



INNOVATIONS and Practices

IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION

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FOREWORD

By expressing gratitude to the presence of Allah SWT, for the abundance of His grace and guidance, the Writing of the Book entitled **Innovations and Practices in English Language Education** can be completed. This book discusses Foundations Of English Language Education, Theories Of Language Learning and Acquisition, Curriculum Design For Pronunciation Instruction : Integrating Phonological Awareness In Efl Contexts, Approaches and Methods In Teaching English, Intructional Strategies For Language Skills Development, Intelligent Tutoring System and Adaptive Learning In Efl Contexts, Classroom Management and Inclusive Learning Environments, Research Approaches In English Language Education.

This book still has many shortcomings in its preparation. Therefore, we hope for criticism and suggestions to improve and perfect this book in the future. We would like to thank the various parties involved in the process of completing this book. Hopefully, this book will serve as a reliable source of reference and literature that is easy to understand.

Padang, Juli 2026

Writing team

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CHAPTER 1

FOUNDATIONS OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION

Siti Ngaisah, M.Pd.

1.1 Introduction

English language education has become a fundamental pillar in the globalized world, where communication across linguistic and cultural boundaries is increasingly essential. As English functions as an international lingua franca in education, business, science, and technology, its teaching and learning have gained significant attention worldwide. The growing demand for English proficiency has prompted educators and institutions to continuously refine pedagogical practices to ensure effective and meaningful learning outcomes.

The field of English Language Teaching (ELT) is grounded in a dynamic interplay of theories, methodologies, and contextual practices. Over time, it has evolved from traditional, form-focused approaches—such as the Grammar-Translation Method—to more communicative and learner-centered paradigms like Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT). These shifts reflect broader changes in how language is understood—not merely as a system of rules, but as a tool for communication, interaction, and meaning-making.

At its core, English language education is informed by interdisciplinary perspectives, including linguistics, psychology,

sociology, and education. Theoretical frameworks such as behaviourism, cognitivism, constructivism, and sociocultural theory provide insights into how learners acquire language and how instruction can be designed to support this process. These theories emphasize that language learning is not only a cognitive activity but also a social and contextual phenomenon shaped by interaction, culture, and experience.

In addition, contemporary English language education highlights the importance of developing communicative competence, which encompasses not only grammatical accuracy but also the ability to use language appropriately in various social contexts. This perspective underscores the integration of language skills—listening, speaking, reading, and writing—alongside linguistic components such as vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation.

Furthermore, the rapid advancement of technology and the increasing diversity of learners have introduced new challenges and opportunities in English language education. Digital tools, online learning environments, and artificial intelligence are reshaping how English is taught and learned, enabling more personalized, flexible, and interactive learning experiences. As a result, educators are required to balance strong theoretical foundations with innovative practices to meet the needs of 21st-century learners.

This chapter aims to provide a comprehensive overview of the foundations of English language education by examining its historical development, theoretical underpinnings, key components, and guiding principles. By understanding these foundational aspects, educators and researchers can better design, implement, and evaluate effective English language teaching practices that are responsive to both local and global contexts.

1.2 Historical Development of English Language Education

The historical development of English Language Education (ELE) reflects continuous shifts in linguistic theories, educational philosophies, and societal needs. Over time, approaches to teaching English have evolved from form-focused and teacher-centered methods to more communicative, learner-centered, and context-based practices. Understanding this evolution provides a critical foundation for analyzing current innovations in English language teaching.

1.2.1 Grammar-Translation Method (GTM)

The Grammar-Translation Method is one of the earliest approaches to language teaching, widely used in the 18th and 19th centuries. Rooted in the teaching of classical languages such as Latin and Greek, this method emphasizes the mastery of grammatical rules and the translation of texts between the target language and the learners' native language. Instruction is typically conducted in the mother tongue, with a strong focus on reading and writing skills rather than speaking and listening. Although GTM has been criticized for its lack of communicative practice, it contributed to the development of structured language instruction and grammatical awareness (Richards & Rodgers, 2014).

1.2.2 Direct Method

The Direct Method emerged in the late 19th century as a reaction against the limitations of GTM. This approach emphasizes the use of the target language exclusively in the classroom, promoting oral communication and inductive grammar learning. Vocabulary and structures are taught through demonstration, real-life situations, and visual aids rather than translation. The Direct Method prioritizes

listening and speaking skills, reflecting a more naturalistic view of language acquisition (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011).

1.2.3 Audio-Lingual Method (ALM)

Developed in the mid-20th century, the Audio-Lingual Method is grounded in behaviorist psychology and structural linguistics. It views language learning as a process of habit formation achieved through repetition, drilling, and reinforcement. Learners practice sentence patterns through dialogues and mimicry, aiming to develop accurate pronunciation and grammatical structures. Despite its effectiveness in developing certain language habits, ALM has been criticized for its limited focus on meaning and real-life communication (Brown, 2007).

1.2.4 Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

In the 1970s, Communicative Language Teaching marked a significant paradigm shift in language education. CLT emphasizes the development of communicative competence, which includes not only grammatical accuracy but also sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competence. Language is viewed as a tool for communication, and classroom activities focus on interaction, authentic materials, and real-life tasks. This approach places learners at the center of the learning process and encourages meaningful communication (Savignon, 2002; Richards & Rodgers, 2014).

1.2.5 Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT)

Task-Based Language Teaching is an extension of CLT that focuses on the use of meaningful tasks as the core unit of instruction. In TBLT, learners engage in activities that require them to use language to achieve specific outcomes, such as solving problems or

completing projects. This approach emphasizes fluency, interaction, and the practical use of language in real-world contexts. TBLT supports the idea that language is best learned through use rather than through explicit instruction alone (Nunan, 2004).

1.2.6 Post-Method Era and Contemporary Approaches

In recent decades, English language education has entered what is often referred to as the “post-method era.” This perspective rejects the notion of a single best method and instead promotes a flexible, context-sensitive approach to teaching. Teachers are encouraged to adapt strategies based on learners’ needs, cultural contexts, and institutional goals. Contemporary approaches also integrate technology, learner autonomy, and differentiated instruction, reflecting the demands of 21st-century education (Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Richards, 2017).

1.3 Theoretical Foundations

The theoretical foundations of English Language Education (ELE) provide essential insights into how languages are learned and how teaching practices can be designed effectively. These foundations are rooted in interdisciplinary fields such as linguistics, psychology, and education. Over time, several major learning theories have shaped the development of English Language Teaching (ELT), influencing classroom methodologies, instructional design, and learner engagement. Among the most influential are behaviorism, cognitivism, constructivism, and sociocultural theory.

1.3.1 Behaviorism

Behaviorism, primarily associated with scholars such as B. F. Skinner, views learning as a process of habit formation based on

stimulus-response mechanisms. In this perspective, language learning occurs through repetition, imitation, and reinforcement. Correct responses are reinforced positively, while errors are discouraged.

In English language education, behaviorism influenced the development of methods such as the Audio-Lingual Method (ALM), where learners practice language patterns through drills and memorization. Although behaviorism contributed to structured practice and pronunciation accuracy, it has been criticized for neglecting learners' cognitive processes and the meaningful use of language in real-life communication (Brown, 2007).

1.3.2 Cognitivism

Cognitivism emerged as a response to behaviorism, emphasizing the importance of internal mental processes in learning. This theory views learners as active participants who process, store, and retrieve information. Language learning is understood as a rule-based system in which learners develop linguistic competence through understanding patterns and structures.

In ELT, cognitivism highlights the role of meaningful learning, problem-solving, and the organization of knowledge. It supports instructional strategies that encourage learners to notice language forms, understand grammatical rules, and apply them in various contexts. This perspective also underpins approaches that integrate both form-focused and meaning-focused instruction (Lightbown & Spada, 2013).

1.3.3 Constructivism

Constructivism posits that learners actively construct knowledge through experience and interaction with their environment.

Learning is seen as a dynamic and personal process, where individuals build new knowledge based on prior understanding.

In the context of English language education, constructivism promotes learner-centered approaches, collaborative learning, and authentic tasks. Teachers act as facilitators who guide learners in constructing meaning rather than simply transmitting knowledge. Activities such as group discussions, project-based learning, and problem-solving tasks reflect constructivist principles. This theory also supports the integration of real-life contexts to make learning more meaningful and engaging (Bruner, 1966).

1.3.4 Sociocultural Theory

Sociocultural theory, developed by Lev Vygotsky, emphasizes the role of social interaction and cultural context in learning. According to this theory, language development occurs through interaction with others, particularly more knowledgeable individuals such as teachers or peers.

A key concept in sociocultural theory is the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), which refers to the gap between what learners can do independently and what they can achieve with guidance. Scaffolding—temporary support provided by teachers—is essential in helping learners progress within this zone.

In English language education, sociocultural theory underpins collaborative learning, peer interaction, and dialogic teaching. It highlights the importance of communication, social context, and cultural relevance in language acquisition (Vygotsky, 1978).

1.3.5 Implications for English Language Teaching

The integration of these theoretical perspectives has significantly shaped modern ELT practices. Rather than relying on a single theory, contemporary approaches combine elements from multiple frameworks to address diverse learner needs. For example:

- Behaviorism contributes to structured practice and repetition.
- Cognitivism supports understanding and internalization of language rules.
- Constructivism encourages active, learner-centered engagement.
- Sociocultural theory emphasizes interaction and collaborative learning.

This integrative approach allows educators to design more effective, flexible, and context-sensitive teaching strategies that support both linguistic competence and communicative ability.

1.4 Key Components of English Language Education

English Language Education (ELE) consists of several interrelated components that work together to develop learners' overall communicative ability. These components include language skills, language systems (or elements), and communicative competence. A comprehensive understanding of these key components enables educators to design balanced and effective instructional practices that address both accuracy and fluency in language use.

1.4.1 Language Skills

The foundation of English language education lies in the development of four primary language skills: listening, speaking,

reading, and writing. These skills are typically divided into receptive and productive categories.

Listening is a receptive skill that involves understanding spoken language. It plays a crucial role in language acquisition, as it provides input that learners use to develop other skills. Effective listening instruction includes exposure to authentic materials, varied accents, and contextualized audio input.

Speaking is a productive skill that enables learners to express ideas, opinions, and emotions orally. It requires not only linguistic knowledge but also confidence and fluency. Communicative activities such as discussions, role-plays, and presentations are commonly used to develop speaking skills.

Reading is a receptive skill that involves interpreting written texts. It supports vocabulary development, grammatical awareness, and critical thinking. Reading instruction often includes strategies such as skimming, scanning, and inferencing.

Writing is a productive skill that requires learners to organize and express ideas in written form. It involves mastery of grammar, vocabulary, coherence, and cohesion. Writing tasks range from controlled exercises to more complex compositions such as essays and reports.

In modern pedagogy, these four skills are often integrated to reflect authentic language use, where multiple skills are used simultaneously in real-life communication (Harmer, 2007).

1.4.2 Language Systems (Language Components)

In addition to language skills, learners must acquire knowledge of the underlying systems of the English language. These include grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation.

Grammar refers to the set of rules that govern sentence structure and word formation. It provides the framework for constructing meaningful and accurate expressions.

Vocabulary encompasses the words and phrases that learners need to communicate effectively. Vocabulary development is essential for all four language skills and is closely linked to learners' ability to comprehend and produce language.

Pronunciation involves the correct production of sounds, stress, rhythm, and intonation patterns in spoken English. It is vital for intelligibility and effective communication.

These language systems are not taught in isolation but are integrated into meaningful contexts to support communicative use (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011).

1.4.3 Communicative Competence

A central goal of English language education is the development of communicative competence, which goes beyond grammatical knowledge to include the ability to use language appropriately in different contexts. According to communicative language theory, communicative competence consists of several components:

- **Grammatical Competence:** Knowledge of vocabulary, grammar, and sentence structure.

- Sociolinguistic Competence: Ability to use language appropriately based on social and cultural context.
- Discourse Competence: Ability to produce coherent and cohesive spoken or written texts.
- Strategic Competence: Ability to use communication strategies to overcome difficulties or gaps in knowledge.

This framework highlights that effective communication requires not only linguistic accuracy but also contextual appropriateness and interactional skills (Savignon, 2002).

1.4.4 Integration of Skills and Components

Effective English language teaching integrates language skills and systems within meaningful communicative contexts. Rather than teaching skills or components separately, modern approaches emphasize:

- Task-based activities that combine multiple skills
- Contextualized grammar and vocabulary instruction
- Authentic materials that reflect real-world language use
- Learner-centered activities that promote interaction

This integrated approach aligns with contemporary methodologies such as Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT), which prioritize meaningful communication and real-life application of language (Richards & Rodgers, 2014).

1.4.5 Implications for Teaching Practice

Understanding the key components of English language education has important implications for classroom practice. Teachers should:

- Design balanced lessons that address all four language skills
- Integrate grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation into communicative activities
- Provide opportunities for meaningful interaction and collaboration
- Use authentic and contextually relevant materials
- Assess both linguistic accuracy and communicative effectiveness

By addressing these components holistically, educators can support learners in achieving both fluency and accuracy in English.

1.5 Principles of Effective English Language Teaching

Effective English Language Teaching (ELT) is grounded in a set of pedagogical principles that guide teachers in designing, implementing, and evaluating meaningful learning experiences. These principles reflect insights from language acquisition theories, classroom research, and best practices in education. By applying these principles, educators can create learning environments that foster both linguistic competence and communicative ability.

1.5.1 Learner-Centeredness

A fundamental principle of effective ELT is the focus on learners' needs, interests, backgrounds, and proficiency levels.

Learner-centered instruction shifts the role of the teacher from knowledge transmitter to facilitator of learning. It encourages active participation, autonomy, and engagement.

Teachers are expected to adapt materials, activities, and assessment strategies to accommodate diverse learners. Differentiated instruction and personalized learning are key practices that support this principle (Nunan, 2004).

1.5.2 Meaningful Communication

Language is best learned when it is used for meaningful communication rather than isolated practice of forms. Effective ELT emphasizes authentic language use, where learners engage in tasks that reflect real-life situations.

Activities such as role-plays, discussions, problem-solving tasks, and project-based learning allow learners to use English purposefully. This principle aligns with Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), which prioritizes fluency and interaction alongside accuracy (Richards & Rodgers, 2014).

1.5.3 Integration of Language Skills

In real-world communication, language skills are rarely used in isolation. Therefore, effective ELT integrates listening, speaking, reading, and writing within a single lesson or activity.

For example, learners may listen to a conversation, discuss it with peers, read related texts, and produce written responses. This integrated approach enhances comprehension and reinforces language learning across multiple modalities (Harmer, 2007).

1.5.4 Focus on Both Fluency and Accuracy

A balanced approach to language teaching considers both fluency (the ability to communicate smoothly) and accuracy (the correct use of language forms). Overemphasis on one at the expense of the other can hinder learners' development.

Teachers should provide opportunities for free expression while also offering corrective feedback to improve grammatical and lexical accuracy. This balance is essential for developing communicative competence (Brown, 2007).

1.5.5 Interaction and Collaboration

Interaction plays a central role in language learning, as it provides opportunities for learners to negotiate meaning, clarify understanding, and receive feedback. Collaborative activities such as pair work, group discussions, and peer teaching enhance language development.

This principle is strongly supported by sociocultural theory, which emphasizes the importance of social interaction and scaffolding in learning (Vygotsky, 1978).

1.5.6 Contextualization of Language

Language should be taught within meaningful and relevant contexts rather than in isolation. Contextualization helps learners understand how language is used in real-life situations, making learning more meaningful and memorable.

Using authentic materials such as videos, articles, and real-world scenarios allows learners to connect classroom learning with practical use (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011).

1.5.7 Continuous Feedback and Assessment

Assessment is an integral part of the teaching-learning process. Effective ELT incorporates both formative and summative assessment to monitor learners' progress and inform instruction.

Feedback should be timely, constructive, and specific, helping learners identify their strengths and areas for improvement. Self-assessment and peer assessment also promote learner autonomy and reflection (Brown, 2007).

1.5.8 Use of Technology and Innovation

In the 21st century, technology plays a crucial role in enhancing English language teaching. Digital tools, online platforms, and artificial intelligence provide opportunities for interactive, flexible, and personalized learning.

Teachers are encouraged to integrate technology meaningfully to support engagement, collaboration, and access to authentic resources. This principle reflects the growing importance of digital literacy in modern education (Godwin-Jones, 2018).

1.5.9 Encouraging Learner Autonomy

Effective ELT promotes learner autonomy by encouraging students to take responsibility for their own learning. Autonomous learners are more motivated, self-directed, and capable of continuing learning beyond the classroom.

Strategies such as goal setting, self-monitoring, and independent learning tasks help develop autonomy and lifelong learning skills (Little, 1991).

1.5.10 Cultural Awareness and Inclusivity

Language learning is closely linked to culture. Effective ELT fosters intercultural awareness by exposing learners to diverse cultural perspectives and practices.

Inclusive teaching practices ensure that all learners feel respected and valued, regardless of their backgrounds. This principle supports the development of global competence and intercultural communication skills.

Conclusion of Principles

These principles collectively provide a comprehensive framework for effective English language teaching. By integrating learner-centered approaches, meaningful communication, interaction, and innovation, educators can create dynamic and responsive learning environments that meet the needs of diverse learners in a globalized world.

1.6 The Role of Teachers and Learners

In contemporary English Language Education (ELE), the roles of teachers and learners have evolved significantly in response to advances in language learning theories and pedagogical practices. Traditional teacher-centered models, where teachers were the primary source of knowledge, have gradually shifted toward more learner-centered approaches that emphasize active participation,

collaboration, and autonomy. Understanding these roles is essential for creating effective and meaningful language learning environments.

1.6.1 The Role of Teachers

In modern English language classrooms, teachers are no longer viewed merely as transmitters of knowledge but as facilitators, guides, and designers of learning experiences. Their responsibilities extend beyond delivering content to creating supportive environments that foster interaction, engagement, and meaningful communication.

One key role of the teacher is as a facilitator of learning. Teachers guide students in constructing their own understanding by providing appropriate input, designing communicative tasks, and encouraging participation. This aligns with learner-centered and constructivist approaches, where the teacher supports rather than dominates the learning process.

Teachers also act as classroom managers, organizing activities, managing time effectively, and maintaining a positive learning atmosphere. Effective classroom management ensures that all learners have opportunities to participate and benefit from the lesson.

Another important role is that of a language model. Teachers provide accurate examples of pronunciation, grammar, and language use, which learners can imitate and internalize. In addition, teachers serve as assessors, monitoring learners' progress through both formal and informal assessment and providing constructive feedback to support improvement.

Furthermore, teachers function as motivators and mentors, encouraging learners to stay engaged and confident in their language learning journey. By understanding learners' needs and interests,

teachers can create meaningful and relevant learning experiences that enhance motivation (Harmer, 2007).

In the digital era, teachers also take on the role of technology integrators, incorporating digital tools and online resources into their teaching to enhance interaction, accessibility, and personalization of learning (Richards, 2017).

1.6.2 The Role of Learners

In contrast to traditional models, learners in modern ELE are expected to play an active and central role in the learning process. They are not passive recipients of knowledge but active participants who construct meaning through engagement, interaction, and reflection.

One primary role of learners is as active participants. Learners engage in communicative activities, collaborate with peers, and practice language in meaningful contexts. Active participation enhances language acquisition and helps learners develop confidence in using English.

Learners are also expected to be autonomous learners, taking responsibility for their own learning. This includes setting goals, monitoring progress, and seeking opportunities to practice English beyond the classroom. Learner autonomy is essential for lifelong learning and continued language development (Little, 1991).

Another important role is that of a collaborator. Through pair work and group activities, learners interact with others, negotiate meaning, and co-construct knowledge. This collaborative process supports both linguistic and social development, in line with sociocultural theory.

Learners also act as problem-solvers and critical thinkers, especially in task-based and project-based learning environments. They use language as a tool to solve problems, express ideas, and engage with authentic materials.

1.6.3 Teacher–Learner Interaction

Effective English language education depends on dynamic and meaningful interaction between teachers and learners. This interaction creates opportunities for negotiation of meaning, clarification, and feedback, all of which are essential for language development.

The concept of scaffolding, derived from sociocultural theory, highlights how teachers support learners by providing guidance and gradually reducing assistance as learners become more independent. Through this process, learners can achieve higher levels of proficiency within their Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) (Vygotsky, 1978).

Positive teacher–learner relationships also contribute to a supportive learning environment, where learners feel comfortable taking risks and making mistakes. Such an environment fosters confidence, motivation, and willingness to communicate.

1.6.4 Implications for English Language Teaching

The evolving roles of teachers and learners have several important implications for classroom practice:

- Teachers should adopt flexible roles, shifting between facilitator, instructor, and mentor as needed.

- Learners should be encouraged to take responsibility for their learning and actively participate in classroom activities.
- Instruction should promote interaction, collaboration, and meaningful communication.
- Technology should be integrated to support both teaching and autonomous learning.
- Assessment practices should involve both teacher feedback and learner self-reflection.

By aligning teaching practices with these roles, educators can create more effective, engaging, and learner-centered English language classrooms.

CHAPTER 2

THEORIES OF LANGUAGE LEARNING AND ACQUISITION

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2.1 Introduction

Language learning and acquisition form the theoretical foundation for developing linguistic competence and communicative ability in English Language Education (ELE). These perspectives guide curriculum design, instructional strategies, assessment, and classroom interaction, especially as English functions globally across education, research, and digital communication (Hummel, 2021; Ortega, 2023). Contemporary learning environments, integrating digital technologies, AI, and online platforms, require teachers to address cognitive, social, affective, and technological dimensions simultaneously (Ellis & Wulff, 2023).

A key distinction in second language education is between language learning, the conscious study of linguistic rules, and language acquisition, the implicit development through meaningful exposure and interaction (Krashen, 1982). Modern research emphasizes that these processes often interact, shaped by learner differences, instructional context, motivation, and authentic communication opportunities (Loewen, 2021).

Theoretical perspectives have evolved from behaviorism, focusing on habit formation, to cognitive, constructivist, and sociocultural approaches, which emphasize mental processing, active knowledge construction, and socially mediated learning (Hummel,

2021; Lantolf et al., 2022). Krashen's Monitor Model highlights the importance of comprehensible input and low affective barriers, influencing learner-centered and communicative pedagogy (Krashen, 1982; Jegerski, 2021). Similarly, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) promotes authentic interaction, task-based learning, and learner-centered instruction, integrating digital resources and collaborative activities (Richards, 2022).

No single theory fully explains language acquisition; each offers insights and limitations. Contemporary scholarship advocates integrative approaches, combining behaviorist, cognitive, constructivist, sociocultural, and communicative perspectives to design responsive, effective, and context-sensitive English language instruction (Ellis & Wulff, 2023). This chapter critically reviews these theories, their historical development, pedagogical contributions, and practical implications, providing a comprehensive framework to support evidence-based teaching in evolving educational contexts.

2.2 Historical Development of Language Learning Theories

The historical development of language learning theories reflects the continuous evolution of scholarly perspectives on how humans acquire, process, and use language. Early twentieth-century approaches were dominated by behaviorism, emphasizing observable performance, repetition, imitation, and reinforcement to establish correct linguistic habits. While these principles influenced instructional practices worldwide, Chomsky (1959) challenged their explanatory power by demonstrating humans' capacity for novel utterances beyond memorized patterns.



Figures 1.1 Timeline: The Historical Development of Language Learning Theories

The rise of cognitive perspectives shifted attention to internal mental processes such as perception, memory, attention, and problem-solving, highlighting learners as active participants who organize and process linguistic knowledge. Recent SLA studies confirm that cognitive engagement and strategic learning significantly impact comprehension, retention, and application across communicative contexts (Lightbown & Spada, 2024).

Constructivist approaches further emphasized active knowledge construction through meaningful participation, integrating new information with prior understanding. This led to learner-centered methods such as inquiry-based learning, authentic tasks, and reflective practice, fostering autonomy and adaptive language use (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2022).

Sociocultural perspectives, rooted in Vygotskian theory, broadened understanding by highlighting interaction, collaboration, and cultural mediation. Effective language development occurs when learners engage socially and receive appropriate scaffolding, supported by peer collaboration and technology-mediated communication (Lantolf et al., 2022).

The formalization of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) as a research field integrated insights from applied linguistics, psycholinguistics, educational psychology, corpus linguistics, and neuroscience. Modern SLA research emphasizes multidimensional frameworks that consider the interaction of input, cognition, motivation, affect, and contextual variables (Ellis & Wulff, 2023; Loewen, 2021).

Technological innovations have further transformed language learning contexts. Digital platforms, AI-assisted tools, mobile-assisted language learning, and adaptive systems enable personalized instruction, immediate feedback, collaborative interaction, and authentic exposure beyond traditional classrooms (Godwin-Jones, 2022; Chapelle, 2023).

Overall, the historical progression of language learning theories demonstrates a shift from narrow, behavior-focused explanations toward integrated frameworks that recognize cognitive, social, affective, and technological dimensions. These complementary perspectives provide essential foundations for evidence-based English language pedagogy and inform the subsequent examination of individual theories in this chapter.

2.3 Behaviorism Theory

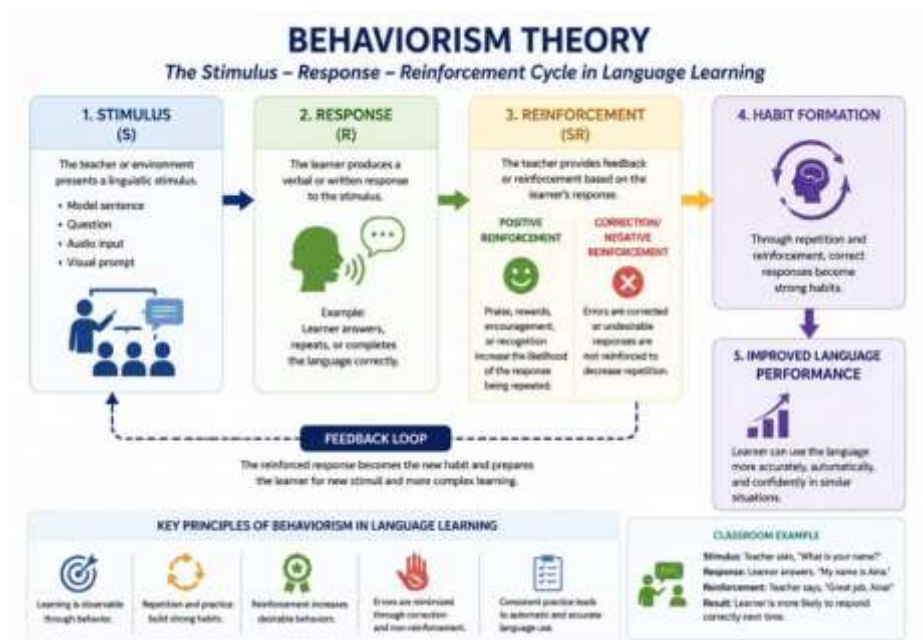
Behaviorism was one of the earliest psychological paradigms to exert a substantial influence on language learning and teaching practices. Rooted in the assumption that learning is reflected through observable behavioral changes, behaviorism conceptualizes language acquisition as the result of repeated interactions between environmental stimuli and learner responses. Within this perspective, successful learning occurs when appropriate linguistic behaviors are reinforced, gradually leading to the establishment of stable language habits. Although the theory emerged in the early twentieth century, its pedagogical influence remains evident in contemporary instructional practices that emphasize repetition, corrective feedback, and systematic practice (Mackey & Gass, 2022).

The application of behaviorist principles to language learning is primarily associated with the work of B. F. Skinner, who proposed that verbal behavior develops through operant conditioning in which responses are strengthened by positive reinforcement (Skinner, 1957). According to this view, learners acquire language by imitating linguistic models, practicing target structures repeatedly, and receiving reinforcement for correct performance. Errors are interpreted as undesirable behaviors that should be minimized through immediate correction and continued practice. While later theoretical developments questioned the sufficiency of this explanation, Skinner's work provided one of the earliest systematic attempts to explain language learning from a scientific perspective.

Contemporary scholarship generally regards behaviorism as an important historical foundation rather than a comprehensive explanation of second language acquisition. Recent reviews indicate that repetitive exposure and reinforcement continue to facilitate

procedural learning, particularly in the development of pronunciation accuracy, vocabulary retention, and grammatical automatisisation. Through repeated retrieval and structured practice, learners strengthen neural pathways associated with linguistic processing, thereby reducing cognitive demands during communication. Consequently, several instructional techniques traditionally associated with behaviorism continue to be integrated into modern language classrooms, albeit alongside cognitive and communicative approaches (Ellis & Wulff, 2023).

The influence of behaviorism is particularly evident in the Audio-Lingual Method (ALM), which became widely adopted in foreign language education during the mid-twentieth century. ALM emphasizes dialogue memorization, substitution drills, repetition exercises, and intensive oral practice to establish correct linguistic patterns. Although communicative approaches have largely replaced ALM as the dominant methodology, many of its instructional components remain relevant when used selectively. For example, pronunciation training often benefits from repetitive modeling and immediate corrective feedback, while vocabulary acquisition may be enhanced through spaced repetition and frequent retrieval practice supported by digital learning platforms (Richards, 2022).



Figures 2.2 Behaviorism Theory

Advances in educational technology have also prompted a reconsideration of behaviorist principles within technology-enhanced language learning. Mobile applications and adaptive learning systems commonly incorporate reinforcement mechanisms such as instant feedback, progress indicators, achievement badges, and repeated practice cycles. These features encourage learners to revisit previously studied materials and consolidate linguistic knowledge through continuous engagement. Rather than representing a return to traditional behaviorism, such innovations illustrate how selected behaviorist concepts can be integrated with cognitive and learner-centered pedagogies to improve learning efficiency in digitally mediated environments (Godwin-Jones, 2022).

Despite its practical contributions, behaviorism has been subject to substantial criticism from both linguistic and educational researchers. One of the principal limitations concerns its inability to explain learners' capacity to generate novel utterances and interpret meaning in complex communicative situations. Language use involves creativity, inferencing, contextual interpretation, and strategic interaction that extend beyond stimulus-response conditioning. Furthermore, contemporary second language acquisition research emphasizes the importance of learner cognition, motivation, social interaction, and affective factors, dimensions that receive relatively limited attention within traditional behaviorist explanations (Ortega, 2023).

From a pedagogical perspective, behaviorism should therefore be regarded as one component within a broader theoretical framework rather than as an exclusive instructional philosophy. Structured repetition and reinforcement remain beneficial for developing foundational linguistic skills, especially among beginning learners who require frequent exposure to target language forms. However, these practices become more effective when combined with communicative tasks, collaborative activities, and opportunities for meaningful language use that encourage higher-order thinking and authentic interaction. Such integration reflects the contemporary consensus that effective English language education requires a balanced application of complementary theoretical perspectives rather than adherence to a single learning paradigm.

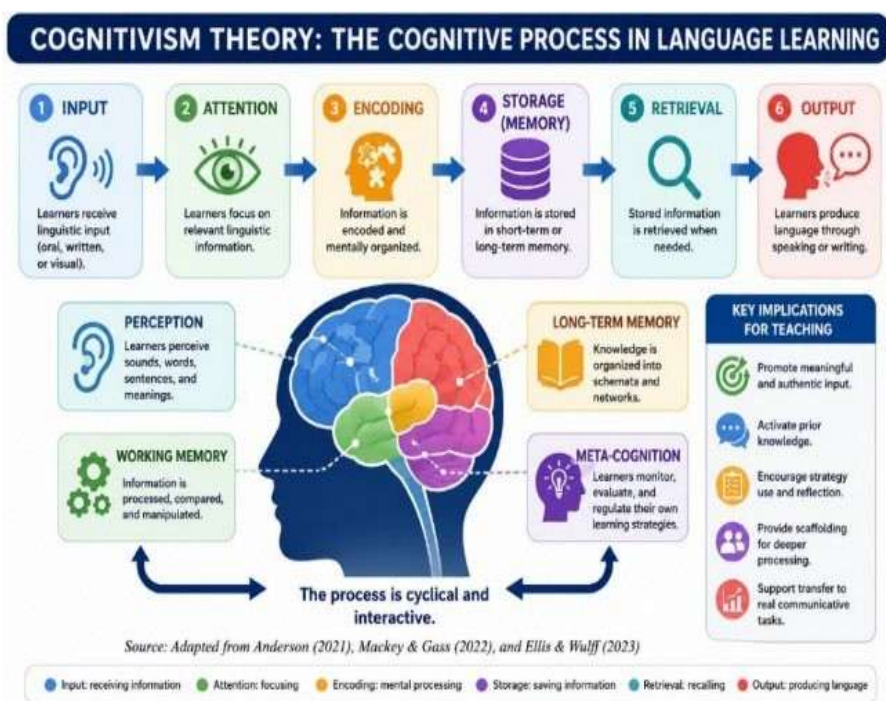
2.4 Cognitivism Theory

A key figure in the development of cognitive theory was Jean Piaget, whose work on cognitive development demonstrated that learners construct knowledge by interacting with their environment

and building mental representations (Piaget, 1952). In the context of language learning, cognitive models suggest that learners must actively process linguistic input, compare it to prior knowledge, and apply cognitive strategies to understand and produce language. This emphasis on mental processing inspired instructional practices that engage learners in tasks requiring analysis, reflection, and problem-solving, rather than rote memorization (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2022).

In modern second language acquisition research, cognitive theories have been integrated with findings from psycholinguistics and neuroscience. These approaches explain how learners attend to linguistic input, encode it in memory, and retrieve it when needed for communication. For example, Ellis and Wulff (2023) argue that cognitive processing influences both implicit learning, where patterns are subconsciously internalized, and explicit learning, where grammar rules and vocabulary are consciously studied. Thus, effective language teaching strategies often balance both implicit exposure to authentic language use and explicit instruction of linguistic rules.

Additionally, technology has amplified the cognitive approach by providing tools that support mental processing. Adaptive learning systems, interactive exercises, and data-driven feedback allow learners to engage with language input, reflect on their progress, and apply cognitive strategies to navigate complex linguistic tasks. This intersection of technology and cognitive theory offers new opportunities for personalized language learning, where learners can engage in deliberate practice and self-regulated learning (Godwin-Jones, 2022).



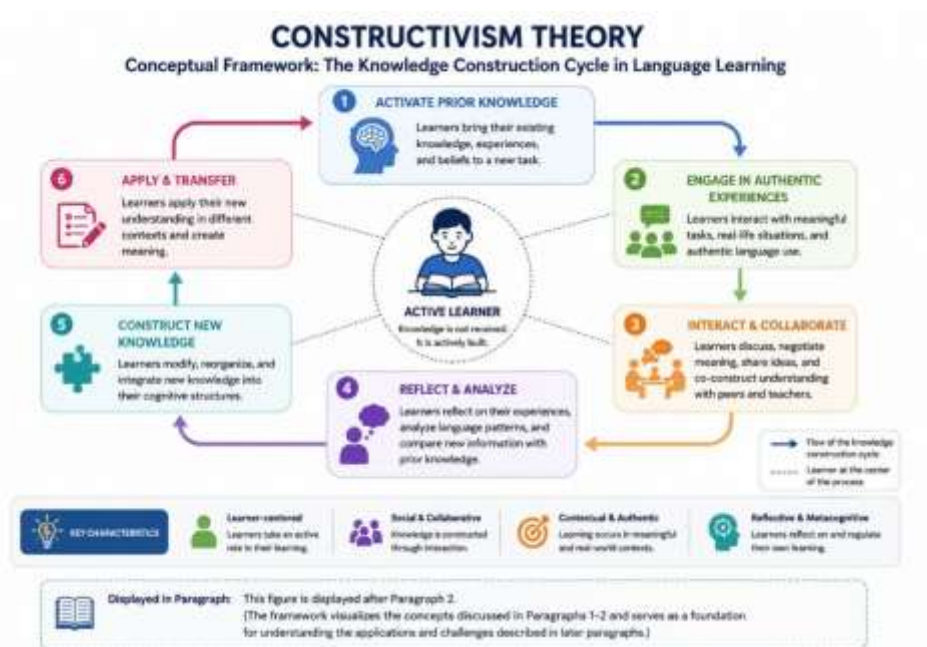
Figures 2.3 Cognitivism Theory : The Cognitive Process in Language Learning

In summary, cognitivism frames language learning as a dynamic process of mental construction, guided by attention, memory, and problem-solving. While it does not dismiss the value of repeated practice, it emphasizes that learners actively interpret, organize, and apply linguistic knowledge. By combining cognitive insights with contemporary educational technology, modern language pedagogy fosters deeper engagement, critical thinking, and flexible use of language in varied contexts.

2.5 Constructivism Theory

Constructivism emerged as an influential learning theory that emphasizes learners' active role in constructing knowledge through experience, interaction, and reflection. Unlike behaviorist perspectives that focus on observable responses or cognitive theories that primarily examine internal information processing, constructivism argues that knowledge is not passively transmitted from teachers to students but is actively built through meaningful engagement with learning environments. In English language education, this perspective encourages learners to become active participants who continuously interpret and reconstruct linguistic knowledge based on prior experiences and authentic communicative situations (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2022).

The theoretical foundations of constructivism are commonly associated with the work of Jean Piaget, who proposed that learning occurs through the processes of assimilation and accommodation as individuals adapt new information to existing cognitive structures (Piaget, 1952). However, contemporary educational research has expanded this perspective by emphasizing learner-centered instruction, inquiry-based learning, and experiential activities that encourage critical thinking and knowledge construction. Rather than memorizing isolated grammar rules or vocabulary lists, learners are encouraged to explore language through contextualized tasks that promote deeper conceptual understanding and long-term retention (Powell & Kalina, 2021).



Figures 2.4 Constructivism Theory

Within English language classrooms, constructivist principles are reflected in instructional practices that prioritize collaboration, project-based learning, problem-solving activities, and authentic communication. Students are encouraged to negotiate meaning, express personal opinions, and connect classroom materials with real-life experiences. Such approaches enable learners to develop not only linguistic competence but also creativity, autonomy, and higher-order thinking skills. Recent studies suggest that constructivist learning environments significantly improve student engagement and motivation because learners perceive themselves as active contributors rather than passive recipients of knowledge (Kirschner & Hendrick, 2024).

The integration of digital technologies has further strengthened the relevance of constructivism in modern language education. Online collaborative platforms, virtual discussion forums, digital storytelling applications, and project-based multimedia assignments provide opportunities for learners to co-construct knowledge while interacting with peers and instructors beyond traditional classroom settings. Technology-enhanced constructivist learning environments also facilitate reflective practice and personalized learning experiences, enabling students to develop language proficiency through meaningful participation and continuous feedback (Kohnke & Moorhouse, 2023).

Despite its substantial contributions, constructivism also presents practical challenges for educators. Effective implementation requires careful instructional design, sufficient learner support, and classroom environments that encourage collaboration without sacrificing conceptual clarity. Excessive reliance on unguided discovery learning may lead to misconceptions or cognitive overload, particularly among novice learners who require structured guidance. Consequently, many contemporary scholars advocate guided constructivism, in which teachers serve as facilitators who provide scaffolding while allowing learners to actively construct understanding through inquiry and interaction (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2022).

Overall, constructivism offers a valuable framework for understanding language learning as an active, contextualized, and socially meaningful process. Its emphasis on learner autonomy, authentic experiences, and collaborative knowledge construction aligns closely with current trends in English language education that seek to develop communicative competence alongside critical thinking and lifelong learning skills. Rather than functioning

independently, constructivist principles are increasingly integrated with cognitive and sociocultural perspectives to create more comprehensive and adaptive instructional practices suitable for twenty-first-century language classrooms.

2.6 Krashen's Second Language Acquisition Theory

Stephen Krashen's Second Language Acquisition (SLA) Theory remains one of the most influential frameworks in applied linguistics and English language education. Developed during the late twentieth century, the theory introduced a learner-centered perspective that distinguishes subconscious language acquisition from conscious language learning. Krashen argued that individuals acquire a second language most effectively through meaningful exposure to comprehensible input rather than through explicit instruction alone (Krashen, 1982). Although several components of the theory have generated scholarly debate, its contribution continues to shape communicative pedagogy and contemporary approaches to second language teaching (Loewen, 2021).

The theory is widely recognized through its Monitor Model, which consists of five interrelated hypotheses: the Acquisition–Learning Hypothesis, the Monitor Hypothesis, the Natural Order Hypothesis, the Input Hypothesis, and the Affective Filter Hypothesis. Collectively, these hypotheses explain that language development is facilitated when learners receive input slightly above their current proficiency level ($i + 1$), while maintaining low levels of anxiety and high levels of motivation. Rather than emphasizing rote memorization of grammatical rules, the model prioritizes meaningful communication and authentic language exposure as the primary mechanisms for developing linguistic competence (Ortega, 2023).



Source: Adapted by the author from Krashen (1982), Mackey & Gass (2022), Ortega (2023), Loewen (2021), and Ellis & Wulff (2023).

Figures 2.5 Krashen's Monitor Model

Among the five hypotheses, the Input Hypothesis has received particular attention in contemporary English language education. The hypothesis proposes that learners progress when they are exposed to comprehensible language that is challenging yet understandable with the support of contextual clues, prior knowledge, or instructional scaffolding. Recent research suggests that rich language input combined with interactive classroom activities enhances vocabulary acquisition, reading comprehension, and communicative competence, especially in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) contexts where opportunities for natural language exposure may be limited (Mackey & Gass, 2022).

Equally significant is the Affective Filter Hypothesis, which highlights the influence of emotional factors on language acquisition. Krashen proposed that anxiety, low selfconfidence, and reduced

motivation may function as psychological barriers that prevent learners from effectively processing linguistic input. Contemporary educational studies continue to support the importance of affective variables by demonstrating that supportive classroom environments, positive teacher–student relationships, and collaborative learning activities contribute to improved learner engagement and language achievement. Consequently, creating emotionally safe learning environments has become an essential consideration in learner-centered English language pedagogy (Mercer & Gregersen, 2023).

Despite its enduring influence, Krashen’s theory has also been subject to criticism. Scholars argue that several hypotheses, particularly the distinction between acquisition and learning, remain difficult to verify empirically because the underlying cognitive processes cannot be directly observed. Moreover, recent findings indicate that explicit instruction, corrective feedback, and learner output may contribute more substantially to language development than originally acknowledged by the model. As a result, many researchers advocate integrating Krashen’s emphasis on comprehensible input with broader cognitive and interactionist perspectives that recognize the complementary roles of input, output, attention, and feedback in second language acquisition (Ellis & Wulff, 2023).

In contemporary English language education, Krashen’s SLA Theory is best viewed as a foundational framework that continues to inspire communicative and learner-centered instructional practices. Its emphasis on meaningful exposure, reduced learner anxiety, and authentic communication remains highly relevant, particularly when combined with technological innovations such as digital learning platforms, multimedia resources, and interactive online environments. Rather than functioning as a complete explanation of language

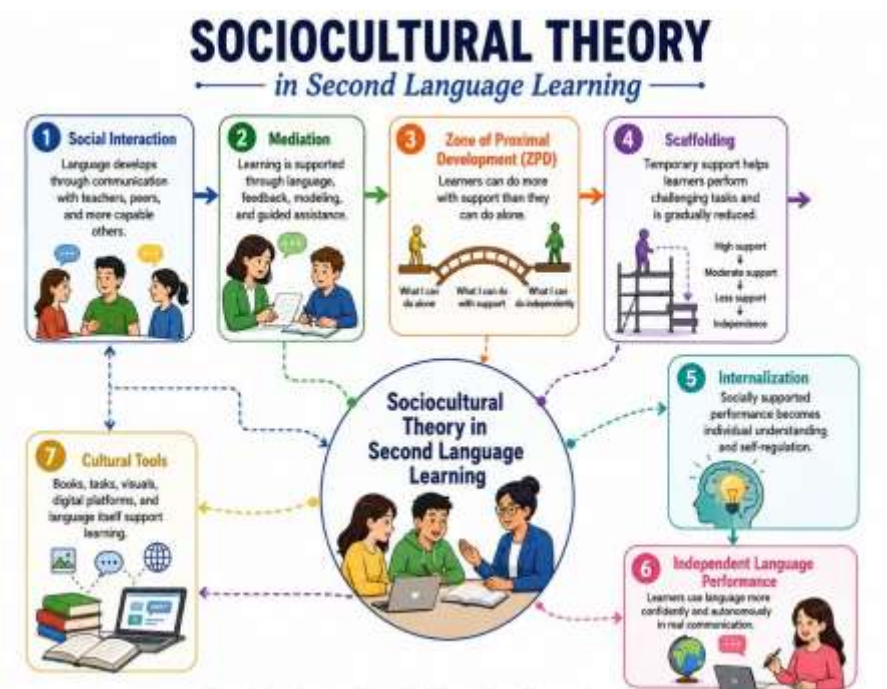
acquisition, the theory provides valuable pedagogical principles that can be integrated with cognitive, constructivist, and sociocultural approaches to support more holistic and effective English language instruction.

2.7 Sociocultural Theory

Sociocultural Theory (SCT) has become one of the most influential perspectives in second language acquisition and English language education because it explains learning not as an isolated mental activity, but as a socially mediated and culturally situated process. Rooted primarily in the work of Vygotsky, this theory argues that human cognitive development emerges through interaction with others and through the use of cultural tools, including language itself (Vygotsky, 1978). In the context of language learning, SCT emphasizes that learners do not develop linguistic competence solely through exposure to input or the internal processing of rules, but through guided participation in meaningful social activity. This perspective has significantly enriched contemporary understandings of how English is learned in classrooms, communities, and increasingly, digital environments (Lightbown & Spada, 2021; Li et al., 2022).

One of the central concepts in Sociocultural Theory is mediation. According to this view, learning is mediated by symbolic and material tools that enable individuals to think, interact, and solve problems. Language is considered the most important mediational tool because it supports communication, reflection, and cognitive regulation. In second language education, mediation occurs when teachers, peers, texts, tasks, or digital resources help learners perform beyond what they could accomplish independently. For example, an English teacher who models sentence patterns, provides guiding questions, or

offers vocabulary prompts is not merely transmitting information, but mediating the learner’s development through structured support. In this sense, language learning is not simply the accumulation of knowledge; it is a process of participation in socially organized meaningmaking (Lantolf, Poehner, & Swain, 2018).



Figures 2.6 Concept map of Sociocultural Theory in second language learning

Another foundational concept is the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), which refers to the distance between what learners can do independently and what they can achieve with assistance from a more capable other (Vygotsky, 1978). Within the ZPD, learning is viewed as developmental rather than merely accumulative. Learners progress when support is carefully calibrated to their current level and gradually withdrawn as competence

increases. In English language classrooms, this principle can be observed when teachers guide students in constructing a paragraph, participating in a discussion, or interpreting a reading text. Initially, the learner may depend on prompts, models, or collaborative dialogue; however, over time, the learner becomes able to perform more autonomously. Thus, the ZPD provides a powerful explanation for why interaction with teachers and peers is central to language development.

Closely related to the ZPD is the concept of scaffolding, which refers to the temporary support provided to learners during the learning process. Although the term itself is more commonly associated with later educational discourse, it aligns closely with Vygotskian principles and has become highly relevant in English language pedagogy. Scaffolding may include simplifying a task, modeling language, asking probing questions, providing visual cues, or giving corrective feedback in ways that encourage learner participation without removing cognitive challenge. In an EFL classroom, for instance, students preparing for a speaking activity may first receive vocabulary support, sentence starters, and peer discussion opportunities before being asked to present independently. Such scaffolded interaction helps learners move from assisted performance to more confident and selfregulated language use (Swain, Kinnear, & Steinman, 2015; Lightbown & Spada, 2021).

Table 2.1 Key concepts and pedagogical implications

Concept	Brief Explanation	Example in English Language Education	Pedagogical Implication
Mediation	Learning is shaped through tools, symbols, and interaction	Teacher prompts, models, and visual aids	Teachers should design supportive learning environments
ZPD	The gap between independent ability and assisted performance	Guided speaking tasks or supported writing activities	Instruction should target learners' developmental potential
Scaffolding	Temporary support to help <u>learners</u> complete tasks	Sentence frames, guided questions, peer support	Support should be gradually reduced as competence grows
Internalization	Socially mediated activity becomes individual competence	A learner first speaks with help, then independently	Repeated supported interaction leads to autonomous performance
Collaborative Dialogue	Learning emerges through shared problem-solving talk	Pair work, peer editing, group discussion	Interaction should be purposeful and cognitively engaging

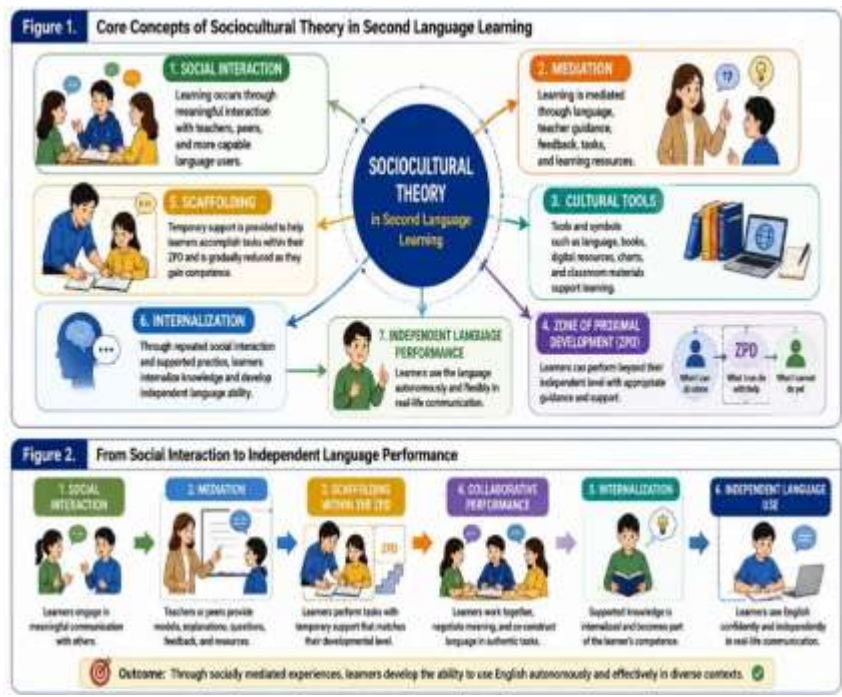
Sociocultural Theory also gives special emphasis to internalization, the process by which socially mediated activity is transformed into individual cognitive capability. From this perspective, language learning begins on the social plane before it becomes internal and self-regulated. Learners first participate in shared meaning-making through dialogue, imitation, or collaboration, and later develop the ability to use language independently. This helps explain why pair work, group tasks, peer feedback, and classroom discussion are not merely communicative techniques, but developmentally significant practices. The notion of collaborative dialogue is especially important here, as learners often refine linguistic understanding while jointly solving language-related

problems. When learners negotiate meaning, question one another, or co-construct utterances, they are simultaneously communicating and learning (Swain et al., 2015; Lantolf et al., 2018).

In contemporary English language education, SCT is particularly relevant because it supports learner-centered, interactive, and context-sensitive pedagogy. It encourages teachers to design activities that foster social participation rather than passive reception. Examples include collaborative writing, problem-based learning, role-play, peer review, project work, and discussion-based reading tasks. In EFL contexts, where exposure to authentic English may be limited, structured classroom interaction becomes especially important as a site of development. Furthermore, the theory remains highly applicable in digital learning environments. Online discussion boards, collaborative documents, virtual breakout rooms, and teacher-mediated feedback platforms can all function as mediational spaces where learners co-construct language knowledge and develop communicative competence (Li et al., 2022).

Nevertheless, Sociocultural Theory is not without limitations. Some scholars argue that its concepts, while theoretically rich, are not always easy to operationalize or measure empirically. Terms such as mediation, scaffolding, and internalization may be interpreted differently across studies, which can make systematic comparison difficult. In addition, an exclusive emphasis on social interaction may risk underestimating the role of individual cognitive differences, attention, or explicit instruction in second language learning. Not all interaction automatically leads to development; the quality of support, the nature of the task, and the learner's readiness all influence the effectiveness of socially mediated learning. Therefore, many contemporary scholars recommend using Sociocultural Theory in dialogue with broader cognitive and communicative perspectives

rather than treating it as a complete explanation of language acquisition (Lightbown & Spada, 2021; Li et al., 2022).



Figures 2.7 From Social Interaction to Independent Language Performance

Overall, Sociocultural Theory provides a powerful framework for understanding language learning as a developmental, interactive, and socially embedded process. Its emphasis on mediation, the ZPD, scaffolding, and internalization offers valuable insights for English language teaching, particularly in contexts that prioritize collaboration, communication, and learner engagement. In relation to the previous discussion of Krashen’s theory, Sociocultural Theory extends the understanding of second language development by showing that meaningful input alone is not sufficient; learners also

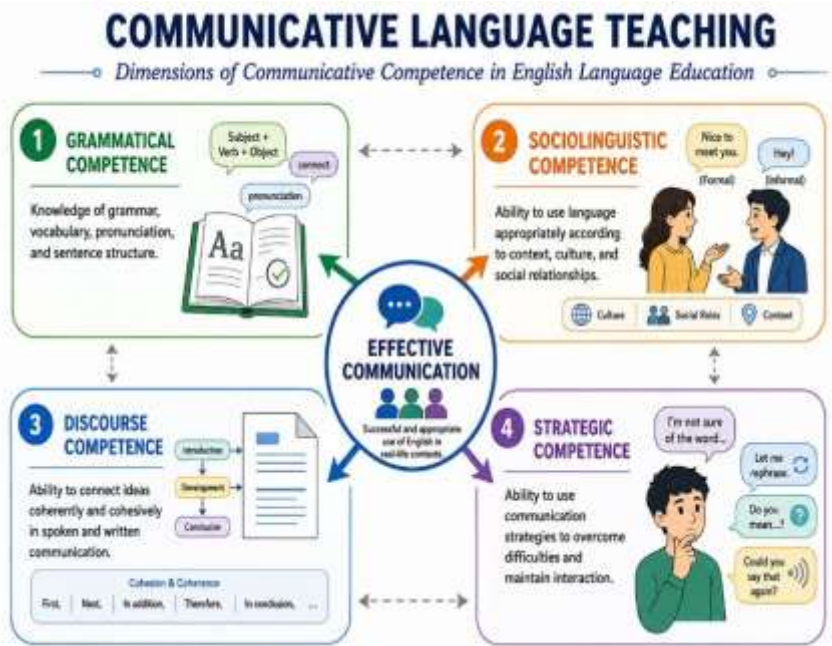
require socially mediated opportunities to use, negotiate, and co-construct language. For this reason, SCT remains highly relevant in contemporary English language education and continues to inform pedagogical practices that seek to combine academic rigor with human interaction and contextual relevance.

2.8 Communicative Language Teaching Perspective

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is one of the most influential perspectives in English language education because it shifts the focus of language teaching from the mastery of linguistic forms to the ability to use language meaningfully and appropriately in real communication. Unlike approaches that prioritize grammatical accuracy through memorization and isolated drills, CLT views language as a tool for interaction, negotiation of meaning, and social participation. This perspective is closely related to the concept of communicative competence, which emphasizes that successful language use requires not only grammatical knowledge but also sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competence (Canale & Swain, 1980). In contemporary English language education, CLT remains highly relevant because learners are expected to use English for academic discussion, digital communication, workplace interaction, intercultural exchange, and everyday communicative purposes.

The emergence of CLT was partly a response to the limitations of structural and audiolingual approaches, which often produced learners who could manipulate grammatical patterns but struggled to communicate effectively in real situations. CLT challenged the assumption that language learning should begin primarily with formal accuracy and later move toward communication. Instead, it argued that communication itself should become both the goal and the means of language learning. In this view, learners acquire language more

effectively when they are engaged in meaningful tasks, purposeful interaction, and authentic language use. Recent scholarship in second language acquisition continues to support the importance of speaking, interaction, discourse competence, and pragmatic awareness as essential components of communicative development (Derwing, Munro, & Thomson, 2022; Paltridge & Prior, 2024).



Figures 2.8 Dimensions of Communicative Competence in English Language Education

A central principle of CLT is that classroom activities should create opportunities for learners to exchange meanings rather than merely reproduce correct forms. Activities such as role-play, information-gap tasks, interviews, group discussions, problemsolving tasks, simulations, and project-based learning reflect this principle. For example, in an English speaking class, students may be asked to

plan a travel itinerary, conduct a mock job interview, or discuss solutions to an environmental problem. In such activities, learners are not simply practicing vocabulary or grammar in isolation; they are using language to achieve communicative goals. This allows learners to develop fluency, interactional competence, confidence, and the ability to adjust language according to context.

Another important characteristic of CLT is the balance between fluency and accuracy. Early interpretations of CLT were sometimes criticized for placing too much emphasis on communication at the expense of grammatical correctness. However, contemporary understandings of CLT do not reject grammar instruction. Rather, grammar is taught in relation to meaning, context, and use. A teacher may introduce past tense forms, for instance, not as an isolated list of rules but through a storytelling activity, personal experience sharing, or narrative writing task. In this way, learners understand grammar as a resource for communication, not merely as a system of abstract rules. This balanced view is important in EFL contexts, where learners often need both grammatical accuracy for academic purposes and communicative fluency for real-life interaction.

Table 2.2 Core principles and classroom applications of CLT

CLT Principle	Explanation	Classroom Application
Meaningful Communication	Language is learned through purposeful use	Role-play, interviews, discussions
Communicative Competence	Learners need grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competence	Integrated speaking, writing, listening, and reading tasks
Learner-Centered Interaction	Learners actively participate in communication	Pair work, group work, peer collaboration
Fluency and Accuracy Balance	Communication and correctness are both important	Task-based grammar practice, feedback after speaking activities
Authentic Language Use	Materials and tasks should reflect real-world communication	Emails, presentations, debates, digital communication tasks

From a pedagogical perspective, CLT positions the teacher not merely as a transmitter of knowledge but as a facilitator, task designer, interaction organizer, and feedback provider. The teacher creates conditions in which learners can participate actively, take communicative risks, and negotiate meaning with others. Meanwhile, learners are expected to become active users of language rather than passive recipients of explanation. This orientation aligns with sociocultural perspectives because interaction, collaboration, and scaffolding are central to both approaches. However, CLT places stronger emphasis on communicative outcomes, namely the learner’s ability to use English appropriately and effectively across different contexts.

In contemporary English language education, CLT has also expanded in response to technological and global changes. Digital platforms, video conferencing, online discussion forums, social media, podcasts, and collaborative writing tools provide new spaces for communicative practice. These tools allow learners to engage in authentic or semi-authentic communication beyond the physical classroom. For instance, students may collaborate on a digital presentation, participate in online peer feedback, record speaking tasks, or interact with international audiences through virtual exchange. Such practices demonstrate that CLT remains adaptable to current educational innovations, particularly when combined with digital literacy and intercultural communication goals.

Despite its broad influence, CLT is not without challenges. In some EFL contexts, large class sizes, examination-oriented curricula, limited exposure to English, and teachers' concerns about classroom control may restrict the implementation of communicative activities. Learners who are accustomed to teacher-centered instruction may also feel anxious or unprepared for open-ended communication. Furthermore, CLT requires careful task design; simply placing students in groups does not automatically produce meaningful language learning. Communicative activities must have clear goals, appropriate language support, opportunities for interaction, and feedback that helps learners improve both fluency and accuracy. Therefore, CLT should not be understood as a rejection of structure, but as an approach that integrates linguistic knowledge with purposeful communication.

Overall, the Communicative Language Teaching perspective provides a practical and theoretically grounded framework for English language education. Its emphasis on communicative competence, meaningful interaction, learner participation, and authentic language

use makes it highly relevant for preparing learners to use English in academic, professional, and intercultural settings. When connected with Krashen's emphasis on meaningful input and Sociocultural Theory's focus on mediated interaction, CLT offers a pedagogical bridge between theory and classroom practice. It reminds educators that the ultimate goal of English language teaching is not only for learners to know about the language, but to use the language effectively, appropriately, and confidently in real communication.

2.9 Practical Implications in English Language Education

Theories of language learning and acquisition become meaningful in English Language Education when they are translated into practical classroom decisions. A theory does not function merely as an abstract explanation of how language is learned; it also guides how teachers design instruction, select materials, organize classroom interaction, provide feedback, and assess learner development. Since language learning is a multidimensional process, effective English language teaching requires the integration of various theoretical perspectives rather than the rigid application of a single approach. Behaviorist, cognitive, constructivist, input-based, sociocultural, and communicative perspectives each offer practical insights that can support more responsive and meaningful English language pedagogy.

One practical implication is the need to balance **controlled practice and meaningful communication**. Behaviorist principles remain useful when learners need repeated exposure to pronunciation patterns, grammatical structures, vocabulary chunks, or formulaic expressions. For example, pronunciation drills, substitution exercises, and short pattern practices may help learners develop automaticity in using basic sentence structures. However, such activities should not

dominate the learning process. They need to be connected to communicative tasks so that learners can use the practiced forms in meaningful contexts. In this way, mechanical practice becomes a preparation for authentic language use rather than an end in itself (Lightbown & Spada, 2021).

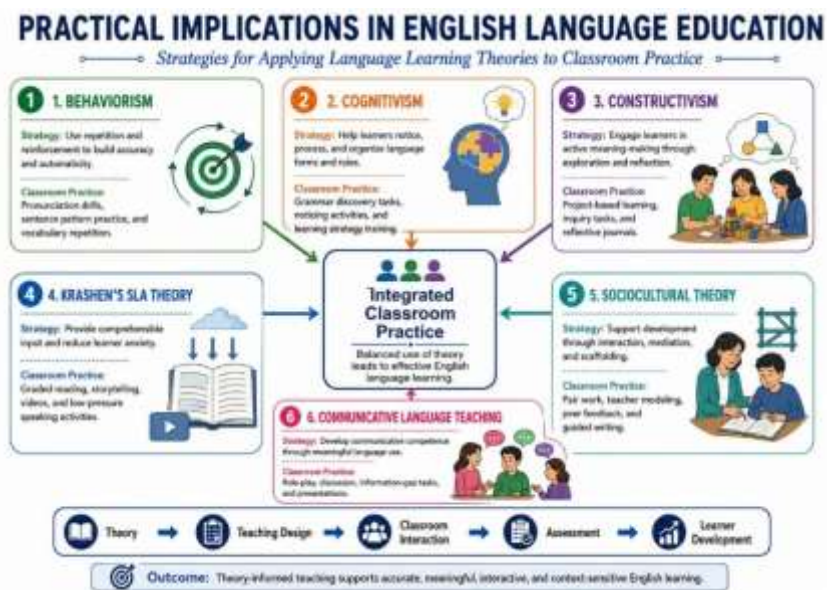
Cognitive perspectives imply that English language instruction should help learners notice, process, organize, and retrieve linguistic information. Teachers need to design activities that direct learners' attention to important language features without separating form from meaning. For instance, when teaching past tense forms, a teacher may first expose learners to a short narrative text, ask them to identify time expressions and verb patterns, and then guide them to use similar forms in their own storytelling. Such instruction supports both explicit understanding and meaningful use of grammar. Cognitive principles also suggest the importance of learning strategies, metacognitive reflection, memory support, and gradual progression from simple to complex language tasks.

Constructivist theory further implies that learners should be actively involved in building knowledge through experience, exploration, and reflection. In English language education, this can be implemented through project-based learning, inquiry tasks, problem-solving activities, and reflective journals. For example, students may work in groups to create an English campaign poster, conduct a simple interview, produce a class podcast, or prepare a short presentation about local culture. These activities allow learners to use English as a tool for constructing meaning rather than merely as an object of study. However, constructivist learning requires careful teacher guidance. Learners still need clear instructions, models, feedback, and linguistic support to ensure that active learning leads to accurate and meaningful language development.

Krashen's theory provides important implications for the design of input-rich and low anxiety learning environments. English teachers should provide learners with comprehensible input that is slightly above their current proficiency level and supported by context, visuals, gestures, examples, or prior knowledge. In EFL classrooms, where exposure to English outside school may be limited, teachers can enrich input through graded readers, short videos, songs, podcasts, classroom stories, teacher talk, and digital resources. At the same time, the affective dimension of learning should not be ignored. Learners are more likely to engage with English when the classroom environment is supportive, respectful, and emotionally safe. Therefore, teachers should reduce excessive fear of mistakes, encourage participation, and build learners' confidence through constructive feedback and achievable tasks (Krashen, 1982; Mercer & Gregersen, 2023).

Sociocultural Theory implies that classroom interaction should be treated as a central site of language development. Learners need opportunities to interact with teachers, peers, texts, and learning tools in ways that support their movement from assisted performance to independent language use. This requires teachers to provide scaffolding within learners' Zone of Proximal Development through modeling, guiding questions, sentence frames, peer collaboration, and feedback. For example, before asking students to write an argumentative paragraph independently, the teacher may first provide a model text, discuss useful expressions, guide students in outlining ideas, and allow peer review. Gradually, support can be reduced as learners gain greater control over the language task. Such practices show that language development is both social and developmental (Vygotsky, 1978; Lantolf, Poehner, & Swain, 2018).

Communicative Language Teaching offers direct implications for classroom activity design. English lessons should provide learners with opportunities to use language for meaningful purposes, such as asking for information, expressing opinions, negotiating meaning, solving problems, and presenting ideas. Activities such as role-play, interviews, debates, storytelling, simulations, information-gap tasks, and group discussions help learners develop communicative competence. However, communicative teaching should not be interpreted as ignoring grammar. Instead, grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and discourse features should be integrated into meaningful communicative contexts. A speaking task, for instance, may be followed by feedback on useful expressions, grammatical accuracy, pronunciation, or interaction strategies. This balance enables learners to develop both fluency and accuracy (Canale & Swain, 1980; Derwing, Munro, & Thomson, 2022).



Figures 2.9 Integrated Model of Theory-Based English Language Teaching Practice

The practical integration of language learning theories also has implications for material selection. Materials should not only present linguistic forms but also provide meaningful input, cultural context, communicative tasks, and opportunities for reflection. Textbooks can be supplemented with authentic or semi-authentic materials such as news articles, short videos, podcasts, infographics, emails, online discussions, and digital stories. These materials expose learners to varied language use and help them connect classroom learning with real-world communication. In addition, materials should be selected according to learners' proficiency level, interests, cultural background, and learning goals. A theoretically informed teacher does not use materials mechanically but adapts them to create meaningful and developmentally appropriate learning experiences.

Assessment practices should also reflect a balanced understanding of language learning. If language competence includes grammatical knowledge, communicative ability, interactional skill, discourse organization, and strategic competence, then assessment should not rely solely on written grammar tests. Teachers need to use varied assessment methods, including speaking performance, writing portfolios, peer feedback, oral presentations, listening tasks, reading responses, projects, and reflective journals. Such assessment practices provide a more comprehensive picture of learner development. They also align with contemporary views of English language education that value both accuracy and meaningful performance.

2.10 Conclusion

Theories of language learning and acquisition provide an essential foundation for understanding how learners develop linguistic knowledge, communicative competence, and the ability to use English meaningfully in diverse contexts. This chapter has

discussed several major theoretical perspectives that have shaped English Language Education, including Behaviorism, Cognitivism, Constructivism, Krashen's Second Language Acquisition Theory, Sociocultural Theory, and Communicative Language Teaching. Each perspective offers a distinctive explanation of how language learning occurs, what role learners and teachers play, and how classroom instruction can be designed to support language development.

Behaviorism contributes an understanding of language learning as habit formation through repetition, imitation, reinforcement, and practice. Although its explanatory power is limited when applied to the full complexity of language acquisition, behaviorist principles remain useful in specific areas such as pronunciation practice, vocabulary reinforcement, and the development of automaticity. Cognitivism, in contrast, emphasizes the internal mental processes involved in learning, including attention, memory, noticing, information processing, and rule formation. This perspective reminds educators that learners are not merely responding to external stimuli, but actively processing and organizing linguistic input.

Constructivism further expands the understanding of learning by positioning learners as active constructors of knowledge. In English language classrooms, constructivist principles support inquiry-based learning, project work, problem-solving tasks, and reflective activities that allow learners to build meaning through experience. Krashen's Second Language Acquisition Theory adds another important dimension by emphasizing comprehensible input, affective conditions, and the distinction between acquisition and learning. His theory continues to influence language pedagogy by highlighting the importance of meaningful exposure to English and emotionally supportive classroom environments (Krashen, 1982).

Sociocultural Theory contributes a socially grounded understanding of language development. It explains that learning is mediated through interaction, cultural tools, scaffolding, and guided participation within the learner's Zone of Proximal Development (Vygotsky, 1978). This perspective is especially relevant in English Language Education because it emphasizes collaboration, dialogue, peer support, teacher mediation, and the gradual movement from assisted performance to independent language use. Communicative Language Teaching complements these theoretical perspectives by translating the goal of language education into the development of communicative competence. It reminds educators that English should be taught not only as a system of grammatical rules, but also as a resource for communication, social interaction, academic participation, and intercultural engagement (Canale & Swain, 1980).

A central conclusion of this chapter is that no single theory can fully explain the complexity of language learning and acquisition. Each theory provides valuable insights, but each also has limitations. Behaviorism may underemphasize creativity and cognition; Cognitivism may pay insufficient attention to social and cultural contexts; Constructivism may require strong instructional guidance; Krashen's theory has been criticized for giving limited attention to output and feedback; Sociocultural Theory can be difficult to operationalize empirically; and Communicative Language Teaching may face challenges in examination-oriented or large-class contexts. Therefore, effective English language education requires theoretical integration rather than theoretical exclusivity.

For English language teachers, the practical value of theory lies in its ability to inform reflective and context-sensitive pedagogy. Teachers may draw on behaviorist techniques for controlled practice, cognitive principles for grammar awareness and learning strategies,

constructivist approaches for active meaning-making, Krashen's ideas for input-rich and low-anxiety instruction, sociocultural principles for scaffolding and collaboration, and communicative approaches for meaningful language use. Such integration enables teachers to design learning experiences that are balanced, purposeful, and responsive to learners' needs.

In contemporary English Language Education, theories of language learning and acquisition must also be understood in relation to innovation. Digital learning platforms, multimodal resources, artificial intelligence, online collaboration, and global communication have transformed the ways learners encounter and use English. However, innovation should not be separated from theory. Technology becomes pedagogically meaningful only when it supports input, interaction, feedback, reflection, autonomy, and authentic communication. Thus, theoretical understanding remains crucial for evaluating and applying educational innovations responsibly.

Overall, this chapter affirms that language learning is a complex, dynamic, cognitive, social, affective, and communicative process. Theories of language learning and acquisition help educators understand this complexity and transform it into informed classroom practice. By critically integrating classical and contemporary perspectives, English Language Education can move beyond mechanical instruction toward more meaningful, interactive, inclusive, and contextually relevant learning. Such theoretical awareness is essential for lecturers, researchers, teachers, and students who seek to advance innovative and effective practices in English language teaching.

CHAPTER 3

CURRICULUM DESIGN FOR PRONUNCIATION INSTRUCTION : INTEGRATING PHONOLOGICAL AWARENESS IN EFL CONTEXTS

Ekka Zahra Puspita Dewi, S.Pd., M.Pd.

3.1 Introduction: The Pronunciation Paradox in EFL

For decades, pronunciation instruction within English as a Foreign Language (EFL) pedagogy has suffered from a profound systemic contradiction (Dewi et al., 2026). On one hand, clear and comprehensible pronunciation is universally acknowledged as the absolute bedrock of communicative competence and global intelligibility. On the other hand, it remains the most neglected component in daily lesson plans, frequently relegated to the periphery of the curriculum. When pronunciation is addressed, it is often treated reactively—triggered only when a student commits a glaring error that disrupts classroom discourse—or reduced to archaic, mechanical “listen-and-repeat” behaviorist drills (Olha, 2023).

This marginalization stems from a multi-layered historical anxiety. EFL instructors, particularly non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs), often report a lack of confidence or systemic training regarding how to explicitly dissect phonological features. Furthermore, traditional curriculum designs have historically over-relied on the assumption that pronunciation is an organic byproduct of language acquisition—an innate talent that students will simply “absorb” through sheer exposure (Pennington, 2021).

However, in an authentic EFL context—characterized by artificial classroom borders, minimal target language input outside the school walls, and heavy first-language (L1) interference—this passive approach fails.

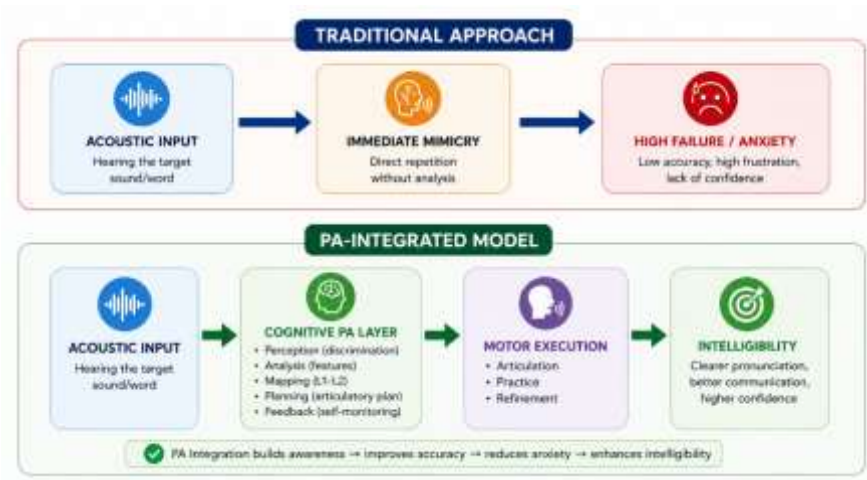


Figure 3.1 Comparison of Traditional Pronunciation Instruction and the PA-Integrated Model

To break this cycle, curriculum designers must implement a paradigm shift: integrating Phonological Awareness (PA) as the central cognitive framework for speech instruction. Phonological awareness—the meta-cognitive capacity to recognize, isolate, and manipulate the structural components of spoken language (such as syllables, stress patterns, and phonemes)—serves as the critical internal bridge. By focusing on PA, the curriculum shifts its objective from mindless physical imitation to cognitive structural understanding, transforming the EFL learner from a passive mimic into an active, self-aware processor of language sounds.

3.2 Theoretical Framework: Marrying Phonological Awareness with Speech Production

To build a curriculum that withstands academic scrutiny, developers must ground their pedagogical choices in established psycholinguistic and cognitive speech acquisition frameworks.

1. Flege's Speech Learning Model (SLM) and Perceptual Filtering

James Flege's Speech Learning Model (SLM) posits that the primary barrier to accurate L2 speech production is not necessarily a motor or physical limitation, but a perceptual one. As individuals mature, their brains develop a highly optimized "perceptual filter" tuned entirely to the phonological contrasts of their native language (L1) (Abimanto & Sumarsono, 2024). When exposed to a foreign language (L2), the brain engages in a process called perceptual clogging or equivalence classification. It automatically maps unfamiliar L2 sounds onto the closest pre-existing L1 categories.

For example, an Indonesian or Japanese EFL learner encountering the English short /ɪ/ (as in sit) and long /i:/ (as in seat) may perceive both sounds as identical to their native, short /i/. Because their brains classify these two distinct target phonemes as equivalent, they cannot produce the distinction reliably. Flege's model establishes an absolute law for curriculum design: perceptual training must precede or accompany articulatory training (Dja'far & Hamidah, 2024). A student cannot physically produce a sound distinction that their cognitive architecture cannot yet perceive.

2. The Cognitive Layers of Phonological Awareness

Integrating PA into pronunciation instruction requires expanding the traditional definition of pronunciation beyond raw phonetics (the physical positioning of the tongue, teeth, and lips). The curriculum must construct structured, ascending cognitive layers:

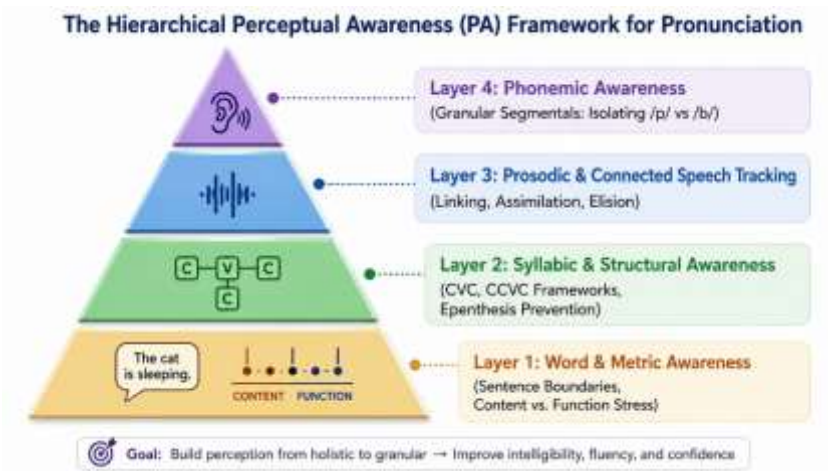


Figure 3.2 The Hierarchical Perceptual Awareness (PA) Framework for Pronunciation

- a. **Layer 1 Word and Metric Awareness:** The ability to discern spoken sentence boundaries and recognize the acoustic difference between high-energy content words (nouns, verbs) and low-energy function words (prepositions, articles).
- b. **Layer 2 Syllabic and Structural Awareness:** Understanding syllable boundaries and permissible syllable structures (\$CVC\$, \$CCVC\$). In many EFL contexts, learners' native languages do not permit complex consonant clusters. Without syllabic awareness,

learners commit vowel epenthesis—inserting extra vowels to break up clusters (e.g., transforming the monosyllabic word *spring* /sprɪŋ/ into a four-syllable word like /sə.pə.rɪŋ/).

- c. Layer 3 Prosodic and Connected Speech Tracking: Moving from isolated lexical items to continuous streams of speech, mapping out how sounds transform when they collide across word boundaries.
- d. Layer 4 Phonemic Awareness: The most granular layer—the explicit ability to isolate, segment, blend, and delete individual phonemes. This layer allows students to systematically untangle minimal pairs and master high-functional-load contrasts.

3.3 Core Principles Of A Pa-Integrated Pronunciation Curriculum

When constructing a syllabus under this framework, curriculum designers must adhere to four core architectural pillars:

1. Intelligibility and Functional Load over Native-like Accent

The curriculum must explicitly and unapologetically reject the "native-speaker myth." Aiming for absolute accent reduction or the total erasure of an L1 accent is psychologically damaging, pedagogically counterproductive, and sociolinguistically obsolete in the era of World Englishes. Instead, the curriculum adopts the Principle of Comfortable Intelligibility (Yulianti et al., 2025).

To operationalize this, instructional design prioritizes features based on Functional Load—the measure of how much work a phonemic contrast does in keeping words distinct within the

language. For instance, the contrast between /p/ and /b/ (pig vs. big) has a massive functional load because mispronouncing it completely changes the lexical meaning and causes a catastrophic communication breakdown. Conversely, the contrast between /θ/ and /t/ (three vs. tree) has a lower functional load; even if mispronounced, the surrounding context almost always repairs the meaning. The curriculum must fiercely prioritize high-functional-load features.

2. Systematic Construction: The Top-Down Macro-to-Micro Trajectory

Traditional pronunciation textbooks typically start on Page 1 with the letter "A" and move sound-by-sound through the alphabet. A PA-integrated curriculum reverses this, favoring a Top-Down (Prosody-First) approach. Suprasegmental features—such as intonation contours, thought groups, and word stress rhythms—carry the highest weight for global intelligibility (Mutali, 2025). If a learner's rhythm is correct, native and non-native listeners can tolerate a high degree of segmental vowel distortion. Therefore, the curriculum maps out the wide macro-rhythms of the language first, before zooming down into micro-level segmental phonemes.

3. The Perceptual-Articulatory Instructional Loop

Every individual instructional unit within the curriculum must abandon the traditional model of immediately demanding production. Instead, it must enforce a strict, cyclical loop:

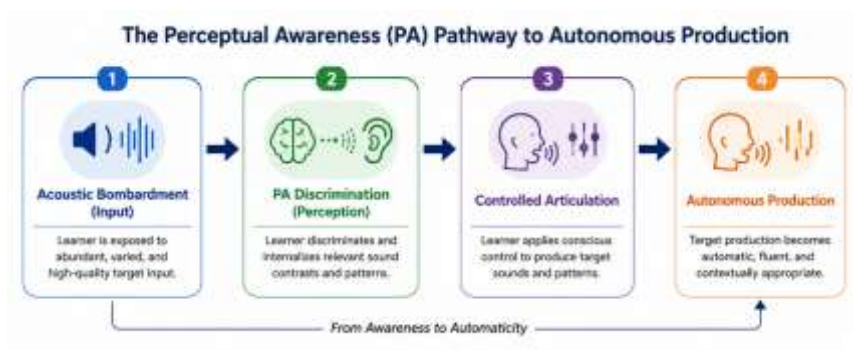


Figure 3.3 The Perceptual Awareness Pathway to Autonomous Production

Learners must first be "bombar­ded" with the target sound in context. Next, they complete meta-cognitive tasks (e.g., raising a card when they hear a specific sound contrast). Only when the instructor verifies perceptual mastery do the students move to physical articulation and eventual free-flowing, autonomous speech production.

3.4 Proposed Curriculum Architecture : A Semester-Long Blueprint

The following syllabus matrix provides a concrete, structural blueprint designed for a 14-week university-level EFL course or an intensive language institute module.

Table 3.1 Hierarchical Phonological Awareness Framework for Pronunciation Development in EFL Contexts

Module	Academic Weeks	Core Phonological Target	PA Cognitive Task	Pedagogical Strategy & Classroom Activity
Module 1: The Rhythm of English	Weeks 1–3	Syllabic Structures, Word Stress, and the Schwa (/ə/)	Syllable counting; Mapping acoustic peaks; Stress localization.	The Elastic Band Method: Students physically stretch large rubber bands on primary stressed syllables and release them on the Schwa to internalize structural compression.
Module 2: The Flow of Speech	Weeks 4–6	Connected Speech: Linking (\$C+V\$, \$V+V\$), Assimilation, and Elision	Auditory tracking of blurred word boundaries; Transcription of spoken streams.	The Script Splicer: Students take a written transcript and use symbols (\$\smile\$) to mark where words merge, then practice reading the "spliced" acoustic chunks.

Module 3: Segmental Precision	Weeks 7– 10	High- Functional- Load Vowel and Consonant Contrasts	Phoneme isolation; Minimal pair discrimination.	Live Audio Sorting: Using software or flashcards, students instantly categorize spoken words into acoustic "buckets" based on vowel length or consonant voicing.
Module 4: Pragmatics & Intent	Weeks 11– 14	Intonation Contours, Thought Groups, and Prominence	Identifying emotional intent and focal points via pitch movement.	The Dramatic Shift: Students receive a single sentence and are tasked with changing its meaning entirely by moving the primary acoustic prominence across different words.

3.5 Granular Lesson Plan Exemplars

To demonstrate how this curriculum design translates into daily classroom reality, here are two highly detailed lesson plans targeting two completely different structural layers of the curriculum.

Lesson Plan Exemplar 1: Mastering the Unstressed Bedrock (Suprasegmental Focus)

- a. Target Feature: Word Stress and the Omnipresence of the Schwa (/ə/).
- b. Duration: 50 Minutes.
- c. Objective: Students will be able to cognitively identify the primary stressed syllable in multi-syllabic words and reduce unstressed vowels to the Schwa sound with 85% accuracy during a controlled speaking task.

A. Stage 1: Perceptual Bombardment & Isolation (15 Minutes)

The teacher plays an audio clip of a short dialogue containing highly recurring multi-syllabic vocabulary: photograph, photography, photographic. Instead of asking students to repeat the words, the teacher asks: "Do these words sound identical in their rhythm? Where does the punch of energy land?" Students are introduced to the Schwa (/ə/) as the lazy, relaxed sound that replaces almost any vowel when it is not stressed. PA Task: The teacher reads a list of words (chocolate, history, police, support). Students do not speak; they use a marker to draw a large dot [●] over the stressed syllable and a tiny cross [x] over the unstressed, compressed syllables on a mini-whiteboard (e.g., po-LICE = x●).

B. Stage 2: Controlled Discrimination & The Elastic Band (15 Minutes)

Students are given large, thick rubber bands. The teacher models the word CA-mby-a or BA-na-na (/bə'næn.ə/). On the syllable -na-, the teacher physically stretches the rubber band wide, utilizing maximum physical space to mirror the vocal tract's openness. On the first and last syllables, the rubber band is left

completely slack and small. Students practice this physical-visual movement in pairs. This physicalizes phonological awareness: large movement equals higher pitch, longer duration, and clearer vowels; slack movement equals the compressed Schwa (Idayani et al., 2025).

C. Stage 3: Production & Communicative Integration (20 Minutes)

The Information-Gap Task: In pairs, Student A gets a list of company department names (Ma-RKE-ting, Hu-MAN Re-sources, De-VE-lop-ment), but the stress markers are hidden. Student B has the correct acoustic map. Student A must read a corporate schedule aloud. If Student A fails to compress the unstressed vowels into a Schwa (e.g., pronouncing development as /de-ve-lop-ment/ with equal stress), Student B must flag it and say: "Acoustic error: Please compress your vowels." The task is complete only when both students map out the schedule using accurate rhythmic peaks.

3.6 Lesson Plan Exemplar 2: Untangling the Voicing Contrast (Segmental Focus)

- a. Target Feature: Phonemic Distinction between Voiced and Unvoiced Plosives (/p/ vs. /b/).
- b. Duration: 50 Minutes.
- c. Objective: Students will accurately perceive the presence or absence of vocal fold vibration in initial plosives and produce distinct minimal pairs in continuous sentences.

A. Stage 1: Tactile Perceptual Awareness (10 Minutes)

The teacher asks students to place two fingers firmly on their larynx (Adam's apple). The teacher instructs them to make a continuous prolonged humming sound: "Zzzzzzzzz." The teacher asks: "Do you feel the motor buzzing under your fingers?" (Yes). This is defined as Voiced. The teacher instructs them to make a continuous hissing sound: "Sssssssss." The teacher asks: "Is the motor on or off?" (Off). This is defined as Unvoiced. PA Task: The teacher speaks isolated initial consonants. Students close their eyes, touch their throats, and hold up a green card for "Voiced/Motor On" or a red card for "Unvoiced/Motor Off."

B. Stage 2: Minimal Pair Discrimination & The Paper Test (20 Minutes)

The teacher introduces the target contrast: /p/ (Unvoiced, heavy aspiration) vs. /b/ (Voiced, no aspiration). Students hold a thin sheet of notebook paper two inches in front of their lips. When pronouncing the unvoiced /p/ in pin, a burst of trapped air (aspiration) must physically push the paper forward (Pennington, 2021). When pronouncing the voiced /b/ in bin, the vocal cords absorb that energy, and the paper must remain perfectly still. PA Activity: The teacher reads sentences containing confusing minimal pairs: "The corporate executive signed the pack / back." Students must identify which sentence was read by writing down the correct semantic meaning based entirely on whether they perceived the initial acoustic burst of air or vocal vibration.

C. Autonomous Communicative Production (20 Minutes)

The Auction Game: Students are put into small groups and given "play money" to bid on items listed on a sheet. The items are written as minimal pair traps (e.g., a luxury pear vs. a luxury

bear; a silver cup vs. a silver cub). One student acts as the Auctioneer. To win the luxury pear, the bidder must execute the unvoiced /p/ perfectly with enough aspiration to signal the meaning clearly. If they fail to aspirate and it sounds like bear, the Auctioneer awards them the picture of the grizzly bear instead of the fruit. The group that successfully purchases their intended inventory through precise phonemic execution wins the game.

3.7 Technology Integration : Elevating PA With Digital Tools

In a contemporary, forward-thinking curriculum framework, digital technology is no longer treated as a superficial novelty; it serves as a primary cognitive accelerator that makes abstract auditory structures visible.

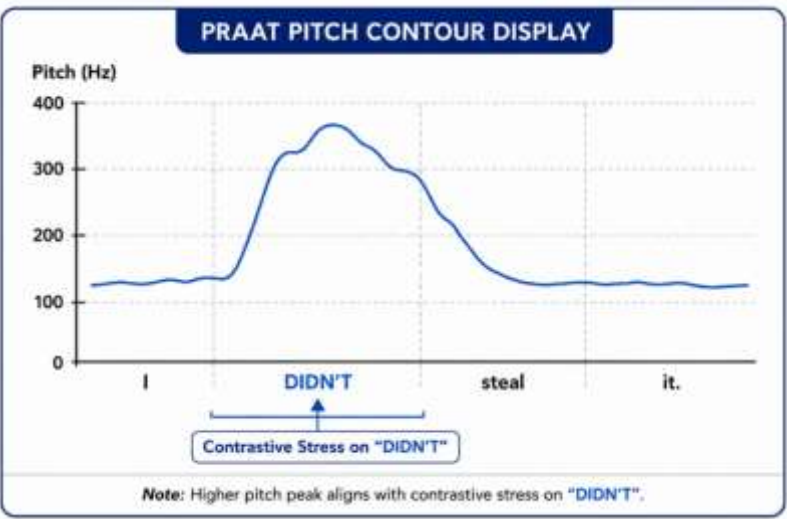


Figure 3.4 PRAAT Pitch Contour Display

A. Acoustic Visualization Software (Praat and Waveforms)

One of the greatest challenges in the EFL context is that speech sounds disappear the moment they are uttered. By integrating Praat (a free, highly regarded scientific computer program for analyzing speech in phonetics) or basic audio editing waveforms into the curriculum, instructors can make pronunciation visual.

When a student struggles to hear the difference between a short and long vowel, the teacher can record both sounds and display their waveforms side-by-side on the classroom screen. The student can physically measure the millisecond duration of the sound waves. When practicing intonation, Praat overlays a bright blue pitch line directly over the student's recorded voice. The student no longer has to guess if their voice is rising or falling; they can literally see their pitch path mapped out on a graph against an idealized target model.

B. AI-Assisted Speech Analyzers and Automated Feedback

Integrating Artificial Intelligence (AI) speech evaluation software within the curriculum architecture provides a scalable solution to the problem of large class sizes. Modern AI engines analyze speech down to the phonemic level, matching the student's acoustic input against vast neural networks of global speech profiles (Abimanto & Sumarsono, 2024).

The curriculum design should utilize AI tools as a low-stakes, highly private "pedagogical sandbox." Students can practice difficult phonetic manipulations repeatedly without the debilitating social anxiety of mispronouncing words in front of their peers. The AI provides instant, color-coded visual feedback (e.g., highlighting an unlinked consonant cluster in red and a perfectly executed Schwa in green), allowing for

individualized, autonomous learning trajectories outside the physical classroom walls.

3.8 Assessment and Evaluation In An Obe Framework

To maintain absolute alignment with Outcome-Based Education (OBE) principles, a PA-integrated pronunciation curriculum must systematically dismantle vague, subjective grading criteria such as "good accent" or "poor clarity." These outdated metrics must be replaced with highly transparent, rubric-driven, and verifiable assessment tools.

A. Triangulated Diagnostic Profiling (Week 1)

Before any instruction begins, every student must undergo an acoustic diagnostic assessment. This profile consists of three distinct tasks designed to isolate different cognitive and physical performance metrics:

1. **Controlled Sentence Reading:** Designed to evaluate structural segmental precision when cognitive load is zero.
2. **Paragraph Reading:** Designed to evaluate connected speech features, thought grouping, and prosodic continuity.
3. **Spontaneous Prompt Response:** A two-minute unscripted speech task designed to measure real-time pronunciation stamina when the student's brain is fully preoccupied with grammatical and lexical formulation.

B. The Metacognitive Formative Portfolio

Throughout the duration of the curriculum, students maintain an ongoing digital audio portfolio. Rather than merely submitting recordings for the teacher to grade, the assessment design demands that students must grade and analyze themselves.

For every portfolio entry, students submit an audio recording alongside a typed self-critique. In this critique, students must utilize the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) or specific structural symbols to annotate their own speech anomalies (e.g., "In second 0:14 of my recording, I committed an error of vowel epenthesis by pronouncing 'blue' as /bəlu:/ because I failed to transition directly from the bilabial stop to the lateral approximant"). This turns the assessment into an active cognitive task, directly building lifelong metacognitive autonomy.

C. Summative Intelligibility Rubrics

The final examination must reflect real-world communicative utility. Students are placed into unpredictable, highly dynamic interactive communicative scenarios—such as crisis negotiations, academic presentations, or professional interviewing panels. The grading rubric is strictly divided into clear, observable domains:

SUMMATIVE INTELLIGIBILITY RUBRIC	
Assessment Domain	Measurable Target Indicator
 1. Suprasegmental Prosody	Correct placement of sentence prominence; clear use of thought groups to separate clauses.
 2. Syllabic Stability	Zero instances of intrusive vowel insertion in complex consonant clusters.
 3. Segmental Accuracy	Successful maintenance of high-functional-load phonemic contrasts crucial to semantic meaning.
 4. Strategic Repair	The ability to use stress and pitch adjustment proactively to clarify meaning when a listener signals confusion.

Figure 3.5 Summative Intelligibility Rubric

3.8 Conclusion and Future Directions for The Field

Integrating Phonological Awareness into EFL pronunciation curriculum design systematically shifts our field away from outdated behaviorist mimicry and anchors it firmly in modern cognitive science. By equipping learners with the cognitive tools to map, dissect, and consciously manipulate the sound landscape of English, we grant them long-term communicative autonomy. They are no longer floating blindly in an acoustic fog, trying to guess why they are misunderstood. Instead, they become highly analytical, confident, and comfortable global communicators who can walk onto the international stage, completely secure in their linguistic intelligibility while proudly retaining their unique cultural identities.

CHAPTER 4

APPROACHES AND METHODS IN TEACHING ENGLISH

Zakiya Isnani, S.Pd.I., M.Pd.

4.1 Introduction

English has become a global language that plays a crucial role in education, business, science, technology, and international communication. As the demand for English proficiency continues to grow, the effectiveness of English language teaching has become an important concern for educators worldwide. One of the key factors influencing successful language instruction is the selection of appropriate approaches and methods. In the field of English Language Teaching (ELT), an *approach* refers to the theoretical beliefs about the nature of language and how it is learned, while a *method* refers to the practical procedures and strategies used to implement those beliefs in the classroom. Understanding these concepts is essential for teachers because they provide the foundation for planning, delivering, and evaluating language instruction effectively (Richards & Rodgers, 2014).

Throughout the history of language education, various approaches and methods have been developed to address different learning needs and educational contexts. Traditional methods such as the Grammar Translation Method and Direct Method focused on grammar mastery and language structure, whereas more contemporary approaches, including Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT), emphasize meaningful communication and learner engagement. The

continuous evolution of these methods reflects changing perspectives on language learning and teaching. Therefore, studying approaches and methods in teaching English enables educators to understand the strengths and limitations of different instructional practices and to select appropriate strategies that support learners' language development and communicative competence in diverse classroom settings.

4.2 Discussion

4.2.1 Conceptual Understanding of Approaches, Methods, and Techniques

a. Approach

An approach is a set of beliefs or theories about the nature of language and how languages are learned. It provides the philosophical foundation for teaching. For example, the Communicative Approach views language as a tool for communication and emphasizes meaningful interaction among learners. An approach answers question such as:

- What is language?
- How is language learned?
- What should be taught?
- What roles should teachers and learners assume?

According to Richards and Rodgers (2022), an approach provides the theoretical basis from which teaching methods are derived.

b. Method

A method, on the other hand, is a systematic plan for teaching a language that is based on a particular approach. It includes specific classroom procedures, teacher and learner roles, instructional materials, and teaching techniques. Examples of methods include the Grammar Translation Method, Direct Method, Audiolingual Method, and Communicative Language Teaching.

According to Jack C. Richards and Theodore S. Rodgers (2014), approaches and methods in language teaching represent the relationship between language theory and classroom practice. An approach provides the theoretical basis, while a method translates those theories into practical teaching procedures.

c. Technique

A technique is a specific classroom activity used to achieve learning objectives.

Examples:

- Role-play
- Information-gap activities
- Group discussions
- Storytelling
- Language games

Recent reviews emphasize that effective English instruction requires a coherent alignment between approach, method, and classroom techniques.

Difference between Approach, Method, and Technique

Aspect	Definition	Example
Approach	Theory or philosophy about language and learning	Communicative Approach
Method	Overall plan for teaching based on an approach	Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)
Technique	Specific classroom activity or strategy	Role play, discussion, information-gap activity

Importance of Approaches and Methods in Teaching English

- Help teachers organize instruction effectively.
- Improve students' language learning outcomes.
- Provide a framework for selecting teaching materials and activities.
- Support the development of communicative competence.
- Enable teachers to adapt instruction to learners' needs and contexts.

4.2.2 Major Approaches in Teaching English

a. Communicative Approach

The Communicative Approach views language as a tool for communication rather than merely a system of grammatical rules. The primary goal is the development of communicative competence.

Characteristics:

- Student-centered learning
- Authentic communication
- Meaning-focused interaction
- Integration of four language skills
- Real-life language use

Advantages:

- Increases learners' fluency
- Promotes active participation
- Develops confidence in communication

Challenges:

- Difficult to implement in large classes
- Requires skilled classroom management
- Assessment may be complex

Research continues to identify CLT as one of the most influential approaches in modern English education because it promotes meaningful interaction and practical language use. (M. Y. Salam & Yofan L.,2024)

b. Constructivist Approach

Constructivism assumes that learners actively construct knowledge through experiences and social interaction.

Characteristics :

- Learner-centered
- Collaborative learning
- Problem-solving activities
- Reflection and self-assessment

Classroom Applications:

- Project-based learning
- Collaborative writing
- Inquiry-based discussions
- Peer teaching

This approach aligns well with 21st-century educational goals that emphasize critical thinking and learner autonomy.

c. Humanistic Approach

The Humanistic Approach emphasizes emotional well-being and learner motivation.

Benefits :

- Increases motivation
- Encourages learner confidence
- Supports emotional engagement

The approach is particularly useful in creating supportive learning environments where students feel comfortable using English. (M. Sameem,2023)

Characteristics :

- Respect for individual differences
- Positive classroom environment
- Self-directed learning
- Reduced anxiety

4.2.3 Major Methods in Teaching English

a. Grammar Translation Method (GTM)

Description

One of the oldest methods, GTM focuses on grammar rules, vocabulary memorization, and translation exercises.

Key Features

- Use of native language
- Explicit grammar instruction
- Reading and writing emphasis

Strengths

- Strong grammatical foundation
- Useful for academic reading

Weaknesses

- Limited speaking practice

- Low communicative competence

Although less dominant today, GTM remains useful for developing reading comprehension and grammatical awareness (Han-kwan Chen, 2023)

b. Direct Method

Description

The Direct Method teaches English through direct exposure without translation.

Key Features

- Exclusive use of English
- Inductive grammar teaching
- Emphasis on speaking and listening

Advantages

- Natural language acquisition
- Improved pronunciation

Limitations

- Demands highly proficient teachers
- Difficult for beginners in some contexts

c. Audio-Lingual Method (ALM)

Description

Based on behaviourist learning theory, ALM emphasizes habit formation through repetition and drills.

Key Features

- Dialogue memorization
- Pattern drills
- Repetition exercises

Strengths

- Improves pronunciation accuracy
- Reinforces language patterns

Weaknesses

- Mechanical learning
- Limited communicative competence

d. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

Description

CLT is currently one of the most widely implemented methods worldwide.

Core Principles

- Meaning before form
- Interaction as learning

- Authentic communication
- Functional language use

Common Activities

- Role plays
- Interviews
- Problem-solving tasks
- Group discussions

Current literature identifies CLT as highly effective in improving communicative competence and learner engagement.

e. Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT)

Description

TBLT is an extension of the communicative approach that organizes instruction around meaningful tasks.

Examples of Tasks

- Planning a trip
- Conducting surveys
- Solving real-life problems
- Creating presentations

Stages of TBLT

- Pre-task
- Task cycle
- Language focus

Benefits

- Promotes authentic communication
- Develops problem-solving skills
- Enhances learner engagement

Recent systematic reviews show that TBLT effectively improves language proficiency, communicative competence, and learner motivation because students use English for meaningful purposes rather than isolated language practice.

4.3 Conclusion

Approaches and methods in teaching English have evolved from teacher-centered, grammar-focused instruction toward communicative, learner-centered, and technology-supported learning environments. While traditional methods such as the Grammar Translation Method and Audio-Lingual Method continue to contribute to specific learning objectives, contemporary English language education increasingly favors Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT). Furthermore, the integration of digital technologies and artificial intelligence is transforming English language instruction by creating more personalized, interactive, and authentic learning experiences. Effective English teachers should therefore adopt a flexible and eclectic approach, selecting methods and techniques that best meet the needs of their learners and educational contexts.

CHAPTER 5

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES FOR LANGUAGE SKILLS DEVELOPMENT

Dr. Ana Safitri, S.Pd., M.Pd.

5.1 The Nature of Language Skills Development

5.1.1 Language skills as communicative competence

Language skills development should be understood as part of communicative competence. A learner does not simply know English by memorizing rules; the learner must be able to use English appropriately in different situations. Communicative competence includes grammatical knowledge, discourse knowledge, sociolinguistic awareness, strategic ability, and the capacity to interpret and produce meaning. Therefore, teaching language skills requires more than presenting linguistic forms. It requires teachers to create opportunities for learners to use language for purposes that are meaningful and socially relevant.

In a communicative classroom, skills development is connected to purpose. Listening activities are not only about identifying words but also about understanding speaker intention, main ideas, supporting details, tone, and implied meaning. Speaking activities are not only about producing correct sentences but also about initiating interaction, responding to others, clarifying meaning, and maintaining fluency. Reading activities involve prediction, comprehension, interpretation, evaluation, and response. Writing activities involve planning, drafting, organizing, revising, editing, and publishing.

These processes show that skills are complex forms of meaning-making.

The CEFR Companion Volume emphasizes language use in action and describes learners as social agents who use language to accomplish tasks (Council of Europe, 2020). This view is important because it places learners at the center of instruction. Learners should not be passive receivers of teacher explanation; they should be guided to participate, make choices, reflect on strategies, and apply English in increasingly independent ways. Instructional strategies should therefore combine language input, explicit guidance, interaction, practice, feedback, and reflection.

5.1.2 Receptive and productive skills in classroom practice

Receptive skills and productive skills support one another. Listening provides models of pronunciation, rhythm, intonation, vocabulary, and interactional patterns that learners can use in speaking. Reading provides exposure to text organization, grammar, vocabulary, and rhetorical patterns that learners can use in writing. Speaking helps learners test their understanding of vocabulary and grammar in real time. Writing helps learners slow down, organize ideas, and refine accuracy. When a teacher integrates these skills, learners receive richer input and more opportunities to produce language.

A classroom that separates skills too rigidly may limit learners' communicative growth. For example, a reading lesson that ends only with comprehension questions may not encourage learners to respond personally or use the text as a model for writing. A listening lesson that asks learners only to fill in missing words may not develop their ability to discuss the content. By contrast, an integrated lesson can begin with listening or reading input, move to vocabulary and

discourse noticing, continue with guided speaking, and end with a written reflection or short composition.

Nevertheless, integration does not mean that every lesson must include all four skills equally. Teachers may focus on one main skill while using other skills as support. A speaking lesson may include short reading input to provide content. A writing lesson may include discussion before drafting. A listening lesson may require learners to write notes and then present key points. The key principle is that skills should be connected by a clear learning objective and a coherent sequence of activities.

Table 5.1 Core Instructional Strategies for Language Skills Development

Skill	Main learning focus	Teacher strategies	Learner strategies	Sample classroom task
Listening	Gist, details, and speaker intention	Build context, model notes, repeat with purpose	Predict, infer, take notes, clarify	Listen and summarize in pairs
Speaking	Fluency, accuracy, interaction, confidence	Model expressions, use frames, organize pair tasks	Rehearse, negotiate, repair, monitor	Role-play or present a solution
Reading	Comprehension, vocabulary, inference, text structure	Activate prior knowledge, teach skim/scan, guide annotation	Preview, infer, summarize, evaluate	Read, identify claims, discuss relevance
Writing	Ideas, organization, genre, accuracy, revision	Use models, process writing, peer review, rubrics	Plan, draft, revise, edit, reflect	Write a paragraph after reading and discussion

5.1.3 Principles for selecting instructional strategies

Instructional strategies should be selected according to learning objectives, learner needs, proficiency levels, available resources, and assessment expectations. A strategy that is effective for advanced learners may not be appropriate for beginners. A strategy that works in a small class may need adaptation in a large class. Teachers should therefore avoid using strategies as fixed formulas. They need to understand the principle behind each strategy and adapt it to the realities of their classroom.

Several principles can guide strategy selection. First, strategies should provide comprehensible input and meaningful output. Learners need to encounter English that they can understand with support, and they need opportunities to use English to express meaning. Second, strategies should include scaffolding. Teachers can provide models, examples, sentence starters, graphic organizers, vocabulary banks, and guided practice before asking learners to perform independently. Third, strategies should encourage interaction. Language develops through use, negotiation, clarification, and feedback.

Fourth, strategies should include feedback and reflection. Feedback helps learners notice the gap between their current performance and expected performance. Reflection helps learners understand which strategies work for them and how they can improve. Fifth, strategies should promote learner autonomy. The goal of language education is not to make learners dependent on the teacher, but to help them become strategic users of English. These principles are consistent with contemporary views of language learning that emphasize active participation, mediation, and purposeful communication.

Integrated Cycle for Language Skills Development



Figure 5.1 Integrated cycle for language skills development. The cycle shows how input, noticing, supported practice, communicative task, feedback, and transfer can connect listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

5.2 Instructional Strategies for Listening Development

5.2.1 Building listening readiness through pre-listening activities

Listening is often difficult for language learners because spoken language is fast, temporary, and influenced by accent, rhythm, intonation, and context. Learners may know a word in written form but fail to recognize it when it is spoken. They may also lose concentration when they cannot understand every word. For this reason, teachers should prepare learners before listening rather than immediately playing an audio file and asking comprehension questions.

Pre-listening activities help learners activate background knowledge and create a purpose for listening. Teachers may introduce

the topic through pictures, key questions, short reading input, vocabulary preview, or prediction tasks. For example, before listening to a conversation about environmental problems, learners can examine pictures of pollution, list possible vocabulary, and predict what speakers might discuss. This preparation reduces anxiety and helps learners focus on meaning rather than isolated sounds.

Teachers should be careful not to explain the entire listening text before playing it. Pre-listening should support comprehension without removing the challenge. A good pre-listening activity gives learners enough context to make predictions but still requires them to listen actively. In strategy-based listening instruction, prediction is followed by verification. Learners predict content, listen to confirm or revise their predictions, and then discuss how their understanding changed. Such activities train learners to become active listeners rather than passive receivers of sound.

5.2.2 Guiding comprehension during listening

While-listening activities should guide learners toward different levels of comprehension. At the first level, learners may listen for gist or general meaning. At the second level, they may listen for specific details such as names, dates, reasons, steps, or examples. At the third level, they may infer speaker attitude, purpose, agreement, disagreement, or implied meaning. A single listening text can be used several times with different purposes, moving from global to detailed understanding.

Teachers can use worksheets, graphic organizers, note-taking tables, true-false statements, sequencing tasks, information-gap tasks, and comprehension grids. However, while-listening tasks should not become mechanical exercises only. Learners should understand why they are listening. For example, instead of asking learners to catch

random words, the teacher may ask them to identify the speaker's problem, compare two solutions, or decide which advice is most appropriate. This kind of task reflects real-life listening because people listen in order to make meaning and respond.

Repeated listening is useful when it is purposeful. The first listening may focus on general meaning, the second on details, and the third on language features such as connected speech or pronunciation. Teachers can also pause strategically, replay short segments, or ask learners to compare notes with a partner. These procedures encourage collaboration and reduce the fear of misunderstanding. Vandergrift and Goh (2012) emphasize metacognitive listening instruction, in which learners plan, monitor, evaluate, and reflect on their listening processes.

5.2.3 Post-listening tasks and listening assessment

Post-listening activities help learners transform comprehension into communication. After listening, learners can summarize the content, express agreement or disagreement, role-play a continuation of the conversation, write a response, or compare the listening text with a written text on the same topic. These activities integrate listening with speaking, reading, or writing. They also show learners that listening is not an end in itself but part of broader communication.

Assessment of listening should measure more than the ability to identify isolated words. Teachers can assess learners' ability to understand main ideas, follow instructions, interpret details, infer meaning, and respond appropriately. For classroom purposes, short formative assessments are often more useful than one large test. Teachers can use listening journals, exit tickets, oral summaries, note-taking products, and peer discussion to monitor progress. These

assessment tools provide information about learners' strategies and difficulties.

Authentic audio and video materials can support listening development, but they must be selected carefully. Materials should match learners' proficiency and learning goals. Teachers can adapt tasks rather than simplify all materials. For example, a video may be difficult, but the task can focus only on identifying the main issue or selecting supporting details. This approach exposes learners to real language while maintaining achievable learning outcomes.

5.3 Instructional Strategies for Speaking Development

5.3.1 Balancing fluency and accuracy

Speaking development requires a balance between fluency and accuracy. Fluency refers to the ability to speak smoothly, maintain communication, and express meaning without excessive hesitation. Accuracy refers to the correct use of grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and discourse features. A classroom that focuses only on accuracy may produce learners who are afraid to speak. A classroom that focuses only on fluency may allow errors to become permanent. Effective speaking instruction provides opportunities for both meaningful communication and focused language improvement.

Teachers can separate fluency practice and accuracy practice within the same lesson. For example, learners may first engage in a fluency activity such as discussing a familiar topic with a partner. After the activity, the teacher notes common language problems and conducts a short accuracy-focused mini-lesson. Learners then repeat or extend the speaking task with better language awareness. This

sequence keeps communication meaningful while still addressing form.

Sentence frames, substitution tables, functional expressions, and model dialogues are useful for supporting lower-proficiency learners. However, these supports should gradually be reduced. If learners always read from a script, they may not develop spontaneous speaking ability. Teachers can move learners from controlled practice to semi-controlled practice and then to freer communication. This gradual release of responsibility is important in helping learners build confidence.

5.3.2 Task-based interaction and collaborative speaking

Task-based speaking activities require learners to use English to achieve an outcome. Examples include solving a problem, planning an event, comparing options, giving directions, conducting interviews, designing a poster, or preparing a short presentation. The focus is not only on producing sentences but on using language to complete a communicative task. Task-based language teaching has been influential because it connects language learning with purposeful communication (Ellis, 2003).

Collaborative speaking increases learner participation. In many classrooms, teacher-fronted questioning gives only a few learners the chance to speak. Pair work and small-group work create more speaking time and reduce the pressure of speaking in front of the whole class. Teachers should provide clear roles, time limits, language support, and accountability. For example, in a group discussion, one learner may be the facilitator, another the note-taker, another the reporter, and another the language monitor.

Speaking tasks should be designed with information gaps or opinion gaps. If all learners already have the same information and the same answer, there may be little reason to communicate. Information-gap tasks require learners to exchange information. Opinion-gap tasks require learners to explain preferences, reasons, or judgments. Reasoning-gap tasks require learners to analyze information and make decisions. These task types encourage genuine interaction and negotiation of meaning.

5.3.3 Pronunciation, confidence, and feedback

Pronunciation instruction should be integrated into speaking development. Many learners can form grammatically correct sentences but may not be understood because of pronunciation difficulties. Teachers do not need to demand a native-like accent. The more realistic goal is intelligibility: learners should be understood by their interlocutors in international communication. Pronunciation work may focus on word stress, sentence stress, rhythm, intonation, and sounds that frequently cause misunderstanding.

Feedback in speaking should be timely and supportive. During fluency activities, constant interruption may discourage learners and break the flow of communication. Teachers can take notes and provide delayed feedback after the activity. During accuracy-focused practice, immediate correction may be appropriate because the goal is controlled improvement. Peer feedback can also be useful if learners are trained to comment on specific criteria such as clarity, organization, use of target expressions, or delivery.

Confidence is a major factor in speaking. Learners may hesitate to speak because they fear mistakes, negative evaluation, or lack of vocabulary. Teachers can build a safe speaking environment by normalizing mistakes as part of learning, using pair rehearsal before

public performance, allowing planning time, and giving positive feedback on meaning before correcting form. Speaking development is not only linguistic; it is also emotional and social.

5.4 Instructional Strategies for Reading Development

5.4.1 Reading as active meaning construction

Reading is an active process in which learners construct meaning from text by using linguistic knowledge, background knowledge, textual clues, and reading strategies. Good readers do not read word by word in the same way for every text. They adjust their reading according to purpose. They may skim to identify the main idea, scan to locate specific information, read carefully to understand arguments, or reread to evaluate evidence. Reading instruction should therefore teach learners how to use strategies, not simply ask them to answer comprehension questions.

Before reading, teachers can activate background knowledge by asking questions, showing images, discussing keywords, or connecting the text to learners' experiences. During reading, teachers can guide learners to annotate, identify topic sentences, mark unfamiliar vocabulary, infer meaning from context, and recognize text organization. After reading, learners can summarize, discuss, compare viewpoints, write responses, or apply information to a problem. This sequence helps learners move from decoding to interpretation and response.

Reading strategies must be taught explicitly. Some learners may not know how to infer meaning from context or how to distinguish main ideas from details. Teachers can model strategy use through think-aloud procedures. For example, the teacher reads a short

paragraph aloud and explains how to predict, question, clarify, and summarize. Learners then practice the same strategy with guidance and gradually apply it independently.

5.4.2 Intensive reading, extensive reading, and vocabulary development

Intensive reading and extensive reading serve different but complementary purposes. Intensive reading involves close examination of shorter texts to study vocabulary, grammar, cohesion, discourse structure, and meaning. It is useful for teaching academic reading skills and language awareness. Extensive reading involves reading longer texts or many texts for general understanding, enjoyment, and fluency. It helps learners build reading speed, vocabulary exposure, and confidence.

Vocabulary is central to reading development. Learners cannot comprehend texts well if too many words are unfamiliar. Teachers should combine direct vocabulary instruction with incidental vocabulary learning. Direct instruction may include teaching high-frequency words, academic vocabulary, word families, collocations, affixes, and word-learning strategies. Incidental learning occurs when learners meet words repeatedly in meaningful reading. Nation and Macalister (2021) emphasize that reading and writing instruction should include attention to meaning, language focus, and fluency development.

Teachers should also teach learners how to deal with unknown words. Learners can use context clues, word parts, grammar cues, and dictionaries strategically. However, dictionary use should not interrupt comprehension excessively. Learners need to learn when to ignore a word temporarily, when to infer it, and when to look it up.

This decision-making ability is part of becoming an independent reader.

5.4.3 Critical, digital, and disciplinary reading

In modern English education, reading development should include critical and digital literacy. Learners need to evaluate sources, identify bias, distinguish fact from opinion, recognize persuasive techniques, and compare information across texts. Digital reading adds further challenges because learners encounter hyperlinks, multimedia, advertisements, comments, and algorithm-driven content. Reading instruction should therefore prepare learners to navigate information critically and responsibly.

Critical reading can be developed through questioning. Teachers may ask learners: Who wrote the text? What is the author's purpose? What evidence is provided? What information is missing? How does the text position the reader? Is the source reliable? These questions help learners move beyond literal comprehension. They also prepare learners for academic and civic participation, where reading often requires evaluation and judgment.

Disciplinary reading is also important. The way people read a scientific report is different from the way they read a narrative, a business email, a poem, or a news article. Each discipline has its own vocabulary, text structure, and evidence conventions. English language instruction should help learners recognize these differences. By doing so, teachers connect language learning with content learning and real-world literacy practices.

5.5 Instructional Strategies for Writing Development

5.5.1 Writing as process, product, and genre

Writing is one of the most demanding language skills because it requires idea development, organization, language accuracy, audience awareness, and revision. Effective writing instruction should not treat writing merely as a final product submitted for correction. Writing is a process that involves planning, drafting, receiving feedback, revising, editing, and publishing. At the same time, writing is also genre-based because different text types have different social purposes and organizational patterns.

A process approach helps learners understand that good writing rarely appears in one attempt. Teachers can guide learners to brainstorm ideas, organize them with outlines or mind maps, write a first draft, exchange feedback, revise content, edit language, and reflect on improvement. This approach reduces the fear of writing because learners know that early drafts are not expected to be perfect. It also makes teacher feedback more meaningful because feedback can be used for revision rather than simply received as a final grade.

A genre approach helps learners understand how texts work in social contexts. For example, a narrative usually presents orientation, complication, and resolution. An argumentative essay presents a claim, reasons, evidence, counterarguments, and conclusion. A report organizes information systematically. Teachers can use model texts to help learners notice structure, language features, and audience expectations. Hyland (2019) argues that writing instruction should make discourse conventions visible to learners, especially in academic and second language contexts.

5.5.2 Scaffolding, peer feedback, and revision

Scaffolding is essential in writing instruction. Teachers can provide writing frames, model paragraphs, vocabulary banks, transition lists, rubrics, and checklists. For beginners, a paragraph frame may help learners organize a topic sentence, supporting details, and concluding sentence. For more advanced learners, scaffolding may include genre analysis, source integration, argument mapping, or rhetorical moves. The aim is not to make writing formulaic, but to support learners until they can make independent choices.

Peer feedback can improve writing when it is structured and focused. Simply asking learners to exchange papers and comment freely may result in vague responses such as 'good' or 'needs grammar correction.' Teachers should provide peer review questions aligned with the learning objectives. For example, learners may check whether the introduction presents a clear topic, whether each paragraph has a main idea, whether evidence supports the claim, or whether transitions connect ideas. Peer feedback also helps learners become better readers of their own writing.

Revision should be separated from editing. Revision focuses on meaning, organization, argument, evidence, and clarity. Editing focuses on grammar, vocabulary, punctuation, and mechanics. Many learners move too quickly to editing because grammar errors are visible, while weak ideas or organization require deeper reflection. Teachers should guide learners to revise content first, then edit language. This sequence helps learners see writing as communication rather than as error avoidance.

5.5.3 Digital and AI-assisted writing

Digital writing has changed the way learners compose, revise, publish, and collaborate. Learners may write blogs, discussion posts, digital stories, collaborative documents, emails, captions, scripts, or multimodal presentations. These forms of writing require attention to audience, design, media, and interaction. Teachers should therefore include writing tasks that reflect contemporary communication practices while still developing accuracy and organization.

Artificial intelligence tools can support writing through brainstorming, grammar suggestions, vocabulary alternatives, translation assistance, and feedback. Godwin-Jones (2022) notes that intelligent writing assistance can be useful when teachers mediate its use and help learners understand the strengths and limitations of such tools. Similarly, Kohnke, Moorhouse, and Zou (2023) discuss the potential of ChatGPT for language teaching and learning while emphasizing the need for responsible pedagogy. AI should not replace writing instruction; it should become an object of critical learning and a tool for guided practice.

Teachers need to establish clear rules for AI-assisted writing. Learners should know when AI use is allowed, how to acknowledge assistance, what types of tasks require independent writing, and how to evaluate AI-generated language. AI may provide fluent sentences, but it may also produce inaccurate, generic, or culturally inappropriate content. Therefore, learners need AI literacy, source awareness, and revision skills. Writing instruction in the AI era should strengthen human judgment, not weaken it.

5.6 Vocabulary and Grammar Across Language Skills

5.6.1 Vocabulary as a bridge between skills

Vocabulary development connects listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Learners need receptive vocabulary to understand spoken and written texts, and they need productive vocabulary to speak and write clearly. Vocabulary knowledge includes form, meaning, use, pronunciation, spelling, collocation, word parts, register, and associations. Therefore, vocabulary instruction should go beyond translation or word lists. Learners need repeated encounters with words in meaningful contexts and opportunities to use them.

Teachers can teach vocabulary through thematic clusters, word families, collocations, semantic maps, corpus examples, vocabulary notebooks, and recycling activities. A word introduced in a reading text can later be used in a speaking discussion and then in a writing task. This recycling supports retention. Learners should also be trained to notice how words behave in context. For example, knowing the word 'increase' means knowing that it can be a verb or noun and that it often collocates with words such as significantly, gradually, price, rate, or demand.

Vocabulary assessment should include both recognition and use. Learners may recognize a word in a multiple-choice test but fail to use it correctly in speech or writing. Teachers can assess vocabulary through sentence completion, oral tasks, short writing, paraphrasing, matching collocations, or vocabulary journals. The goal is to help learners build a usable vocabulary that supports communication across skills.

5.6.2 Grammar for meaning and communication

Grammar should be taught as a resource for meaning, not merely as a set of rules. Learners need grammar to express time, sequence, comparison, condition, possibility, obligation, cause, emphasis, and relationships between ideas. In skills development, grammar becomes meaningful when learners see how it helps them understand texts and express messages. For example, passive voice may be taught through reading technical procedures and writing process descriptions. Conditional sentences may be taught through problem-solving discussions.

Teachers can use a focus-on-form approach by drawing attention to grammar within communicative activities. Instead of teaching grammar in isolation and hoping learners will use it later, the teacher can begin with a meaningful text or task, highlight a useful grammatical pattern, provide guided practice, and return to communication. This sequence helps learners connect form, meaning, and use. It also reduces the gap between grammar lessons and language skills lessons.

Grammar feedback should be selective. If teachers correct every error, learners may become discouraged and confused. Teachers can prioritize errors that affect meaning, errors related to the lesson objective, or recurring errors shared by many learners. Short grammar mini-lessons after communicative tasks can be effective because learners have already experienced the need for the language form.

c. Strategy training for independent learning

Learners need strategies to continue learning beyond the classroom. Listening strategies include predicting, listening for gist, recognizing key words, and asking for clarification. Speaking

strategies include using fillers, paraphrasing, repairing misunderstandings, and managing turn-taking. Reading strategies include skimming, scanning, inferring, summarizing, and evaluating sources. Writing strategies include planning, drafting, revising, editing, and using feedback. When teachers make these strategies explicit, learners become more aware of how language learning works.

Strategy instruction should include modelling, guided practice, independent practice, and reflection. Teachers should not only tell learners what strategies exist, but demonstrate when and how to use them. Learners can keep reflection logs to record which strategies helped them and which difficulties remain. Over time, this reflection builds self-regulation and learner autonomy.

Oxford (2017) emphasizes that language learning strategies are connected to learner agency, motivation, and self-regulated learning. In classroom practice, strategy training can be integrated into ordinary lessons. For example, after a reading task, the teacher can ask learners which clues helped them understand unknown words. After a speaking task, learners can reflect on how they handled communication breakdowns. Such reflection turns classroom activities into learning experiences.

5.7 Integrated-Skill Instruction and Communicative Tasks

5.7.1 Integrating skills through task-based learning

Integrated-skill instruction reflects the way language is used outside the classroom. In real life, people often listen before speaking, read before writing, discuss before presenting, and write after gathering information from multiple sources. Task-based learning

provides an effective framework for integration because it requires learners to use language to accomplish meaningful outcomes. The task gives learners a reason to combine skills.

A task-based lesson may begin with input, such as a short article, video, or infographic. Learners then discuss the content, identify useful language, complete a problem-solving activity, and produce an oral or written outcome. For example, learners may read about healthy lifestyles, listen to a short interview with a nutritionist, discuss habits in groups, and create a poster or presentation. The four skills are connected by a single communicative purpose.

Teachers should ensure that integrated tasks are manageable. If a task is too complex, learners may focus only on completing the product and ignore language learning. Scaffolding is therefore necessary. Teachers can provide vocabulary, examples, planning templates, roles, time limits, and assessment criteria. After the task, teachers can conduct feedback on both content and language.

5.7.2 Project-based and problem-based language learning

Project-based learning allows learners to use English over an extended period to investigate a topic, create a product, and present results. Projects may include creating a class magazine, recording a podcast, designing a tourism brochure, conducting a survey, preparing a campaign, or producing a short video. Such projects integrate reading research, listening to sources, speaking in collaboration, and writing scripts or reports. They also develop creativity, collaboration, critical thinking, and digital literacy.

Problem-based learning begins with a problem that learners must understand and solve. For example, learners may discuss how to reduce plastic waste at school, how to improve public transportation,

or how to promote local culture to international visitors. Learners gather information, evaluate options, discuss solutions, and present recommendations. English becomes a tool for inquiry and decision-making, not merely a subject to be studied.

Project and problem-based approaches require careful classroom management. Teachers need to define clear outcomes, provide timelines, assign roles, monitor group dynamics, and assess both process and product. Assessment should include language use, content quality, collaboration, creativity, and reflection. When well designed, projects and problems can make language learning more authentic and motivating.

5.7.3 Differentiation and inclusive participation

Learners in the same classroom may differ in proficiency, confidence, learning style, background knowledge, and access to technology. Instructional strategies should therefore include differentiation. Differentiation does not mean preparing a completely different lesson for every learner. It means providing varied levels of support, varied options for participation, and varied pathways toward the same learning goal.

Teachers can differentiate by adjusting input, process, output, and support. For input, teachers can provide texts of different difficulty levels or add glossaries. For process, learners can work individually, in pairs, or in groups. For output, learners may choose between an oral presentation, written report, infographic, or recorded video, depending on the objective. For support, teachers can provide sentence frames, vocabulary lists, extra time, peer assistance, or teacher conferencing.

Inclusive language classrooms also require attention to psychological safety. Learners should feel that their voices matter and that mistakes are part of learning. Teachers can use routines that ensure broad participation, such as think-pair-share, rotating roles, small-group discussion before whole-class sharing, and anonymous question cards. These strategies help reduce dominance by a few confident learners and support quieter learners.

5.8 Technology-Enhanced Strategies and Artificial Intelligence

5.8.1 Digital tools for multimodal language learning

Digital tools can enrich language skills development when they are used with clear pedagogical purposes. Audio platforms can support listening practice. Video tools can provide visual context and authentic interaction. Collaborative documents can support writing and peer feedback. Learning management systems can organize materials, tasks, and feedback. Digital storytelling tools can integrate speaking, writing, images, and sound. However, technology is not automatically effective. Its value depends on task design, teacher guidance, learner access, and assessment alignment.

UNESCO (2023) warns that technology in education should be evidence-based, equitable, scalable, and sustainable. This reminder is important for English language classrooms because digital tools may create both opportunities and inequalities. Learners with stable internet and devices may benefit more than those with limited access. Teachers should therefore plan alternatives, use low-bandwidth options when necessary, and ensure that technology supports learning rather than becoming a barrier.

Multimodal learning is especially relevant in English language education. Learners today encounter language through videos, social media posts, podcasts, infographics, online forums, presentations, and interactive platforms. Teachers can help learners analyze how meaning is created through words, images, sound, layout, and gesture. Multimodal tasks can also motivate learners because they connect English with real communication practices.

5.8.2 AI-supported learning and teacher mediation

Artificial intelligence can support language skills development in several ways. It can provide conversation practice, generate examples, offer grammar suggestions, give pronunciation feedback, create reading questions, help brainstorm writing ideas, and support personalized practice. For teachers, AI can assist in preparing materials, adapting texts, generating rubrics, and designing practice exercises. The TESOL Zip Guide on AI in English Language Teaching highlights practical ways educators can integrate AI tools into classroom teaching, lesson planning, and work with multilingual learners (TESOL International Association, 2025).

Teacher mediation is essential. AI-generated responses may be fluent but inaccurate, biased, culturally limited, or inappropriate for learners' level. Teachers must help learners verify information, compare outputs, revise language, and use AI ethically. Learners should understand that AI is a tool, not an authority. They should be taught to ask good questions, evaluate answers, and take responsibility for final language choices.

AI use should also protect learning integrity. If learners submit AI-generated writing as their own work, teachers cannot accurately assess their development. To address this issue, teachers can design process-based tasks that include brainstorming notes, outlines, drafts,

peer feedback, oral explanation, and reflection on tool use. Assessment can focus not only on the final product but also on the learner's thinking, revision, and ability to justify language choices.

5.8.3 Ethical, equitable, and human-centered technology use

Technology-enhanced language instruction should be human-centered. The teacher remains responsible for learning design, classroom relationships, ethical guidance, and assessment decisions. Digital tools should support interaction, creativity, feedback, and access to resources. They should not reduce learning to screen time or automated exercises. UNESCO's AI competency framework for teachers emphasizes a human-centered mindset, ethics of AI, AI foundations and applications, AI pedagogy, and professional learning (UNESCO, 2024).

Equity is a central concern. Teachers should consider whether all learners can access the technology, whether the tool protects privacy, whether it supports learners with different needs, and whether it respects cultural and linguistic diversity. In some contexts, low-tech strategies such as printed texts, classroom discussion, or peer feedback may be more appropriate than online platforms. Good pedagogy begins with learners' needs, not with the newest application.

Teachers also need professional development. Many teachers are asked to use digital tools without sufficient training. Effective professional development should be practical, ongoing, collaborative, and connected to classroom problems. Teachers need time to experiment, reflect, share resources, and evaluate impact. Technology integration is not a one-time skill; it is a continuing professional practice.

5.9 Assessment for Language Skills Development

5.9.1 Formative assessment and feedback

Assessment should support learning, not only measure learning. Formative assessment provides information during the learning process so that teachers and learners can make adjustments. In language skills development, formative assessment may include observation notes, oral feedback, short quizzes, learning journals, peer review, self-assessment checklists, draft comments, exit tickets, and classroom conferences. These tools help teachers identify difficulties before they become serious problems.

Feedback should be specific, understandable, and usable. Comments such as 'good job' or 'grammar needs improvement' are too general. Learners need to know what they did well, what needs improvement, and how to improve. For example, feedback on speaking may say, 'Your ideas were clear and you used three useful linking expressions. In the next presentation, try to reduce reading from notes and practice stress on key words.' Such feedback is actionable.

Hattie (2023) emphasizes the importance of feedback that clarifies where learners are going, how they are progressing, and what they need to do next. In English language classrooms, this means that criteria should be visible before performance. Learners should know whether the task assesses content, organization, fluency, accuracy, pronunciation, vocabulary, interaction, or strategy use. Clear criteria make feedback more transparent.

5.9.2 Rubrics, portfolios, and performance tasks

Rubrics are useful for assessing language skills because they describe levels of performance. A speaking rubric may include fluency, pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, organization, and interaction. A writing rubric may include content, organization, genre awareness, vocabulary, grammar, mechanics, and revision. Rubrics help teachers assess more consistently and help learners understand expectations. However, rubrics should be simple enough to be used in real classroom conditions.

Portfolios can show development over time. A writing portfolio may include drafts, revised texts, teacher feedback, peer feedback, and reflection. A speaking portfolio may include recordings of presentations, dialogues, pronunciation practice, and self-assessment. Portfolios encourage learners to see progress and take responsibility for improvement. They are especially useful when the goal is long-term skills development rather than one-time performance.

Performance tasks assess language use in meaningful contexts. Instead of testing only isolated knowledge, performance tasks ask learners to use English to complete communicative outcomes. Examples include conducting an interview, giving a presentation, writing a report, creating a podcast, participating in a debate, or producing a reading response. Performance assessment aligns well with communicative language teaching because it evaluates what learners can do with language.

5.9.3 Sample assessment alignment

Learning objective	Classroom activity	Assessment evidence	Feedback focus
Learners identify main ideas and supporting details in spoken English.	Listen to a short talk and complete a note-taking organizer.	Completed organizer and oral summary.	Accuracy of main idea, selected details, and listening strategy use.
Learners express opinions in a structured discussion.	Small-group discussion using agreement and disagreement expressions.	Teacher observation checklist and peer feedback.	Turn-taking, clarity of opinion, supporting reasons, and repair strategies.
Learners read a text critically and evaluate evidence.	Annotate an article and discuss author claims.	Annotated text and group report.	Identification of claims, evidence, bias, and source reliability.
Learners write a coherent paragraph using a clear topic sentence and support.	Process writing from outline to revised paragraph.	Draft, revision, final paragraph, and reflection.	Organization, coherence, vocabulary, grammar, and use of feedback.

5.10 Teacher Reflection and Professional Practice

5.10.1 Reflective decision-making in strategy use

Instructional strategies should be evaluated through reflective practice. A strategy may look effective in a textbook but may not work as expected in a particular classroom. Teachers need to observe how learners respond, identify obstacles, collect evidence, and revise their decisions. Reflection turns teaching into inquiry. It helps teachers move beyond routine and become responsive to learners' needs.

Teacher reflection can be guided by simple questions: What was the objective of the lesson? Which strategies helped learners participate? Which learners were silent or confused? What evidence shows that learning occurred? What should be changed next time? These questions encourage teachers to focus on learning rather than only on lesson completion. Reflection can be individual or collaborative through peer observation, lesson study, teacher journals, or professional learning communities.

Action research is one way to connect reflection with systematic improvement. Teachers identify a classroom problem, implement a strategy, collect data, analyze results, and revise practice. Burns, Edwards, and Ellis (2022) emphasize that teacher action research can support professional learning when it is connected to institutional context and collaborative inquiry. In language skills development, action research can investigate issues such as low speaking confidence, limited vocabulary use, poor reading motivation, or weak writing organization.

5.10.2 Context-sensitive adaptation

No instructional strategy is universally effective in the same way everywhere. Teachers must adapt strategies to class size, learner proficiency, curriculum demands, available time, culture of learning, assessment requirements, and resources. For example, pair work may need clear routines in large classes. Digital projects may need offline alternatives in areas with weak internet. Peer feedback may require training in classrooms where learners are not used to commenting on classmates' work.

Context-sensitive adaptation also means respecting learners' identities and goals. Some learners study English for academic purposes, others for professional communication, travel, digital participation, or personal growth. Strategies should therefore connect with learners' real purposes. When learners see relevance, motivation tends to increase. Teachers can use needs analysis, learner surveys, classroom observation, and informal discussion to understand these purposes.

Adaptation should not mean lowering expectations. Instead, it means providing appropriate pathways toward high expectations. Learners can be challenged when tasks are meaningful and support is available. Teachers should design tasks that are neither too easy nor too difficult. The best strategies create productive struggle: learners work hard, but they have enough guidance to succeed.

5.10.3 Sustainable professional development

Teachers need continuous professional development to keep instructional strategies relevant. English language education changes as new technologies, curricula, learner needs, and social conditions emerge. Professional development should not be limited to workshops

that provide general advice. It should include classroom-based experimentation, mentoring, peer observation, material development, research reading, and reflection on evidence of learner progress.

Professional development is most useful when teachers can connect new ideas with real classroom problems. For example, a teacher who notices that learners struggle with listening can study metacognitive listening strategies, apply them for several weeks, collect learner reflections, and discuss the results with colleagues. A teacher who wants to improve writing can develop a process-genre writing cycle and analyze changes in learner drafts. This approach makes professional learning practical and evidence-informed.

Institutional support is also necessary. Teachers need time, resources, collegial support, and recognition for innovation. If teachers are expected to improve skills instruction but receive no time for planning or reflection, change may remain superficial. Sustainable improvement requires both individual teacher agency and supportive educational environments.

CHAPTER 6

INTELLIGENT TUTORING SYSTEMS AND ADAPTIVE LEARNING IN EFL CONTEXTS

Dr. Ir. Supardi Temmu, M.Si., M.Mar.E., IPM., ASEAN Eng.

6.1 Introduction Technology Integration in English Language Education

6.1.1 Background

In the era of globalization and digitalization, technology has become an essential component of education, including English language learning. The availability of the internet, mobile devices, learning management systems, video conferencing platforms, and artificial intelligence tools has changed the way teachers deliver instruction and the way students access learning materials. English learning is no longer limited to the physical classroom because students can now access digital resources, communicate online, and practice language skills anytime and anywhere. This condition shows that technology plays an important role in creating flexible, accessible, and interactive language learning environments (UNESCO, 2023).

Globalization has also increased the importance of English as an international language. English is widely used in education, business, technology, tourism, international communication, and intercultural exchange. Therefore, students are expected not only to understand English grammar and vocabulary but also to use English effectively in real communication. Technology supports this need by providing

authentic materials such as videos, podcasts, online articles, digital books, and international communication platforms. Through these resources, students can experience English as it is used in real-life contexts and global communities (Crystal, 2012).

The development of online and hybrid learning has further strengthened the role of technology in English language education. Learning management systems, video conferencing applications, mobile learning applications, and collaborative platforms allow teachers and students to continue the learning process even when they are not in the same physical space. These tools help teachers organize materials, distribute assignments, provide feedback, and monitor students' progress. At the same time, students can participate in discussions, submit tasks, and collaborate with peers through digital platforms (Higgins, Xiao, & Katsipataki, 2012).

However, technology integration should not be understood merely as the use of digital devices in the classroom. Effective technology integration requires careful pedagogical planning. Teachers need to select digital tools that are relevant to learning objectives, students' needs, language skills, and classroom conditions. In other words, technology should function as a meaningful learning support, not simply as a modern accessory. When technology is used appropriately, it can improve interaction, motivation, collaboration, and independent learning in English language education (Reinders & White, 2016).

6.1.2 Importance of Technology in English Language Learning

Technology is important in English language learning because it makes the learning process more interactive and engaging. Through digital media, students can interact with English in various forms,

such as videos, podcasts, online quizzes, games, simulations, and digital storytelling. These activities help students learn English in a more contextual and meaningful way. Instead of only memorizing vocabulary or grammar rules, students can listen to authentic conversations, watch real communication situations, and respond to language tasks actively. This kind of interaction can increase students' exposure to English and encourage them to use the language more frequently.

Another important role of technology is its ability to support personalized learning. Every student has different levels of English proficiency, learning speed, interests, and difficulties. Digital platforms and mobile applications can provide exercises, feedback, and learning materials that match students' individual needs. For example, students who have difficulty with vocabulary can repeat vocabulary exercises, while students who are more advanced can move to more challenging tasks. This flexibility helps teachers apply differentiated instruction and allows students to learn at their own pace.

Technology also provides students with access to global learning resources. Through the internet, students can read international news, watch educational videos, listen to English podcasts, access online dictionaries, and communicate with people from different countries. This global access is valuable because English is not only learned as a school subject but also as a tool for international communication. By using technology, students can become more familiar with different accents, cultures, expressions, and communication styles in English.

In addition, technology can increase students' motivation and engagement. Digital learning activities such as gamified quizzes,

interactive tasks, online discussions, and collaborative projects can make English learning more enjoyable. Students may feel more motivated when they can see their progress, receive immediate feedback, and participate in creative digital activities. Technology can also reduce anxiety, especially for students who are afraid of speaking English directly in front of the class. For instance, students can record their speaking tasks first, practice with language applications, or participate in online discussions before speaking in a face-to-face classroom.

Furthermore, technology supports collaboration and communication. English language learning requires practice, interaction, and social use of language. Collaborative tools such as Google Docs, Padlet, Zoom, and discussion forums allow students to work together, give peer feedback, and complete group projects. These activities encourage students to use English not only for individual learning but also for communication and cooperation with others. Therefore, technology helps create a more communicative and student-centered English learning environment.

6.1.3 Examples of Technologies and Their Functions

Table 6.1 Types of Technology and Their Functions in English Language Learning

No. Technology / Explanation Platform		Main Function	Benefits for Students	
1	Learning Management Systems (Moodle, Google Classroom)	Managing learning materials, assignments, quizzes, and assessments	Clear learning structure, flexible access, and progress monitoring	Learning Management Systems help teachers organize classroom activities in one digital space. Students can access materials, submit assignments, receive feedback, and monitor
2	Mobile Applications (Duolingo, Babbel)	Practicing grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation , and conversation	Independent practice, personalized learning, and increased motivation	Mobile applications allow students to practice English repeatedly and flexibly. Students can

				learn according to their own pace.
3	Videos and Podcasts	Providing authentic listening input and contextual language exposure	Improved listening skills, pronunciation awareness, and cultural understanding	Videos and podcasts expose students to natural English use, including accents, intonation, expressions, and cultural contexts.
4	Artificial Intelligence Tools (Grammarly, ChatGPT)	Providing automated feedback, writing assistance, and adaptive support	Quick correction, revision support, and personalized learning assistance	Artificial intelligence tools can help students identify errors, improve sentence clarity, practice writing, and receive immediate

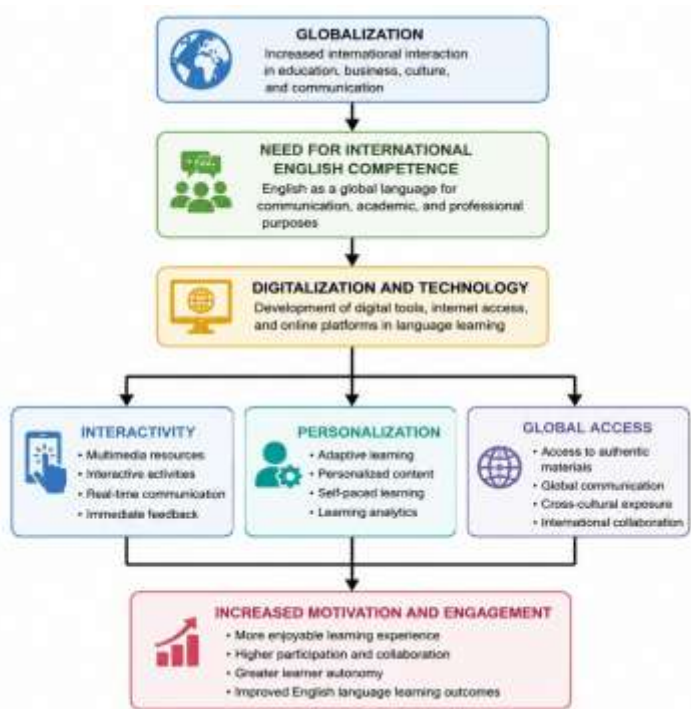
				language support. However, teacher guidance is still needed to ensure responsible use.
5	Collaborative Tools (Google Docs, Padlet, Zoom)	Supporting discussion, group projects, peer feedback, and virtual interaction	Collaboration, social interaction, and communicative practice	Collaborative tools allow students to work together in real time, write jointly, discuss ideas, and practice English through meaningful interaction.

Management systems help organize the learning process, while mobile applications support independent and personalized practice. Videos and podcasts provide authentic language input that can improve listening skills and cultural awareness. Artificial intelligence tools offer immediate feedback and learning assistance, especially in writing and grammar practice. Meanwhile, collaborative tools help

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students interact, communicate, and complete group tasks using English. This table shows that technology should be selected based on its pedagogical purpose and its relevance to students’ learning needs.

6.1.4 Conceptual Diagram



Figures 6.1 The Relationship between Globalization, Technology, and English Language Learning

Figure 6.1 illustrates the relationship between globalization, technology, and English language learning. Globalization creates the need for students to develop English competence for international communication. This need is supported by digitalization and technology, which provide various learning tools such as online platforms, mobile applications, multimedia resources, artificial

intelligence tools, and collaborative spaces. These technologies contribute to interactivity, personalization, and global access. As a result, students may become more motivated and engaged in the English learning process because they can learn through flexible, meaningful, and relevant digital experiences.

6.1.5 Purpose of the Chapter

This chapter aims to provide an overview of the importance of technology integration in English language education. It explains how technology can support interactive learning, personalized instruction, global access, collaboration, assessment, and learner autonomy. This chapter also emphasizes that technology should be integrated with clear pedagogical purposes. Teachers should not use technology only because it is modern or popular, but because it can support students in achieving meaningful English learning outcomes.

Overall, the introduction establishes the foundation for understanding technology integration in English language education. It highlights the connection between globalization, digitalization, and the changing needs of English learners. The next sections will discuss the rationale, theoretical foundations, types of technology, lesson design, assessment, learner engagement, challenges, and future directions of technology-enhanced English language learning.

6.2 Rationale for Technology Integration in English Learning

- 1. Meeting Learners' Needs: Interactivity, Personalization, and Global Access** Modern English learners face diverse challenges and needs. Firstly, learners benefit from interactive environments where they can practice English actively rather than passively. Digital tools such as quizzes, simulations,

gamified apps, and virtual discussion platforms provide meaningful interaction with the language, allowing learners to practice listening, speaking, reading, and writing in context (Mihaylova et al., 2022). Interactivity not only enhances language acquisition but also strengthens motivation and engagement.

Secondly, technology supports personalized learning. Students vary in proficiency, learning pace, interests, and cognitive styles. Adaptive digital platforms, AI-based applications, and mobile apps can customize learning paths, provide instant feedback, and allow students to focus on areas that require improvement. This personalization ensures learners progress at their own pace and promotes selfdirected learning (Reinders & White, 2016).

Thirdly, global access through technology allows learners to connect with authentic English materials and international peers. The internet provides access to news articles, podcasts, educational videos, online courses, and virtual exchange programs. Exposure to global English enhances cultural understanding, develops pragmatic language skills, and prepares learners for real-world communication scenarios (Crystal, 2012; UNESCO, 2023).

2. Benefits for Motivation, Engagement, and Scaffolding

Technology contributes to learners' motivation and engagement by making learning interactive and enjoyable. Gamification elements such as points, badges, and leaderboards can increase participation, while multimedia resources provide variety and context for language use. In addition, online collaborative activities, such as group writing or discussion boards, promote

social learning and accountability, which increases learner engagement (Higgins, Xiao, & Katsipataki, 2012).

Scaffolding is another important benefit. Technology enables structured guidance for learners through adaptive exercises, automated feedback, and digital prompts. For example, AI writing tools provide real-time corrections, while collaborative platforms allow peers or to guide students step-by-step. This kind of scaffolding helps learners achieve tasks that they might not be able to complete independently, promoting gradual autonomy in language use (Reinders & White, 2016).

3. Examples of Benefits by Technology Type

Table 6.2 Benefits of Technology in English Learning

Technology / Platform	Key Benefits	Pedagogical Impact
Mobile Apps (Duolingo, Babbel)	Personalized practice, instant feedback	Supports differentiated learning and self-paced progress
LMS (Moodle, Google Classroom)	Centralized materials, assignment tracking	Enables structured, organized blended learning
Videos / Podcasts	Authentic input, cultural exposure	Improves listening comprehension and pragmatic understanding
AI Tools (Grammarly, ChatGPT)	Automated feedback, scaffolding	Enhances writing accuracy and learning autonomy
Collaborative Platforms (Zoom, Google Docs)	Peer interaction, group projects	Promotes communication skills and social learning

This table summarizes how different technologies directly support learner needs. Mobile apps enable self-paced personalized learning, LMSs structure content and track

progress, videos and podcasts provide authentic language input, AI tools scaffold writing tasks, and collaborative platforms foster interaction and teamwork. Together, they create an engaging, supportive, and effective learning environment.

6.3 Theoretical Underpinnings

6.3.1 Cognitive and Behavioral Foundations

This sub-section combines Behaviorism and Cognitivism, as both focus on individual learning processes and mental engagement with materials.

Behaviorism emphasizes repetition, reinforcement, and habit formation. In English learning, digital drills, quizzes, and gamified exercises provide immediate feedback, reinforcing correct answers and helping students internalize vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation patterns. For example, an app like Duolingo rewards correct answers with points or badges, creating motivation through reinforcement (Higgins, Xiao, & Katsipataki, 2012).

Cognitivism centers on how learners process information, manage cognitive load, and acquire knowledge effectively. Technology supports these processes by providing structured, scaffolded learning. Multimedia tutorials, videos with subtitles, interactive exercises, and guided prompts help students focus on important language input without feeling overwhelmed. Scaffolds such as glossaries, hints, and model examples guide learners through complex tasks, improving comprehension and retention (Reinders & White, 2016).

Integration in practice: Teachers can begin lessons with drill-based digital exercises (Behaviorism) and then use multimedia-

supported tasks that guide attention, reduce cognitive load, and promote active comprehension (Cognitivism).

Table 3 Cognitive and Behavioral Foundations in Technology-Enhanced English Learning

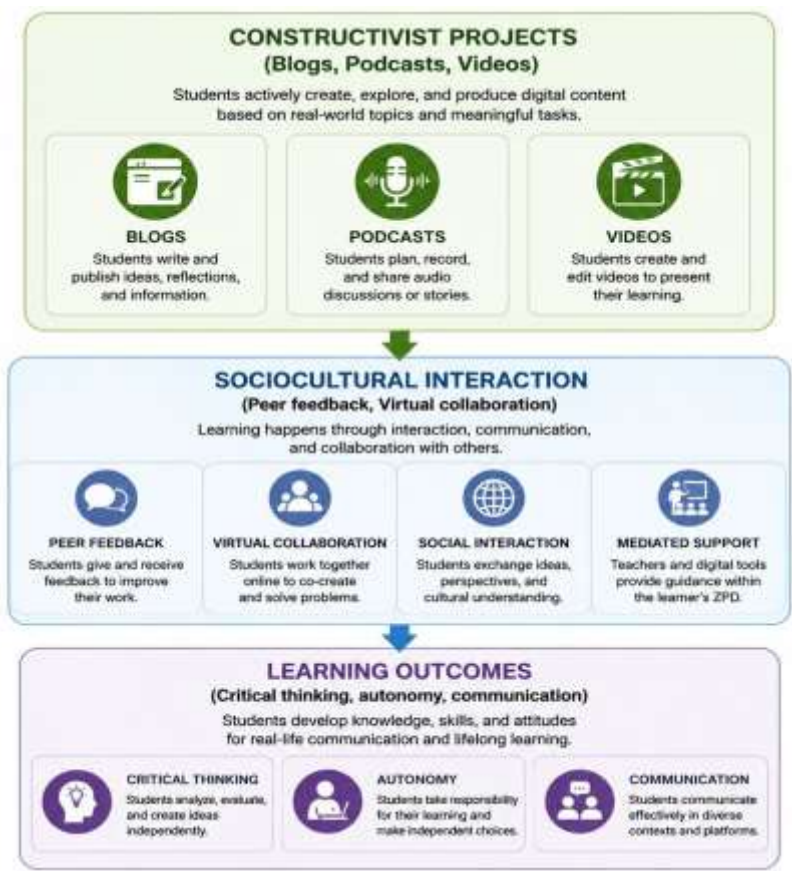
Theory	Key Focus	Technology Example	Classroom Application
Behaviorism	Repetition & reinforcement	Gamified quizzes, flashcards	Vocabulary and grammar drills with instant feedback
Cognitivism	Cognitive processing & scaffolding	Multimedia tutorials, interactive videos	Listening, reading comprehension with guided prompts

6.3.2 Constructivist and Sociocultural Approaches

This sub-section focuses on Constructivism and Sociocultural Theory, emphasizing social interaction and active knowledge construction.

Constructivism posits that learners build knowledge through active engagement, problem-solving, and real-world projects. Technology allows students to produce blogs, podcasts, videos, and presentations, integrating multiple language skills. For instance, students might create a digital story or online project, requiring collaborative writing, vocabulary application, and oral presentation skills. Such project-based activities develop critical thinking, creativity, and digital literacy alongside English proficiency (Mihaylova et al., 2022).

Sociocultural Theory highlights the importance of social interaction, scaffolding, and the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). Technology provides platforms for peer interaction, teacher guidance, and collaborative learning through shared documents, discussion forums, or virtual breakout rooms. Learners complete tasks beyond their independent capabilities with guidance from more competent peers or teachers, gradually gaining autonomy (Vygotsky, 1978).



Figures 6.2 Constructivist Projects, Sociocultural Interaction, and Learning Outcomes

Integration in practice: Teachers can design collaborative digital projects, where students negotiate meaning, give peer feedback, and co-create content. Constructivist tasks are socially mediated, allowing both experiential and guided learning.

6.3.3 Communicative and Integrative Practices

This sub-section focuses on Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and the integration of all theories for holistic classroom practice.

CLT emphasizes real communication. Digital tools—such as video calls, role-play simulations, online debates, and discussion boards—provide authentic contexts where learners negotiate meaning and use English for real purposes. Unlike drill-focused approaches, CLT encourages fluency, interaction, and meaningful exchanges.

Integrative practice: Modern English classrooms benefit from combining all five theories:

- Behaviorism for drills and automaticity
- Cognitivism for processing and scaffolding
- Constructivism for project-based creation
- Sociocultural for guided collaboration
- CLT for authentic communicative practice

Teachers can sequence lessons to begin with structured drills, move to scaffolded comprehension tasks, engage learners in collaborative digital projects, and finish with communicative activities. Technology serves as a unifying medium, supporting each theoretical approach while promoting engagement, autonomy, and higher-order language skills.

Table 6.4 Integrative Technology Applications

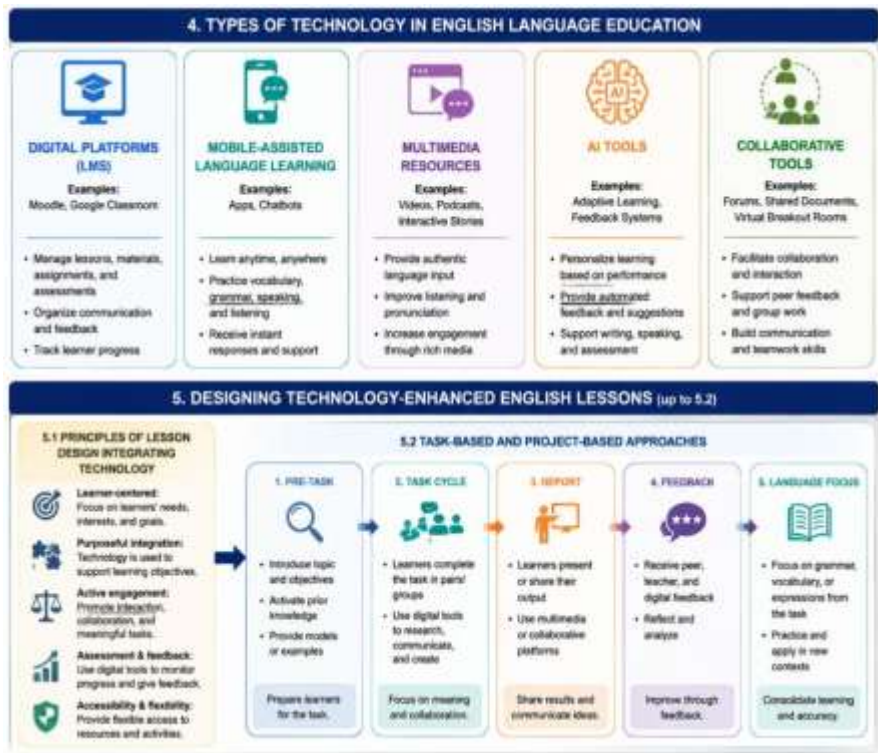
Theory	Technology Example	Practical Outcome
CLT	Online debates, roleplays	Real communication, fluency, negotiation of meaning
Constructivism + Sociocultural	Collaborative blogs, shared documents	Creativity, collaboration, scaffolding
Behaviorism + Cognitivism	AI quizzes, multimedia tutorials	Repetition, feedback, comprehension support

6.4 Technology Types and Designing Technology-Enhanced English Lessons

1. Overview

Technology integration in English language education requires not only knowing the types of available digital tools but also understanding how to apply them effectively in lesson design. Combining the knowledge of technology with pedagogical principles ensures that learners engage meaningfully and achieve learning objectives. This chapter merges an overview of technology types with guidelines for designing technology-enhanced lessons, emphasizing interactivity, personalization, collaboration, and authentic communication.

2. Types of Technology



Figures 6.3 Types of Technology and Lesson Design

The diagram presents a structured overview of the major types of technology used in English language education and the principles of designing technology-enhanced lessons. The top section highlights five key categories of technology: digital platforms (such as Moodle and Google Classroom), mobile-assisted language learning (including apps and chatbots), multimedia resources (videos, podcasts, and interactive stories), AI tools (adaptive learning and automated feedback systems), and collaborative tools (forums, shared documents, and virtual breakout rooms). Each category is accompanied by examples,

core functions, and their benefits for learners, such as enabling personalized practice, providing authentic input, and facilitating collaboration.

The bottom section illustrates lesson design principles and task-based/project-based approaches. It emphasizes learner-centered design, purposeful integration of technology, active engagement, assessment and feedback, and accessibility/flexibility. The learning cycle is broken into five stages: Pre-Task (introducing the topic and activating prior knowledge), Task Cycle (students complete tasks using digital tools in pairs or groups), Report (presenting outputs using multimedia or collaborative platforms), Feedback (receiving peer, teacher, and digital feedback), and Language Focus (practicing grammar, vocabulary, and expressions derived from the task). The diagram demonstrates how different technologies can be effectively integrated into structured lesson sequences to enhance engagement, collaboration, communication, and overall learning outcomes.

3. Examples of Digital Activities

Table 6.5 Examples of Technology-Enhanced Activities

Activity Type	Technology	Learning Objective	Classroom Application
Role-Play	Video conferencing, chatbots	Oral fluency, communication strategies	Students simulate real-life scenarios online and receive feedback
Debate	Virtual discussion forums	Critical thinking, argumentation	Students prepare arguments and debate asynchronously or synchronously
Collaborative Writing	Google Docs, Padlet	Writing accuracy, peer review	Students co-write essays, edit, and comment collaboratively
Vocabulary Games	Quizlet, Kahoot!	Vocabulary retention, motivation	Gamified practice with immediate feedback and scoring
Digital Storytelling	Blogs, podcasts, videos	Creativity, integration of language skills	Students produce multimedia stories demonstrating reading, writing, and speaking

Table 6.5 demonstrates how different technologies can be applied to specific classroom activities. Each activity leverages technology to meet defined learning objectives, whether it is practicing speaking, enhancing collaboration, or reinforcing vocabulary. By selecting appropriate tools and designing tasks carefully, teachers create lessons that are interactive, engaging, and effective.

4. Summary

Integrating technology effectively requires both knowledge of digital tools and thoughtful lesson design. Teachers should select tools that align with learning objectives, incorporate task- or project-based approaches, provide personalized scaffolding, and support collaboration. When used purposefully, technology enhances learner engagement, interaction, motivation, and autonomy, ultimately improving English language outcomes.

6.5 Assessment, Feedback, Learner Engagement, and Motivation in Digital English Learning

Assessment in digital English learning environments has shifted from traditional paperbased testing toward continuous and integrated evaluation. Digital tools allow teachers to assess learners both during the learning process and at the end of instruction. Formative assessment is conducted through online quizzes, interactive exercises, discussion forums, and real-time tasks, which help teachers monitor student understanding continuously. Summative assessment is carried out through digital exams, projects, presentations, or portfolio-based evaluation that reflects overall learning achievement. One of the most important advantages of digital assessment is immediate feedback. Students can instantly receive correction for grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and writing accuracy through AI tools and learning platforms, allowing faster improvement and revision.

In addition to standard assessment methods, e-portfolios play an important role in documenting student progress over time. Students can collect various forms of learning evidence such as essays, audio recordings, videos, and reflections in one digital space. This allows assessment to focus not only on final results but also on learning

development. Peer assessment is also widely used in digital environments. Through tools such as Google Docs or LMS platforms, students can review and comment on each other's work, which strengthens critical thinking and collaborative learning skills. Automated feedback systems powered by artificial intelligence further support learning by providing suggestions and corrections, although teacher evaluation remains essential for deeper analysis of meaning, coherence, and communicative quality.

A key issue in digital assessment is balancing accuracy and communicative performance. Automated systems often focus on linguistic accuracy, while real communication requires fluency, clarity, and meaning-making ability. Therefore, effective assessment must integrate both dimensions to ensure comprehensive language development. Another important component is learning analytics, where digital platforms track student performance, participation, and progress. This data helps teachers identify learners who need additional support and design more personalized instruction. However, data interpretation should always be combined with teacher judgment to avoid over-reliance on numerical indicators.

Learner engagement and motivation are strongly influenced by how technology is integrated into learning. Gamification is one of the most widely used strategies to increase engagement. By using elements such as points, badges, levels, and leaderboards, students become more motivated to participate and complete learning tasks. Progress tracking systems also help learners visualize their improvement, which increases persistence and learning consistency.

Online interaction further enhances engagement. Digital platforms such as discussion forums, group chats, and collaborative tools allow students to interact, exchange ideas, and complete tasks

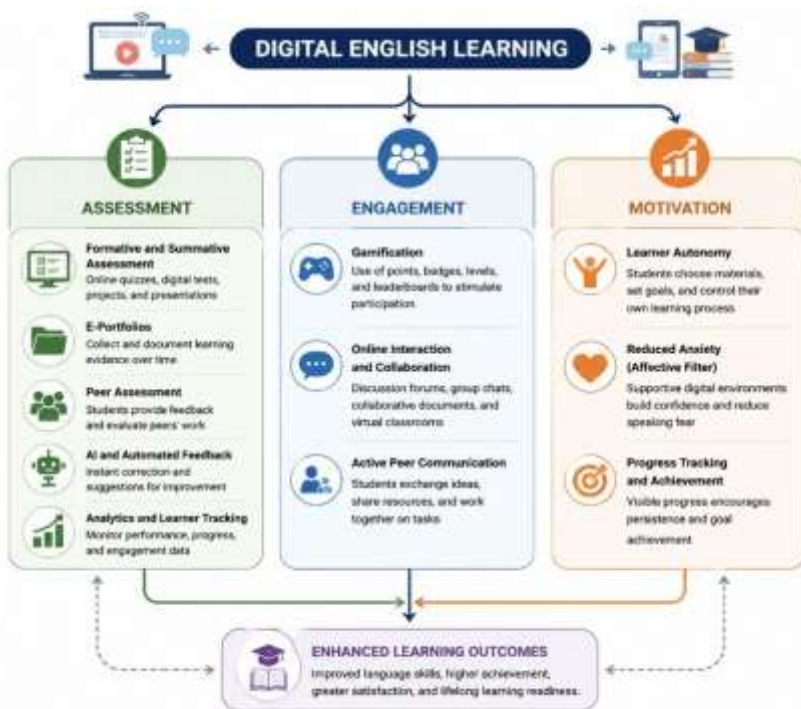
together. This social interaction makes English learning more meaningful because students use language for real communication purposes. Digital learning environments also help reduce language anxiety. Students who are reluctant to speak in class can practice through recordings, chatbots, or asynchronous communication before engaging in real-time speaking activities. This supports Krashen's Affective Filter Hypothesis, which states that lower anxiety levels improve language acquisition outcomes.

Technology also supports learner autonomy and self-regulated learning. Students can choose their own learning materials, set goals, monitor progress, and evaluate their achievements. Mobile applications, AI tutors, and online platforms provide flexible learning opportunities that extend beyond the classroom. This autonomy is essential for long-term language development because it encourages students to take responsibility for their own learning process.

Table 6.6 Digital Tools for Assessment, Engagement, and Motivation

Category	Tools / Methods	Function	Learning Impact
Formative Assessment	Online quizzes, LMS tasks	Monitor ongoing learning	Immediate feedback and progress tracking
Summative Assessment	Digital exams, projects	Evaluate final achievement	Measure overall competence
E-Portfolios	Google Sites, LMS portfolios	Document learning progress	Long-term skill development evidence
Peer Assessment	Google Docs, forums	Student-to-student feedback	Critical thinking and collaboration
AI Feedback Tools	Grammarly, ChatGPT	Automated correction	Faster writing and grammar improvement
Gamification	Points, badges, leaderboards	Increase motivation	Higher engagement and participation
Learning Analytics	LMS dashboards	Track performance data	Personalized instruction support

This table shows how digital tools function across three main areas: assessment, engagement, and motivation. Each tool contributes differently. Assessment tools measure learning progress, AI tools and peer feedback support skill development, while gamification and analytics increase motivation and improve learning strategies.



Figures 6.4 Conceptual Relationship of Digital Learning Components

This diagram illustrates the relationship between assessment, engagement, and motivation in digital English learning. Assessment provides continuous evaluation through formative and summative methods supported by technology. Engagement is enhanced through gamification, collaboration, and peer interaction. Motivation increases through autonomy, reduced anxiety, and visible progress tracking. Together, these three components create a learning environment that is interactive, studentcentered, and continuously adaptive.

6.6 Challenges and Considerations in Technology-Enhanced English Learning

The integration of technology in English language education provides many benefits, but it also presents several challenges that must be carefully considered. One of the most common issues is technical limitation. Many learning environments still face problems such as unstable internet connectivity, limited access to digital devices, and unequal availability of technology among students. These limitations can create gaps in learning opportunities and affect the overall effectiveness of digital instruction.

Another important challenge is teacher readiness and professional development. Effective use of technology requires teachers to have not only technical skills but also pedagogical competence in integrating digital tools into language instruction. Without adequate training, technology may be used only at a basic level, such as for presenting materials, rather than for interactive and meaningful learning. Continuous professional development is therefore necessary to ensure that teachers can design effective technology-enhanced lessons.

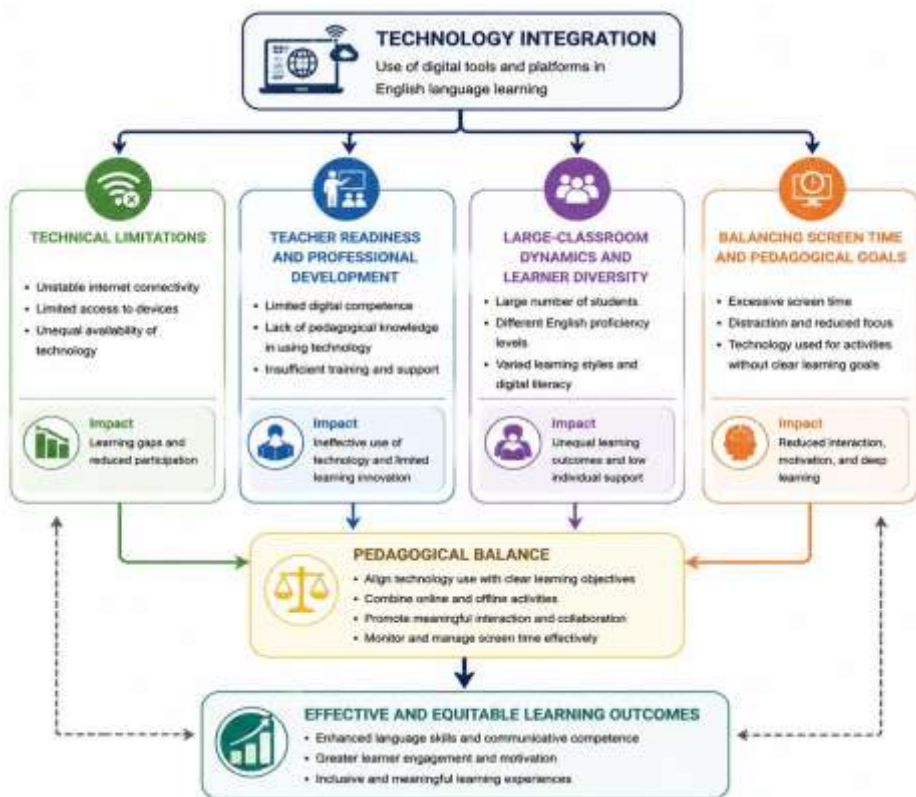
Large-classroom dynamics and learner diversity also create significant challenges. In many educational contexts, teachers must manage large groups of students with different levels of English proficiency, learning styles, and digital literacy. This makes it difficult to provide individual support and monitor participation in digital activities. Teachers must therefore design flexible tasks, clear instructions, and structured collaboration strategies to ensure inclusive participation.

Another critical consideration is balancing screen time and pedagogical goals. While technology increases engagement, excessive screen time may reduce physical interaction and affect attention span. Therefore, technology should be used purposefully, ensuring that every digital activity supports clear learning objectives rather than replacing meaningful human interaction in the classroom.

Table 6.7 Challenges in Technology-Enhanced English Learning

Challenge Area	Description	Impact on Learning	Possible Strategy
Technical Limitations	Poor internet, limited devices, unequal access	Learning gaps and reduced participation	Blended learning and offline alternatives
Teacher Readiness	Limited digital and pedagogical skills	Ineffective use of technology	Continuous professional development
Classroom Diversity	Different proficiency levels and learning styles	Unequal learning outcomes	Differentiated instruction and scaffolding
Screen Time Balance	Overuse of digital devices	Reduced interaction and focus	Balanced onlineoffline learning design

Table 6.7 summarizes the main challenges in implementing technology in English language learning. Each challenge affects learning in different ways, from access issues to pedagogical limitations. The table also shows that each challenge has possible strategies that can reduce its negative impact, such as blended learning, teacher training, and differentiated instruction.



Figures 6.5 Conceptual Relationship of Challenges in Digital English Learning

This Figures 6.5 shows that challenges in technology integration come from multiple interconnected sources. Technical limitations affect access to learning, teacher readiness influences instructional quality, and classroom diversity affects learning equity. These challenges converge into the need for pedagogical balance, especially in managing screen time and learning objectives. When these challenges are properly addressed, technology can still support effective and meaningful English language learning outcomes.

6.7 Future Directions in Technology-Enhanced English Language Learning

Future developments in English language education are strongly shaped by rapid advancements in digital technology. These innovations are shifting language learning from traditional classroom-based instruction toward more adaptive, immersive, and globally connected learning environments. The future of English language teaching will be increasingly personalized, interactive, and integrated with real-world communication contexts.

One major direction is the use of AI-driven adaptive learning systems. Artificial intelligence enables platforms to analyze learner performance and automatically adjust content difficulty, provide personalized feedback, and recommend targeted exercises. This creates a more individualized learning experience where students can progress according to their own needs and abilities. AI also supports teachers by reducing workload in assessment and providing data-driven insights into student performance patterns.

Another important development is virtual reality (VR) and immersive language learning environments. VR technology allows learners to practice English in simulated real-life situations such as airports, restaurants, classrooms, or workplaces. This type of immersive learning enhances contextual understanding and improves communicative competence because students interact with language in realistic environments rather than abstract exercises.

Global collaborative projects and international online exchange represent another key future direction. Through digital platforms, students from different countries can collaborate on shared projects, participate in virtual discussions, and exchange cultural perspectives.

This strengthens intercultural communication skills and exposes learners to diverse English varieties and real global communication practices. Such experiences support English as a global lingua franca rather than a classroom subject only.

Finally, the integration of lifelong learning and hybrid education models is becoming increasingly important. English learning is no longer limited to formal education but continues throughout life through online courses, mobile applications, and digital communities. Hybrid learning models, which combine face-to-face instruction with online learning, provide flexibility and continuity. This approach supports learners in developing long-term autonomy and sustained language development beyond formal classroom settings.

Table 6.8 Future Trends in English Language Learning Technology

Future Direction	Key Technology	Main Function	Learning Impact
AI-driven adaptive learning	Artificial intelligence platforms	Personalized learning paths and feedback	Faster progress and individualized instruction
Virtual Reality (VR)	Immersive simulation systems	Real-life language practice environments	Improved fluency and contextual communication
Global collaboration	Online exchange platforms	Cross-cultural communication and teamwork	Intercultural competence and authentic language use
Lifelong & hybrid learning	LMS, mobile apps, blended learning systems	Continuous and flexible learning access	Sustainable and autonomous language learning

Table 6.8 summarizes emerging trends in English language education supported by technology. AI systems enhance personalization, VR provides immersive experiences, global

collaboration supports authentic communication, and hybrid learning ensures flexibility and lifelong access. Together, these trends show a shift toward more learner-centered, experience-based, and globally connected English learning.



Figures 6.6 Conceptual Future Model of English Language Learning

The image illustrates a conceptual model of future English language learning that is centered on technology, learners, and global connectivity. The model consists of four main components: AI-driven adaptive learning systems that provide personalized, databased instruction; virtual reality that creates immersive language

experiences in real-life simulated environments; global collaborative projects that connect students across countries to enhance intercultural communication; and the integration of lifelong learning with hybrid education models that combine face-to-face and online learning. All of these components lead to the final outcome, which is advanced communicative competence, including effective communication skills, global awareness, intercultural understanding, and lifelong learning ability.

6.8 Conclusion

The integration of technology in English language education demonstrates a clear connection between pedagogical theory and classroom practice. Learning theories such as behaviorism, cognitivism, constructivism, sociocultural theory, and communicative language teaching provide a strong foundation for understanding how students learn languages. These theories become more effective when supported by digital tools such as learning management systems, mobile applications, artificial intelligence, multimedia resources, and collaborative platforms. The combination of theory and technology creates a more interactive, personalized, and meaningful learning environment that supports both language acquisition and learner development.

Effective technology-enhanced English education requires careful pedagogical design. Teachers need to select appropriate digital tools based on learning objectives, student needs, and classroom context. Task-based and project-based learning approaches, combined with adaptive scaffolding and collaborative activities, help students use English in real communication contexts. In addition, digital assessment systems, eportfolios, and learning analytics provide

continuous feedback that supports both learning progress and instructional improvement.

Continuous evaluation and innovation are essential in ensuring the effectiveness of technology integration. As digital tools continue to evolve, educators must regularly reflect on their teaching practices, evaluate learning outcomes, and adapt to new technological developments. This ongoing process ensures that English language education remains relevant, effective, and aligned with global communication demands.

CHAPTER 7

CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT AND INCLUSIVE LEARNING ENVIRONMENTS

Mohammad Rafi'i Mohammad Sata, S.Pd., M.Pd.

7.1 Introduction

Classroom management has long been recognized as a central component of effective teaching, particularly in contexts characterized by increasing student diversity. Rather than being limited to controlling student behavior, contemporary perspectives conceptualize classroom management as a comprehensive process that involves organizing the physical, social, and instructional dimensions of the classroom to maximize learning opportunities (Emmer and Sabornie, 2015). In diverse classrooms, this role becomes more complex, as teachers must respond to variations in students' cultural backgrounds, language proficiency, learning styles, and socio-emotional needs. Research indicates that effective classroom management contributes not only to orderly learning environments but also to improved student engagement and academic outcomes, particularly when it incorporates responsiveness to learners' diverse characteristics (Evertson and Weinstein, 2006).

Parallel to this development, the concept of inclusive learning environments has gained prominence within global education discourse. Inclusion emphasizes the provision of equitable access to learning, meaningful participation, and the recognition of diversity as a resource rather than a challenge (UNESCO, 2017). Inclusive classrooms are designed to accommodate all learners, regardless of differences in ability, culture, language, or socio-economic

background, and aim to foster a sense of belonging and respect among students. Scholars such as Ainscow (2020) argue that inclusion requires systemic changes in teaching practices, classroom organization, and teacher attitudes, positioning the teacher as a key agent in creating equitable learning opportunities through intentional pedagogical decisions.

The relationship between classroom management and inclusive learning environments is therefore inherently interconnected. Effective classroom management provides the structural and relational foundation necessary for inclusion to occur, while inclusive principles reshape how management strategies are designed and implemented. Rather than enforcing uniformity, inclusive classroom management promotes flexibility, cultural responsiveness, and student-centered practices that support diverse learners (Tomlinson, 2014a). This chapter aims to explore this intersection by examining how classroom management can be reconceptualized as a pedagogical tool for fostering inclusive learning environments, outlining key theoretical foundations, practical strategies, and implications for contemporary teaching practice.

7.2 Theoretical Foundations of Classroom Management and Inclusion

The concept of classroom management has evolved significantly from behavior control toward a more comprehensive pedagogical framework that emphasizes the organization of learning, student engagement, and the creation of supportive learning environments. Contemporary perspectives define classroom management as the process through which teachers establish and maintain conditions that facilitate both academic learning and positive social interaction. Rather than relying solely on authority and

discipline, current approaches highlight proactive planning, clear instructional design, and responsive interaction as essential components of effective management. This shift is grounded in constructivist and socio-cultural theories, which view learning as an interactive and socially mediated process. For instance, Kounin (1970) emphasized the importance of teachers' awareness and responsiveness during instruction, while more recent studies confirm that well-structured classroom management practices significantly enhance student engagement and reduce disruptive behavior (Evertson and Weinstein, 2006; Simonsen *et al.*, 2019).

Building upon this perspective, the notion of inclusive learning environments extends the role of classroom management by foregrounding principles of equity, access, and participation. Inclusive education is not merely concerned with the physical presence of diverse learners in the same classroom but also with ensuring that all students experience meaningful learning opportunities regardless of their backgrounds or abilities. In this regard, inclusive environments require deliberate instructional adaptation, culturally responsive pedagogy, and the recognition of learners' identities as integral to the learning process. Scholars such as Ladson-Billings (1995) have long argued that teaching should connect with students' cultural experiences, and more recent research further demonstrates that inclusive practices contribute to both academic success and social cohesion in diverse classrooms (UNESCO, 2017; Florian and Black-Hawkins, 2021). Consequently, inclusivity becomes a guiding principle that shapes not only what is taught but also how learning is facilitated and experienced by students.

These two strands—classroom management and inclusive learning environments—are therefore not separate constructs but mutually reinforcing dimensions of effective pedagogy. Classroom management provides the structural and procedural foundation through which inclusive values can be enacted in everyday teaching practices. At the same time, inclusive principles redefine the goals of classroom management, shifting the focus from compliance to participation, from uniformity to responsiveness, and from control to collaboration. This integrative perspective is supported by recent scholarship, which highlights that teachers who adopt inclusive management strategies are more likely to create positive classroom climates, foster student agency, and support diverse learning needs simultaneously (Emmer and Sabornie, 2015; OECD, 2021). In this sense, the theoretical foundation of this chapter positions classroom management as a dynamic and value-driven practice that plays a central role in realizing inclusive education in contemporary classrooms.

7.3 Dimensions of Inclusive Classroom Management

Inclusive classroom management can be understood as a multidimensional pedagogical practice that connects classroom organization, student participation, emotional safety, instructional responsiveness, and positive behavior support (Richardson *et al.*, 2023). In this perspective, classroom management is not limited to controlling students' behavior; rather, it becomes a structured effort to create learning conditions where all students feel accepted, supported, and able to participate meaningfully. Recent studies emphasize that effective classroom management contributes to safe and supportive learning environments by strengthening behavioral engagement, reducing disruption, and improving students' academic and socio-emotional outcomes. Therefore, inclusive classroom

management should be framed as the operational bridge between teacher authority, learner diversity, and equitable classroom participation

The first dimension is physical environment management, which refers to how classroom space, seating arrangements, learning displays, accessibility, and instructional resources are organized to support all learners. An inclusive classroom should allow students to interact comfortably, access learning materials easily, and feel represented through culturally responsive visual and textual resources (Weinstein and Novodvorsky, 2015). In diverse classrooms, physical arrangement also influences participation because students who are isolated, marginalized, or physically disconnected from peer interaction may become less engaged in classroom activities (Barrett *et al.*, 2015). Thus, the physical classroom should not only be orderly but also flexible, accessible, and culturally meaningful, allowing teachers to manage movement, collaboration, and interaction in ways that support equity and participation.

The second dimension is the social and emotional climate of the classroom. Inclusive classroom management requires teachers to build positive relationships, emotional safety, mutual respect, and a sense of belonging among students. A supportive climate helps students feel confident to ask questions, express ideas, make mistakes, and interact with peers from different backgrounds (Pianta, Hamre and Allen, 2012). This dimension is especially important because inclusive learning cannot occur when students experience fear, exclusion, bullying, or social distance. Recent OECD, (2021)work highlights that social-emotional support is closely related to students' motivation, classroom participation, and broader learning outcomes, while recent classroom management studies also show that positive

teacher-student relationships are central to effective learning environments.

The third dimension is instructional management, which focuses on how teachers design, deliver, and adapt instruction to respond to students' diverse abilities, interests, cultures, languages, and learning needs. In inclusive classrooms, instructional management involves differentiated tasks, flexible grouping, scaffolding, culturally responsive materials, and opportunities for students to connect learning with their lived experiences (Tomlinson, 2014b; Gay, 2018). This dimension shows that inclusion is not only about giving equal access to the classroom but also about ensuring that classroom activities are pedagogically meaningful for different learners. Recent literature on culturally responsive pedagogy confirms that inclusive teaching becomes more effective when teachers recognize students' cultural identities and use them as resources for learning rather than treating diversity as an obstacle.

The fourth dimension is behavioral management, which concerns how teachers guide students' behavior through positive, preventive, and restorative approaches. Inclusive behavioral management does not rely primarily on punishment or exclusion; instead, it emphasizes clear expectations, consistent routines, positive reinforcement, emotional regulation, and constructive responses to conflict (Sugai and Horner, 2002). Positive Behavior Support and restorative practices are increasingly recommended because they help teachers address behavioral issues while maintaining students' dignity and relationships within the classroom community. Recent studies suggest that restorative practices can support conflict resolution, strengthen prosocial behavior, and promote a more relational classroom culture, while Positive Behavior Support helps create

predictable and supportive conditions for both academic and social-emotional learning(Morrison and Vaandering, 2012)

These dimensions are interconnected and should not be implemented separately. A well-arranged physical environment can support interaction, but it becomes meaningful only when accompanied by positive relationships, responsive instruction, and constructive behavioral guidance. Similarly, culturally responsive instruction may fail to achieve inclusive outcomes if the classroom climate is unsafe or if behavior management practices marginalize particular students. Therefore, inclusive classroom management should be viewed as a holistic system in which physical space, emotional climate, instructional design, and behavioral support work together to ensure access, participation, respect, and achievement for all learners. This integrated view is consistent with recent scholarship which argues that inclusive classrooms depend on the alignment between teacher management practices, social environment, and learner-centered pedagogy.

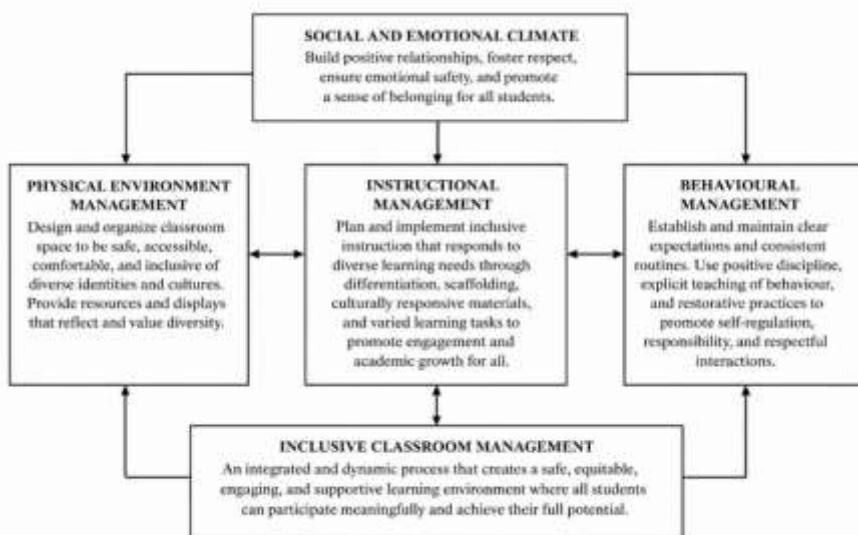


Figure 7.1 Interconnected dimension of Inclusive Classroom Management

The figure illustrates that effective classroom practice is constructed through the dynamic interaction of four core domains: physical environment management, social and emotional climate, instructional management, and behavioral management. Rather than functioning independently, these dimensions operate as a holistic system that collectively shapes an inclusive, safe, and supportive learning environment. This conceptualization aligns with the definition of classroom management as “the actions teachers take to create an environment that supports both academic and social-emotional learning”. The circular and interconnected structure highlights that changes or weaknesses in one dimension inevitably influence the effectiveness of the others.

The physical environment serves as the foundational layer that enables accessibility and participation, ensuring that classroom space

supports interaction and minimizes distraction. This is closely linked to the social and emotional climate, which fosters trust, belonging, and psychological safety—conditions identified as essential for student engagement and learning. As noted in the AERO discussion (Richardson *et al.*, 2023), students learn more effectively when they feel safe, supported, and connected within their classroom environment. Building upon these foundations, instructional management ensures that learning activities are inclusive through differentiation, scaffolding, and culturally responsive materials, thereby aligning teaching practices with diverse student needs. At the same time, behavioral management provides structure through clear expectations, routines, and consistent responses, which help maintain order while supporting students’ self-regulation and engagement.

Importantly, the central positioning of the “inclusive, safe, and supportive learning environment” reflects the ultimate outcome of integrating these four dimensions. The effective classroom management not only establishes a positive learning climate but also increases instructional time, strengthens teacher–student relationships, and improves student achievement. Therefore, the visualization reinforces the idea that inclusive classroom management is not a single strategy but a coordinated system of practices, where physical, emotional, instructional, and behavioral elements continuously interact to support equitable and meaningful learning for all students.

7.4 Strategies for Managing Inclusive Classrooms

Effective strategies for managing inclusive classrooms begin with preventive approaches, which emphasize proactive planning to anticipate and address the diverse needs of learners before challenges arise. Preventive classroom management involves designing inclusive

lesson plans, establishing clear and shared classroom norms, and creating predictable routines that support all students. In this context, teachers are encouraged to integrate differentiated instruction, culturally responsive materials, and flexible assessment methods into their planning processes. Such preparation allows teachers to minimize potential disruptions while ensuring equitable participation among students with varying abilities, linguistic backgrounds, and cultural identities. This preventive strategies significantly reduce behavioral issues and enhance student engagement by creating structured yet flexible learning environments (Evertson and Weinstein, 2006; Simonsen *et al.*, 2019). Moreover, preventive practices align with inclusive education principles by ensuring that classroom expectations are transparent, fair, and accessible to all learners.

Building on this foundation, interactive and participatory strategies play a crucial role in fostering inclusion through active student engagement. These strategies encourage collaborative learning, peer interaction, and student voice, allowing learners to contribute meaningfully to the learning process. Approaches such as cooperative learning (e.g., Jigsaw, Think-Pair-Share), group discussions, and culturally grounded tasks enable students to share perspectives, negotiate meaning, and develop intercultural understanding. In inclusive classrooms, participation is not merely about involvement but about ensuring that each student's contribution is valued and recognized. Studies in inclusive pedagogy demonstrate that participatory learning environments promote not only academic achievement but also social cohesion and mutual respect among students from diverse backgrounds (Florian and Black-Hawkins, 2021; OECD, 2021). Consequently, interactive strategies transform classroom management into a shared responsibility, where both teachers and students actively shape the learning environment.

In addition to preventive and participatory approaches, responsive strategies are essential for addressing emerging challenges and adapting instruction to students' immediate needs. Responsive classroom management requires teachers to demonstrate flexibility, empathy, and professional judgment when dealing with diverse learning situations. This includes modifying instructional tasks, providing scaffolding, offering individualized feedback, and addressing behavioral or emotional issues constructively. Responsive strategies are particularly important in inclusive settings, where students may face barriers related to language proficiency, confidence, or cultural adjustment. Theoretical perspectives such as Lev Vygotsky's concept of scaffolding and Stephen Krashen's Affective Filter Hypothesis support the idea that learning occurs more effectively when students feel supported and when instruction is adjusted to their developmental level. Recent studies further confirm that responsive teaching enhances both cognitive engagement and emotional well-being, making it a critical component of inclusive classroom management (Emmer and Sabornie, 2015).

Taken together, these strategies; preventive, interactive, and responsive are form a comprehensive framework for managing inclusive classrooms. Preventive strategies establish a stable foundation, interactive strategies promote engagement and collaboration, and responsive strategies ensure adaptability and support for individual learners. Their integration reflects a shift from reactive and control-based management toward a more dynamic, student-cantered, and equity-oriented approach. Importantly, effective inclusive classroom management requires teachers to continuously reflect on their practices, adapt to changing classroom dynamics, and align their strategies with the diverse needs of students. This holistic approach not only enhances classroom effectiveness but also supports the broader goals of inclusive education by fostering

participation, belonging, and academic success for all learners (UNESCO, 2017; OECD, 2021).

7.5 Challenges in Implementing Inclusive Classroom Management

Despite its pedagogical significance, implementing inclusive classroom management presents several practical challenges for teachers. One major issue is the limited understanding of inclusive principles and strategies, particularly in contexts where professional development opportunities are insufficient or not specifically focused on inclusive education. Additionally, the increasing diversity of students' cultural, linguistic, and academic backgrounds requires teachers to manage complex classroom dynamics while maintaining instructional effectiveness. Constraints such as limited resources, rigid curricula, and lack of institutional support further complicate the implementation process. These challenges highlight the need for systemic support, continuous teacher training, and policy alignment to ensure that inclusive classroom management can be effectively realized in diverse educational settings (Ainscow, 2020; Florian and Black-Hawkins, 2021)

7.6 Impacts of Effective Inclusive Classroom Management

Effective inclusive classroom management generates multidimensional impacts that extend beyond behavioral order to encompass students' cognitive, social, and emotional development. When classroom management is grounded in inclusive principles—such as equity, participation, and responsiveness—it creates a learning environment where students feel valued and supported. This environment reduces barriers to learning and fosters meaningful

engagement, particularly for students from diverse cultural, linguistic, and academic backgrounds. Empirical studies consistently demonstrate that well-managed and inclusive classrooms are associated with improved student outcomes, including higher levels of engagement, better interpersonal relationships, and enhanced academic performance (Emmer and Sabornie, 2015). One of the most immediate impacts is observed in students' engagement and motivation. Inclusive classroom management encourages active participation by ensuring that all students have opportunities to contribute, regardless of their confidence levels or language proficiency. Strategies such as cooperative learning, culturally relevant materials, and differentiated tasks make learning more meaningful and accessible. As a result, students are more likely to show sustained interest and intrinsic motivation (Fredricks, Blumenfeld and Paris, 2004; Hattie, 2009). In EFL contexts, this is particularly important, as reduced anxiety and increased relevance can lower affective barriers to language acquisition.

In addition to motivation, inclusive classroom management plays a crucial role in students' social and emotional development. By fostering a respectful and empathetic classroom climate, teachers help students develop tolerance, intercultural awareness, and positive interpersonal skills. Structured interactions such as group work and peer collaboration allow students to engage with diverse perspectives, promoting mutual understanding and social cohesion. According to Lev Vygotsky and Cole (1978), learning is inherently social, and cognitive development is mediated through interaction. More recent studies further highlight that inclusive environments contribute to students' emotional well-being, self-confidence, and sense of belonging, which are essential for long-term educational success (Jennings and Greenberg, 2009). Another significant impact is reflected in students' academic achievement. Inclusive classroom

management ensures that instructional practices are aligned with students' diverse learning needs, thereby increasing access to curriculum content. Through strategies such as scaffolding, differentiated instruction, and formative assessment, teachers can support students in achieving learning objectives more effectively. In language learning contexts, this often results in improved performance across skills and genres, as students are able to connect new knowledge with familiar cultural contexts. Studies have shown that classrooms characterized by strong management and inclusive practices tend to demonstrate higher academic gains due to increased time on task, reduced disruptions, and more effective instructional delivery (Marzano, 2003; Simonsen *et al.*, 2019)).

Importantly, these impacts are interconnected rather than isolated. Increased motivation leads to higher engagement, which supports deeper learning and improved academic outcomes. At the same time, positive social and emotional development reinforces students' willingness to participate and collaborate. Inclusive classroom management, therefore, functions as a holistic framework that simultaneously supports academic success and the development of socially responsible individuals. This integrated impact is particularly relevant in multicultural and EFL settings, where learning is not only about language acquisition but also about developing intercultural competence and global awareness. The implications for teaching practice emphasize the need for teachers to adopt a reflective and adaptive role in managing inclusive classrooms. Teachers are required to move beyond traditional control-oriented approaches and instead integrate classroom management with inclusive pedagogy through continuous reflection, professional development, and context-sensitive decision-making. This includes designing inclusive lesson plans, applying differentiated instruction, fostering positive relationships, and using assessment practices that capture both

academic and social development. As noted by Schon (1983), effective teaching involves reflection-in-action, where educators continuously adjust their strategies based on classroom realities.

7.7 Conclusion

This chapter has demonstrated that classroom management and inclusive learning environments are not separate domains but deeply interconnected components of effective pedagogy. Contemporary perspectives reposition classroom management as a dynamic and value-driven practice that extends beyond behavioral regulation toward the creation of meaningful, equitable, and participatory learning experiences. When aligned with inclusive principles, classroom management becomes a mechanism for ensuring that all students—regardless of their cultural, linguistic, or academic backgrounds—have access to learning opportunities and are encouraged to actively engage in the educational process. This integrative view is supported by research indicating that well-managed classrooms grounded in inclusivity foster stronger engagement, improved relationships, and higher academic achievement

Furthermore, the chapter has highlighted that inclusive classroom management operates through multiple interrelated dimensions, including the physical environment, social-emotional climate, instructional practices, and behavioral approaches. These dimensions collectively contribute to the development of a classroom ecosystem where students feel safe, respected, and empowered to learn. Importantly, the role of the teacher emerges as central in translating inclusive values into daily practices through reflective decision-making and adaptive instruction. The integration of classroom management and inclusive learning environments offers a

holistic framework for addressing the complexities of contemporary classrooms. It underscores the importance of shifting from control-oriented practices to approaches that prioritize participation, equity, and collaboration. Such a shift is particularly relevant in multicultural and EFL contexts, where learning involves not only the acquisition of knowledge but also the development of intercultural understanding and social competence. Therefore, advancing inclusive classroom management practices requires sustained professional development, supportive institutional policies, and continued research to ensure that classrooms become spaces where all learners can thrive both academically and socially.

CHAPTER 8

RESEARCH APPROACHES IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION

Salma Hira, M.Pd.

8.1 Introduction

Modern English education emphasizes not just grammar memorization, but also communication strategies and cultural awareness. Robust research methods are essential to demonstrate the efficacy of this approach. Research in this field seeks to boost motivation for learning, develop curricula that meet national educational standards, and integrate technology into instruction.

Research approach are frameworks and protocols for investigation that range from general assumptions to specific techniques for gathering, analyzing, and interpreting data (Creswell, 2003). This plan consists of multiple choices, and they do not have to be made in the sequence that seems logical to me or the arrangement shown here. The final choice pertains to the method that ought to be employed to examine a subject. This decision should be guided by the philosophical assumptions the researcher holds; the inquiry procedures (known as research designs); as well as the specific methods for collecting, analyzing, and interpreting data. Choosing a research approach depends on the type of research problem or issue at hand, the researchers' personal experiences, and the intended audiences for the study.

Educational research is generally divided into two main types: quantitative and qualitative research. Every method possesses its distinct techniques and vocabulary. Quantitative research employs objective metrics to collect numerical information that is utilized to respond inquire or evaluate established hypotheses. It typically needs a carefully regulated environment. Qualitative research, on the other hand, emphasizes comprehending social phenomena from the viewpoint of human participants in natural environments. It doesn't start with formal hypotheses, but it could generate hypotheses as the research progresses.

The addition chapter on mixed methods procedures has been thoroughly updated to incorporate recent developments and discussions regarding the design and execution of this research type in Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) and other authors. In contrast to previous editions, this chapter emphasizes incorporating a mixed methods section into the methods part of a proposal. It now reflects contemporary ideas regarding the criteria that researchers apply to decide which mixed methods design to use. It reevaluates the designs and currently categorizes that organization into fundamental and more sophisticated designs.

8.2 Primary Research Methods

The creation of fresh data to tackle a particular research inquiry, utilizing either direct techniques like interviews or indirect approaches such as observation. Data is gathered specifically for the current study and has not been analyzed by any source other than the researcher. Historically, primary research has been divided into 'quantitative' and 'qualitative' methods. These methods can be viewed

as creating two distinct groups of ‘research strategy’, in which research strategy denotes a “broad approach to the execution of social research” (Bryman, 2001).

The choice between quantitative, qualitative, or mixed methods for researchers is determined not by their personal preference but by the appropriateness of a specific method for their study and the information they seek to uncover. One employs what is effective to deliver the kind of data that is suitable for addressing the research question. According to Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004), “The most essential element is the research question—methods should align with research questions to maximize the likelihood of obtaining valuable (and the most comprehensive) answers” (pp. 17–18).

Studies in English language education are generally divided into three primary approaches:

A. Quantitative Method

This method is employed to quantify data to recognize trends or evaluate the efficiency of particular instructional strategies. Traditionally, the quantitative method has been the prevailing focus in educational research. During the late 20th century, academics started to advocate for a different method than the quantitative approach in educational research (Guba & Lincoln, 1988).

Approaches linked to quantitative research include experiments, structured observations, surveys, and statistical document and text analysis (Creswell, 2003). Experiments investigate behavior within a regulated environment, usually a lab, and aim to identify causal connections by accurately altering variables. Structured observation entails watching behavior according to

established categories; for instance, a researcher might track the frequency of various activities in a classroom setting. Surveys can be carried out through techniques like structured interviews or questionnaires, employing pre-set questions to gather self-reported information on attitudes, behaviors, and beliefs in a format suitable for numerical analysis. In quantitative research, the examination of texts and documents (such as content analysis) highlights the importance of accurate coding and statistical evaluation.

In a quantitative project, the issue is most effectively tackled by comprehending which factors or variables impact an outcome. For instance, when faced with employee reductions (a concern for all workers), a researcher might aim to identify the elements that lead companies to reduce staff. A different researcher might require insight into the elevated divorce rate among married partners (a concern) and investigate if financial challenges play a role in divorce. In both scenarios, the research issue involves grasping the elements that clarify or connect to a result, aiding the researcher in comprehending and elucidating the dilemma effectively. Furthermore, in quantitative introductions, researchers occasionally propose a theory to examine, and they will include extensive literature reviews to pinpoint research questions that require resolution. A quantitative introduction can be composed from an impersonal perspective and in the past tense to express objectivity.

The researcher not only chooses a qualitative, quantitative, or mixed methods study to carry out; the investigator also determines a specific type of study within these three options. Research designs are categories of investigation within qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches that

offer precise guidance for processes in a research design. They have also been referred to as inquiry strategies (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). A quantitative research method are commonly divide into two research design; survey research design and experimental research design.

1. Survey research design

A survey design offers a numerical or quantitative representation of trends, attitudes, or opinions of a population through the examination of a sample from that population (Creswell, 2003). Based on sample findings, the researcher draws conclusions or makes conclusions about the population. In a study, researchers might also select a sample and extend to a demographic.

In a proposal or plan, the initial components of the method section can familiarize readers with the fundamental objective and reasoning for survey research. Start the conversation by examining the objective of a survey. and the reasoning behind its choice for the proposed research. This conversation may accomplish the following:

- a. *Determine the objective of survey research.* The aim is to extrapolate from a sample to a population, enabling the drawing of conclusions regarding specific traits, opinions, or actions of this demographic. Cite a source for this objective from one of the survey methodology books (there are multiple)
- b. *Explain why using a survey is the favored method of data collection for the research.* In this rationale, examine the benefits of survey designs, including the

cost-effectiveness of the design and the speed shift in data gathering. Examine the benefits of recognizing characteristics of a substantial population. from a limited number of people (Fowler, 2009).

- c. *Specify if the survey will be cross-sectional, meaning the data is gathered at a single point in time or if it will be longitudinal with information gathered over a period.*
- d. *Outline the method of gathering data.* It categorized the following types: mail, telephone, the Internet, individual interviews, or group facilitation (Fink, 2012; Krueger & Casey (2009). No matter the method of data gathering, ensure to provide a justification for the process, utilizing points derived from its advantages and disadvantages, expenses, information accessibility, and ease.

- **The sample and Population**

In the methods section, outline the design type along with the population characteristics and the sampling method. Methodologists have provided outstanding analyses regarding the fundamental principles of sampling theory (Babbie, 2007; Fowler, 2009). Key elements of the population and sample to outline in a research plan include:

- a. *Recognize the group being studied.* Additionally, indicate *the* size of this population, if it can be ascertained, and the methods used for recognizing individuals within the population. Issues of access emerge

in this context, and the investigator may mention the existence of sampling frames—mail or published directories—of possible participants in the population.

- b. *Determine if the sampling method for this population is single stage or multistage (referred to as clustering).* Cluster sampling is optimal when creating a list of the elements that make up the population is either unfeasible or impractical (Babbie, 2007). A single-stage sampling method is one where the researcher has access to the population names and can directly sample the individuals (or other elements). In a multistage or clustering approach, the investigator initially identifies clusters (groups or organizations), collects names of individuals within those clusters, and then samples from them.
- c. *Determine the procedure for selecting individuals.* I suggest choosing a random sample where every person in the population has an equal chance of being chosen (a systematic or probabilistic sample). Randomization allows a representative sample from a population to enable generalizations about the entire population. If the roster of people is extensive, selecting a random sample could.

- **Elements of A Survey Methodology Plan**

The structure of a survey method section adheres to a conventional format. Many instances of this format can be found in academic journals, and these instances offer valuable prototypes. The upcoming sections describe common elements. When preparing to integrate these elements into a proposal, refer to the questions on the checklist presented in Table 8.1 as a broad reference.

Table 8.1 A Checklist of Questions for Designing A Survey Research Design

a)	Is the purpose of a survey design stated?
b)	Are the reasons for choosing the design mentioned?
c)	Is the nature of the survey (cross-sectional vs. longitudinal) identified?
d)	Is the population and its size mentioned?
e)	Will the population be stratified? If so, how?
f)	How many people will be in the sample? On what basis was this size chosen?
g)	What will be the procedure for sampling these individuals (e.g., random, nonrandom)?
h)	What instrument will be used in the survey? Who developed the instrument?
i)	What are the content areas addressed in the survey? The scales?

j)	What procedure will be used to pilot or field-test the survey?
k)	What is the timeline for administering the survey?
l)	What are the variables in the study?
m)	How do these variables cross-reference with the research questions and items on the survey?
n)	What specific steps will be taken in data analysis to do the following:
o)	Analyze returns?
p)	Check for response bias?
q)	Conduct a descriptive analysis?
r)	Collapse items into scales?
s)	Check for reliability of scales?
t)	Run inferential statistics to answer the research questions or assess practical implications of the result?
u)	How will the results be interpreted?

2. Experimental research design

The primary goal of an experimental design is to examine the effect of a treatment (or an intervention) on an outcome while controlling for any other variables that could affect that outcome (Creswell, 2011). Researchers randomly

allocate individuals into groups as a method of control. When one group undergoes a treatment while the other does not, the researcher can determine if the treatment itself, rather than other variables, affects the results.

The particular experimental design methods must also be determined. This conversation pertains to specifying the general kind of experiment, justifying the design choices, and proposing a visual representation to assist the reader in grasping the processes.

- a. Determine the type of experimental design that will be utilized in the suggested research.

The varieties accessible in Experiments include *pre-experimental designs*, *quasi-experimental setups*, *true experimental methods*, and *single-subject studies designs* (Keppel & Wickens, 2003). In pre-experimental designs, the researcher examines one group and offers an action taken during the trial. This design lacks a control group for comparison test group. In quasi-experiments, the researcher employs both control and experimental groups; however, does not allocate participants to groups randomly (e.g., they might consist of existing groups that are accessible to the researcher. In a genuine experiment, the researcher randomly allocates the participants to treatment groups. A single-subject design, also known as an N of 1 design, entails monitoring the behavior of an individual (or a small number of individuals) over time.

- b. Determine the elements being compared in the experiment. In various experiments, specifically those termed between-subject designs, the researcher contrasts two or more groups (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991). A factorial design experiment, which is a variation of the between-group design, employs two or more treatment variables to investigate the independent and simultaneous impacts of these treatment variables on an outcome (Vogt, 2011).
- c. Include a diagram or figure to represent the particular research design that will be employed. This figure must employ a conventional notation system. A research suggestion I propose is to utilize a traditional notation system outlined by Campbell and Stanley (1963)
 - *X* signifies the exposure of a group to an experimental variable or occurrence, the outcomes of which are intended to be evaluated.
 - *O* signifies an observation or measurement captured by an instrument.
 - *Xs* and *Os* in a particular row correspond to the same specific individuals. *Xs* and *Os* within the same column, or positioned vertically in relation to one another, are concurrent.

The left-to-right orientation shows the sequence of actions in the experiment.(sometimes represented with an arrow). The letter R signifies random allocation. The division of parallel rows using a horizontal line signifies that the comparison groups are not equal (or equated) through random assignment. No horizontal line separating the

groups indicates a random allocation of individuals to treatment groups.

- **Components of An Experimental Method Plan**

A discussion of experimental methods adheres to a typical format: (a) participants, (b) materials, (c) procedures, and (d) measures. These four subjects are typically enough. In this part of the chapter, I examine these elements along with details regarding the experimental design and statistical analysis. Similar to the surveys section, the goal here is to emphasize important subjects to be covered in the experimental methods part of a proposal. A comprehensive overview of these subjects can be obtained by responding to the questions listed in the checklist presented in Table 8.2.

Table 8.2 A Checklist of Questions for Designing an Experimental Research Design

a)	Who are the participants in the study?
b)	What is the population to which the results of the participants will be generalized?
c)	How were the participants selected? Was a random selection method used?
d)	How will the participants be randomly assigned? Will they be matched? How?
e)	How many participants will be in the experimental and control group(s)?

f)	What is the dependent variable or variables (i.e., outcome variable) in the study? How will it be measured? Will it be
g)	measured before and after the experiment?
h)	What is the treatment condition(s)? How was it operationalized?
i)	Will variables be covaried in the experiment? How will they be measured?
j)	What experimental research design will be used? What would a visual model of this design look like?
k)	What instrument(s) will be used to measure the outcome in the study? Why was it chosen? Who developed it? Does
l)	it have established validity and reliability? Has permission been sought to use it?
m)	What are the steps in the procedure (e.g., random assignment of participants to groups, collection of demographic
n)	information, administration of pretest, administration of treatment(s), administration of posttest)?
o)	What are potential threats to internal and external validity for the experimental design and procedure? How will they be addressed?
p)	Will a pilot test of the experiment be conducted?
q)	What statistics will be used to analyze the data (e.g., descriptive and inferential)?
r)	How will the results be interpreted?

B. Qualitative Method

This method Concentrates on gaining a thorough insight into the experiences of students and teachers in the classroom. Qualitative methods consist of ethnography, participant observation, semi-structured and unstructured interviews, focus groups, and language analysis (Juliana, 2017). Ethnography and participant observation require the researcher to engage deeply in a group or community, watching language and behavior to understand people's perspectives. Semi-structured and unstructured interviewing focuses on allowing the interviewee to steer the discussion regarding the subjects and themes explored during the interview while avoiding constraints imposed by pre-defined criteria set by the researcher.

Qualitative research is an activity that roots the researcher in their environment. Qualitative comprises a collection of interpretive activities that reveal the world. These methods change the world. They convert the world into a collection of representations that encompass field notes, interviews, dialogues, photographs, recordings, and personal narratives. Qualitative research, in this regard, comprises a naturalistic and interpretive perspective on the world. This indicates that qualitative researchers examine objects within their natural settings, striving to understand or interpret phenomena based on the meanings assigned to them by individuals (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011).

In this method, focus groups are ‘group interviews’ led by the researcher, primarily aimed at allowing the group to direct the topics of discussion. The examination of language (such as conversation analysis, discourse analysis) in qualitative research

focuses on investigating the 'meanings' embedded in language utilization.

- **Qualitative Research Design**

The qualitative research design includes narrative, phenomenology, ethnography, case study, and grounded theory as types. Others are well-covered in qualitative literature, including participatory action research (Kemmis & Wilkinson, 1998) and discourse analysis (Cheek, 2004). In the designs, researchers may investigate people (narrative, phenomenology); examine processes, activities, and occurrences (case study, grounded theory); or understand widespread cultural behaviors of individuals or groups (ethnography).

In addition to these broad traits, there are more particular designs. These designs emphasize data gathering, analysis, and documentation, yet they stem from various fields and permeate the research process (e.g., problem types, significant ethical considerations). Numerous designs are available, including those the five traditions of qualitative inquiry proposed by Marshall and Rossman (2011).

- **A Checklist of Questions for Designing a Qualitative Procedure**

Qualitative techniques illustrate an alternative method of academic investigation compared to quantitative research methods. Despite the similarities in processes, qualitative methods depend on textual and visual data, involve distinct steps in data analysis, and utilize various designs.

Table 8.3 provides a checklist for evaluating the qualitative methods section of your proposal to ensure that you have covered essential subjects.

Table 8.3 A Checklist of Questions for Designing a Qualitative Procedure

a)	Are the basic characteristics of qualitative studies mentioned?
b)	Is the specific type of qualitative design to be used in the study mentioned? Is the history of, a definition of, an application for the design mentioned?
c)	Does the reader gain an understanding of the researcher's role in the study (past historical, social, cultural
d)	experiences, personal connections to sites and people, steps in gaining entry, and sensitive ethical issues) and they may shape interpretations made in the study?
e)	Is the purposeful sampling strategy for sites and individuals identified?
f)	Are the specific forms of data collection mentioned and a rationale given for their use?
g)	Are the procedures for recording information during the data collection detailed (such as protocols)?
h)	Are the data analysis steps identified?
i)	Is there evidence that the researcher has organized the data for analysis?
j)	Has the researcher reviewed the data generally to obtain a sense of the information?
k)	Has the researcher coded the data?

l)	Have the codes been developed to form a description and/or to identify themes?
n	Are the themes interrelated to show a higher level of analysis and abstraction?
n	Are the ways that the data will be represented mentioned—such as in tables, graphs, and figures?
o	Have the bases for interpreting the analysis been specified (personal experiences, the literature, questions, action agenda)?
p	Has the researcher mentioned the outcome of the study (developed a theory, provided a complex picture of themes)?
q	Have multiple strategies been cited for validating the findings?

- **Data Analysis of Qualitative Research**

Data analysis is a continuous activity throughout research. It includes examining participant data, and researchers usually apply both general analytic procedures and those steps pertinent to a particular design. Broader steps involve arranging and getting the data ready; conducting a preliminary review of the information; coding the data; creating a description and thematic analysis from the codes; utilizing software; displaying the results in tables, graphs, and figures; and making sense of the findings. These interpretations encompass articulating lessons acquired, contrasting the results with previous literature and theories, posing inquiries, and/or proposing a reform agenda. The proposal must include a segment outlining the anticipated results of the research. Ultimately, a crucial aspect of preparing a proposal is to outline the methods

that will be employed to confirm the validity of the results and showcase the dependability of codes and themes.

C. Mix Methods Strategy

A new approach that employs both quantitative and qualitative methods within the same study is referred to as mixed methods research. The final outcome of mixed methods research is results that can be more reliable and offer a fuller understanding of the research issue than either method individually could achieve (Pring, 2004). Integrating quantitative and qualitative information to deliver a more comprehensive view. The example using mix method in education by assessing the efficacy of project-based learning (PJBL) techniques through written assessments and detailed interviews focused on student motivation.

Various typologies exist for classifying and recognizing different types of mixed methods strategies that proposal developers may employ in their suggested mixed methods research. Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) recognized various classification systems derived from evaluation, nursing, public health, education policy and research, as well as social and behavioral research. In these classifications, writers utilized various terms for their design types, with a significant degree of overlap among the typologies. In this discussion, I will outline and analyze the three fundamental mixed methods designs and subsequently touch upon more sophisticated strategies that build on these three foundational forms. Every method will be examined regarding the design description, types of data collection and analysis, interpretation, and challenges related to validity.

- **Data Collection**

In the mixed methods researchers incorporate qualitative participants into the broader quantitative sample, as researchers ultimately compare the two data sets, and greater similarity enhances the comparison. Qualitative data can take various forms, including interviews, observations, documents, and records. Qualitative data may include instrument data, observational checklists, or numerical records like census information (Creswell,2011). The main concept of this design is to gather both types of data utilizing the same or related variables, constructs, or ideas. In other terms, when self-esteem is assessed quantitatively, the identical idea is explored in qualitative data gathering, like during an open-ended interview.

- **Analysis of Data**

The difficulty in a convergent mixed methods approach lies in how to effectively integrate or combine the data. From a description of this design, it is understood that the two databases undergo independent analysis before being integrated. Various methods exist to combine the two databases. The initial method is referred to as a side-by-side analysis. The discussion sections of mixed methods studies highlight these comparisons. The researcher will initially present the quantitative statistical outcomes and subsequently address the qualitative findings (e.g., themes) that either support or contradict the statistical outcomes (Classen and colleagues', 2007). Alternatively, the researcher could begin with the qualitative results and

subsequently compare them with the quantitative findings. Mixed methods researchers refer to this as a side-by-side approach since the investigator compares the results within a discussion, initially presenting one collection of findings and subsequently the other.

The researchers can also integrate the two databases by converting qualitative codes or themes into quantitative variables, followed by merging the two quantitative databases—a process known as data transformation. The researcher quantifies the qualitative themes or codes by counting them (and potentially categorizing them) to create quantitative metrics. The examples of effective procedures used by mixed methods researchers. The last step is to combine the two types of data into a table or a graph (Onwuegbuzie and Leech, 2006) This is known as a combined presentation of information, and it can manifest in various ways.

- **Interpretation**

The mixed methods researcher analyzes the follow-up findings in the discussion part of the study. This analysis adheres to the structure of initially presenting the quantitative results from the first phase, followed by the qualitative findings from the second phase. Nonetheless, this design subsequently utilizes a third type of interpretation: in what ways the qualitative findings clarify the quantitative outcomes. A frequent mistake at this stage made by novice researchers is to combine the two databases. Although this method can be beneficial, the purpose of the design is to allow the qualitative data to

offer greater depth and insight into the quantitative findings.

Thus, in the interpretation segment, following the presentation of the overall quantitative and subsequently qualitative findings by the researcher, there should be a discussion detailing how the qualitative outcomes contribute to enhancing or elucidating the quantitative results. Since the qualitative database questions limit the range of the quantitative questions, a straightforward comparison of the two databases (as seen in the convergent design) results in an insufficient comparison of variables or concepts.

- **Validity**

Validity through the convergent approach must focus on confirming both quantitative validity (e.g., construct) and qualitative validity (e.g., triangulation) for every database. Is there a specific type of validity in mixed methods that should be considered? There are definitely certain possible threats to validity in employing the convergent approach, and many of these have already been noted. Unequal sample sizes may provide less of a picture on the qualitative side than the larger N on the quantitative side. Employing various concepts or variables on each side, both quantitative and qualitative, can produce results that are difficult to compare and integrate. Not addressing conclusions when the scores and themes differ also signifies an ineffective inquiry approach.

- **Summary**

The selected research method in English language education should be adapted to the formulation of the research problem and its goals. Regardless of employing a quantitative, qualitative, or mixed method, each approach offers a distinct influence on the advancement of pedagogy and enhancements in the quality of English language education across different regions globally. In the quantitative approach there are survey and experimental research design. Otherwise, in the qualitative approach there are ethnography, field notes, interviews, dialogues, photographs, recordings, and personal narratives. In addition, in the mix method strategy there are evaluation, nursing, public health, education policy and research, as well as social and behavioral research design. Each part of research design has strength and weakness according to the data which studied by the researcher. In conclusion, the use of research approach should be appropriate with the data, subject of the study, and the objective of the study.

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Thank You. Nice to meet You all!

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Outside her professional responsibilities, Ana enjoys reading and cooking, hobbies that reflect her enthusiasm for continuous learning, creativity, and personal development. She believes that education, leadership, and lifelong learning are essential foundations for creating positive change in society.

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INNOVATIONS and Practices

IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION

This book presents a comprehensive overview of current foundations, theories, and innovations in English Language Education. It begins by exploring the fundamental principles of English language teaching, followed by key theories of language learning and acquisition that shape classroom practice. The discussion continues into practical areas such as curriculum design for pronunciation instruction with an emphasis on phonological awareness in EFL contexts, as well as various approaches and methods in teaching English that can be adapted to diverse learner needs.

Beyond theory, this book highlights instructional strategies for developing the four language skills and examines the growing role of technology through Intelligent Tutoring Systems and Adaptive Learning in EFL contexts. It also addresses essential classroom aspects including classroom management and the creation of inclusive learning environments. To support evidence-based practice, the book further introduces research approaches in English Language Education that can guide teachers, lecturers, and researchers in conducting meaningful studies.

Written in accessible language, this book is intended as a reliable reference for students, teachers, lecturers, and researchers in the field of English Language Education. We acknowledge that this book still has many shortcomings in its preparation. Therefore, we greatly appreciate any criticism and suggestions for its improvement and perfection in the future. Our sincere gratitude goes to all parties who contributed to the completion of this book. We hope this book can serve as a useful source of knowledge and inspiration for advancing English language teaching and learning.



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