63, 68, 71, 76, 82,
83, 87, 88, 108, 142, 150,
194, 203
Sheltered, 7, 190, 194, 196,
197, 210
Societal, 6, 149, 174
Society, 4, 34, 37, 43, 60,
64, 143, 154, 172, 173,
174, 175, 181, 196, 215,
243

Socratic method, x, 2, 42,
45, 46, 47, 48, 53, 58, 59,
61

Speaking, x, xii, 2, 7, 10, 14,
18, 19, 42, 43, 44, 45, 48,
53, 54, 56, 57, 59, 60, 61,
118, 157, 158, 165, 166,
167, 190, 203, 209, 214,
215, 216, 217, 219, 220,
221, 222, 228, 231, 232,
233, 241

Stimulate, 2, 44, 64, 198

Strengths, 5, 97, 118, 131,
164

Strict link, 7, 190

Student identity, 2

T

Teachers, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 9,
10, 12, 13, 15, 16, 17, 18,
22, 25, 29, 31, 32, 34, 35,
40, 43, 44, 46, 47, 50, 54,
55, 58, 59, 65, 69, 70, 72,
77, 83, 84, 88, 92, 93, 94,
95, 98, 99, 100, 101, 102,
104, 105, 106, 108, 110,
111, 112, 113, 114, 116,
117, 118, 119, 142, 149,
150, 151, 152, 154, 157,
158, 159, 160, 161, 163,
164, 165, 166, 167, 168,
169, 171, 175, 176, 180,
181, 182, 183, 189, 190,
192, 193, 196, 199, 200,

202, 203, 206, 207, 208,
209, 210, 211, 213, 214,
215, 216, 229, 232, 240,
242
*Teaching and learning
process*, 3, 47, 56, 63, 64,
71, 72, 116, 118, 144,
181, 190, 243
Teaching and learning
strategies, vi, 1, 10, 115
Technique, 5, 45, 48, 121,
128, 131, 133, 134, 138,
139, 166, 169, 178, 182,
219, 220, 231
Technology, 1, 4, 9, 15, 17,
21, 22, 23, 25, 26, 27, 28,
29, 30, 31, 36, 37, 38, 39,
41, 48, 64, 65, 69, 73, 90,
91, 92, 93, 94, 99, 100,
101, 103, 104, 119, 123,
124, 132, 138, 140, 148,
169, 172, 188, 197, 210,
230, 232, 240, 243
Tertiary, 5, 27, 34, 92, 97,
115, 124, 131, 150, 152,
170, 172, 186, 210, 212,
215, 230
translation, vi, x, xii, 5, 11,
121, 122, 123, 124, 125,
126, 127, 128, 129, 130,
131, 132, 133, 134, 135,
136, 137, 138, 139, 140,
141, 142, 143, 199

W

Writing, v, 30, 37, 38, 40,
56, 86, 96, 109, 110, 112,
118, 145, 146, 152, 158,
162, 165, 166, 167, 213,
214, 216, 230, 240, 248

Author Biography



Ramli is a lecturer at the English Education Department, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Universitas Borneo Tarakan, North Kalimantan Indonesia. As for his educational background, his Doctor's Degree was obtained in the State University of Malang (UM) funded by the Indonesian Minister of Research and Technology. He also pursued a Sandwich Scholarship in The Ohio State University (OSU), Columbus OH, USA. As a teacher, he sustainably explores his knowledge and experience by teaching and writing articles in internationally and nationally accredited journals. He has written two reference books; *Linguistics and Non-Linguistics Knowledge in L2 Listening Comprehension*, *Grammar Knowledge (Syntactic Analysis)*, and chapter books: *Pasang Tallasa Kamase Masea*; *The Beauty of a Simple Life in Book Values of Sustainability that Exist in Local Wisdom in Indonesia*; *Current Research in ELT*; and *Learning Strategies and Learners Autonomy*. Besides, he intensively attends international conferences and national seminars/webinars. You can connect with the writer via email ramli26@borneo.ac.id.



Firima Zona Tanjung teaches at English Language Education Study Program, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, University of Borneo Tarakan, North Kalimantan, Indonesia. She is a poet, a researcher, and an author. Some of her poems were selected to be published by Kreatory, Funbahasa, Dandelion Publisher, and Boenga Ketjil. Firima, or usually called as Zona, writes short stories mostly related to daily life episodes. Her debut short story collection was *Filosofi Cinta Semesta* (2020). She believes that poetry and short story are as important as research paper that keeps her life in balance to see the world. Also, a number of her essays and opinion articles were published in the format of book chapters, web postings, and newspaper column. As an assistant professor, Firima has high interest to the studies of English language learning, English teaching, and professional identity development. Her papers were presented in national and international conferences and published in some reputable journals. You can connect with Firima on ResearchGate or via email english_zone@borneo.ac.id.



Woro Kusmaryani is a lecturer in the English Education Department, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Universitas Borneo Tarakan. She was born on February 6, 1983, in Ngawi. In 2019, she finished her doctoral program in English Education at Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia. She conducts classes on Speaking, Reading, English for Specific Purposes, and Cross-Cultural Understanding. She is also a member of the school/madrasah accrediting board in the province of North Kalimantan, as well as the chairman of the center for education, health, and gender equality studies at Research

Center and Community Service (LPPM) University Borneo Tarakan. You can connect with the writer via email worokusmaryani@borneo.ac.id.



Jhoni Eppendi has been a lecturer at the English Education Department of Borneo University of Tarakan since 2017. His research focuses on English Language Teaching and learning motivation. His research articles were published in the national Journal, national proceedings, and international proceedings. Now, he is working on students' learning needs and learning Motivation. You can connect with the writer via email eppendij@borneo.ac.id.



Farid Helmi Setyawan is a lecturer at the English Education Department, Faculty of Teachers Training and Education, Universitas Borneo Tarakan, North Kalimantan Indonesia. As for his educational background, his Bachelor's degree was obtained in the STKIP PGRI Ngawi in 2008, Master's Degree in the Islamic University of Malang (UNISMA) (2014). His passion is in Teaching-Learning methods in EFL, Developing Media for Children's Language Learning, and Analyzing Language Development. You can connect with the writer via email fasahelmy001@gmail.com.



Nofvia De Vega is one of the English Education Department lecturers at Borneo Tarakan University. Her research focuses on Teaching English and Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in Education. Listening and learning media are her major skill and competency in the teaching and learning process. She had seven articles published at National and International conferences. She also has done several projects related to society and social programs in Indonesia. Nofvia De Vega, M.Pd. has been a TEFLIN member since 2017 and a PSPBI member since 2018. You can connect with the writer via email nofviadevega@borneo.ac.id.



Ridwan is a lecturer at the English Education Department, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Borneo Tarakan University, North Kalimantan, Indonesia. He has been assigned as a vice dean in this faculty since 2016. He currently teaches several courses relating to curriculum, evaluation, research methods and data analysis. His research interests are evaluation in English language teaching, English curriculum, English language teaching methods, and ICT in learning. He can be contacted at: ridwan.fkipubt@gmail.com.



Sri Wahyuningsih was one of the English Education Department alumni at Borneo Tarakan University. Her research focuses on the essential of authentic assessment in English Language Teaching in Indonesia. She had one article published at Journal of

English Teaching Adi Buana. She is now the principal in Madrasah Tsanawiyah Hurrasul Aqidah Tarakan and an English Teacher since 2021. You can connect with the writer via email sriwhyningsh1@gmail.com.



Syarifa Rafiqa has been a lecturer in the English Education Department at the University of Borneo Tarakan since 2010, and was, until recently, the head of the language center at the University of Borneo Tarakan. She was born on October 15, 1987, in Tarakan. She has presented several papers in national and international seminars/conferences, and also her research papers published in Scopus Indexed Journal, chapters in books, and several books with ISBN. She has a high interest in the studies of English language learning, applied linguistics, and ICT in English language teaching and learning. You can connect with the writer via email rafiqa@borneo.ac.id.



Sophia Fithri Al-Munawwarah is a faculty member of Universitas Muhammadiyah Lampung (homebased). She is also a part time lecturer of English Education Department of UIN Sunan Gunung Djati, Bandung, Indonesia. Currently, she is also a doctoral candidate of English education program at Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia. She did her M.Pd. in English Education at Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia in 2015. She also graduated from UPI Bandung for her S.Pd. program in 2013 majoring in English Education. Her research interest includes English teaching and methodology, critical pedagogy, critical literacy and textbook evaluation. Her papers had published in some reputable

journals and some of them were presented in international seminars. You can connect with the writer via email sophiafitria@gmail.com.



Aco Nasir was born in Tutallu (now Tubbi Taramanu), Polewali Mandar District, West Sulawesi Province. He is the seventh child of nine children from the couple Hudanasir and Hadana. He completed his postgraduate program majoring in English Language Teaching (ELT) at the State University of Malang (UM) and obtained a Master's degree (S-2) funded by the Development of Educators and Education Personnel (P2TK) with four state universities in Indonesia. He started his career as an English Lecturer at Al-Asyariah Mandar University at the end of 2017. In addition, he is also active in the activities of a literary organization called the Association of Indonesian Literature Scholars (HISKI) in the West Sulawesi region. You can connect with the writer via email aconasr@mail.unasman.ac.id.



Hanafi Pelu, was born on May 24, 1979 in Wakal Village, Leihitu District, Central Maluku Regency, Maluku Province. Graduated from Elementary School at SD Negeri 1 Wakal, Junior High School at SMP Negeri Hitu and Senior High School at SMA Negeri Hila. I graduated from master program at Makassar State University and continued the doctoral program at Makassar State University. He has been a teacher at Madrasah Tsanawiyah Negeri Masohi, Madrasah Aliyah Negeri 2 Ambon and SUPM Negeri Ambon. He was a civil servant at the Ambon Religious Education and Training Center and now at the Makassar Religious Education and

Training Center. He has written in the *Waiheru Journal of the Ambon Religious Education and Training Center*, *Baruga Journal of the Makassar Religious Education and Training Center*, *Merit International Journal*, *Andragogy Journal of the Education and Training Center*, *Widya Borneo Journal*, *The Banjarmasin Training Center*, *South Kalimantan*, *Nizamia Journal*, *Journal of the University of Iqro Buru (Uniqbu)*, and wrote some books. You can connect with the writer via email silawanehanafi@gmail.com.



Muh. Zainal was born in Matajang, December 25, 1972. Currently, he is a supervisor and an instructor/Widyaiswara Madya. He works at BDK Makassar and is the founder of the Matajang Islamic College Foundation. He pursued his Ph.D. of Public Administration at State University of

Makassar in 2014. He has written some books and published some articles; “Organizational changes in the implementation of e-government in Maros District”, *International Journal of Applied Business and Economic Research*, “Integration of the SAMR (Substitution, Augmentation, Modification, and Redefinition) Model at the Makassar Religious Education and Training Center”, *Proceedings of the National Education Committee*, “Optimization of Google Sites as Website-Based Learning Media for Distance Learning, and Digital Competence of Distance Education Participants at Makassar Religious Education and Training Center”, *Journal of Syntax Literacy 2022*. His email address is uak.172ob@gmail.com.



Muliati is a Ph.D. student at Universitas Negeri Makassar. She is a permanent lecturer at the Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Universitas Bosowa, Indonesia. She obtained a Bachelor's Degree in English Education from Universitas Muhammadiyah Makassar and a Master's Degree in English Language Studies from Universitas Hasanuddin, Indonesia. In addition, she also received a Master of Education Degree from Flinders University, Adelaide, South Australia. Her current field is teaching EFL. Her research interests are CBLT, syllabus design, ESP, and teaching methodology. You can connect with the writer via email muliati@universitasbosowa.ac.id.



St. Asriati. Am is a lecturer at Universitas Muhammadiyah Makassar. In 2018, she pursued her doctoral studies in English Education from State University in Makassar, Indonesia. In 2016, she enrolled in the Sandwich Program at Northern Illinois University in Dekalb, Chicago, United States. She is passionate about English teaching, linguistics, and sociolinguistics. <https://orchid.org/0000-0002-5348-7946>. She can be contacted at sittiasriati@unismuh.ac.id.



Vivit Rosmayanti was born in Botta, on June 26, 1987. She is a lecturer at the Department of English Education at Megarezky University Makassar. She obtained a Bachelor's Degree in English Education from Alauddin State Islamic University and a Master's Degree in English Education from Makassar State University. She has currently pursued her doctoral studies in English education

at the Makassar State University Postgraduate Program. She is also active in writing research articles to be published. She is interested in teaching methods in teaching English. He teaches several courses at universities related to teaching methods such as TEFL I, TEFL II, and Microteaching. You can connect with the writer via email vivitoellah@gmail.com.

PEDAGOGICAL
JOURNEYS
AND
OPPORTUNITIES
IN **ENGLISH
LANGUAGE
TEACHING**

uching

Samarinda
Borneo

Penerbit Deepublish (CV BUDI UTAMA)
Jl. Kaliturang Km 9,3 Yogyakarta 55581
Telp/Fax : (0274) 4533427
Anggota IKAPI (076/DIY/2012)
✉ cs@deepublish.co.id
📘 Penerbit Deepublish
📧 @penerbitbuku_deepublish
🌐 www.penerbitdeepublish.com



Kategori : Teachers and Teaching

ISBN 978-623-02-5576-2



9 786230 255762