CHAPTER II
LITERATURE REVIEW

A. English Language Policy in Indonesia

1. Government Policy on Language Teaching

Language policies have an ideological and political impact on the design and implementation of language curricula at the classroom and school levels. These policies often dictate what, why, and how teachers teach and students learn language. The socio-political agenda strongly influences whether this language is considered a foreign language (language as a school subject) or an additional language (language as a means of communication). Educational standards and competencies are always determined through policy and curriculum documents without comprehensive knowledge of language and language pedagogy, a better understanding of planning goals, collaboration between policymakers and curriculum makers, and rigorous negotiation between local needs and globalization demands (Widodo, 2016). Language policies will be imposed ideologically and politically as a result of these factors.

These policies are unlikely to be implemented in classrooms and schools. There is frequently a heated debate over the implementation of policies among school administrators and teachers, who are always viewed as policy and curriculum implementers. This debate arises as a result of competing needs and interests among policymakers, school administrators, teachers, students, and other interested parties. With this in mind, language curriculum design is never apolitical, but rather ideologically laden, with competing needs and interests at its core. Language curriculum design in this chapter refers to change, reform, development, or innovation depending on how the design is perceived in the context. Language curriculum design is a starting point for sound and well-crafted language policy and curriculum materials, pedagogy, and assessment for teachers, teacher trainers, and teacher educators.

A language curriculum is composed of three components: a plan (perceived curriculum), a process (enacted or experienced curriculum), and a product (valued or validated curriculum). These various language curriculum orientations demonstrate the multidimensionality of a language curriculum at the levels of planning, implementation, and evaluation. Language curriculum design is always a contentious issue, and English language curriculum design in Indonesia is no exception. Since Indonesia's independence in 1945, ELT curricula in the secondary education sector (junior and senior high schools) have undergone significant changes. There have been three periods of curriculum change in the last 11 years: the 2004 Curriculum (competency-based curriculum), the 2006 Curriculum (school-based curriculum), and the 2013 Curriculum (scientific inquiry). These changes have had an impact on how pedagogical practice and assessment are shaped in Indonesian English language pedagogy.

As a result, the current chapter focuses on key principles for reframing the current curriculum, the 2013 ELT Curriculum. Before delving into these principles, it is necessary to first examine the linguistic landscape in Indonesia in order to depict a social environment in which the English language curriculum is positioned and enacted. In addition, the chapter provides an overview of English language curricula over the last 11 years. The chapter's contributions include providing directions for reframing the current curriculum and providing new insights into English language curriculum development that considers the agencies of teachers and students as well as socio-cultural environments.

Language policies influence the design of language curricula. They accept "not only the explicit, written, overt, de jure, official, and 'top-down' decision-making about language, but also the implicit, unwritten, covert, de facto, grass-roots, and unofficial ideas and assumptions" about language in a specific situation and culture (Schiffman, 2006 , p. 11). Language policy determines "what language is to be used and learned in school" and "what choices in grammar, vocabulary, genre, and style are appropriate in

particular contexts [of situation and culture]" in the context of language curriculum making or development (Farr & Song, 2011, p. 654). The formality and orientation of this language policy certainly vary. Language teachers are responsible for interpreting and enacting language policies that affect their teaching practices at the grassroots level. They are also responsible for transforming this national language policy into school or classroom policy that is compatible with the local context of teaching practice.

This remaking of language policies is critical in appropriating language policies in the form of national curriculum guidelines (Pease-Alvarez & Alisun Thompson, 2014). Critical situated approaches to language policy remaking (Tollefson, 2015) assist language teachers in questioning what works best for themselves and their students, particularly in the context of enforced standardization and standardized testing reflected in rigid one-size-fits-all curricular mandates. In this regard, teachers serve as engaged policymakers "who are directly involved in the enactment of educational policy at the local level, which, in the case of teachers, includes their students' classroom experiences" (Pease-Alvarez & Alisun Thompson, 2014, p. 168). Thus, by viewing English language curricula through the criticality and situatedness lenses, language teachers become fully aware that such documents are the realities of language policy in practice, and they do not take the documents for granted, but rather remake those curricula that are relevant to their educational practices situated within local and global social, political, and economic conditions.

2. Curriculum

After the Japanese surrendered at the end of World War II, Indonesia declared its independence on August 17, 1945. It is worth noting that the Japanese occupied Indonesia between 1942 and 1945. (Lamb & Coleman, 2008). Soon after, English was designated as a required foreign language or a school subject to be studied, and it was widely taught in secondary schools and universities. At the time, the Government of the Republic of Indonesia

(RI), also known as 'the Indonesian Old Order,' led by the First President and Vice President, Soekarno and Mohammad Hatta, made a politically and ideologically charged decision that neither Dutch nor Japanese would be taught in schools because both were colonial languages. English was also seen as an instrumental language because it was more widely accepted as a tool for international communication (Dardjowidjojo, 2000). As stipulated in the Act of the 2003 National Education System, English has become a language for international communication that Indonesians must learn and acquire. English has a well-established status as a school subject, and "English has gained its current authority and prestige in Indonesian society; it has become essential 'cultural capital for an information-driven global world" (Gee et al., as cited in Lamb & Coleman, 2008, p. 192).

Although English was institutionalized as an optional school subject in primary schools from 1994 to 2012, it has been part of the curriculum and is formally taught in secondary schools up to university level. English is included, among other subjects, in the high-stakes or national examination known as Ujian Nasional in the secondary education sector, as well as in a university/college entrance examination. This indicates that English is a required language for Indonesians to learn in order to pass these high-stakes exams. As a result, there have been numerous attempts to assist Indonesian students in becoming proficient in English. Language policies and curricula have changed in this regard since 2004. The Government of RI plays a critical role in these changes at the national level.

a. The 2004 ELT Curriculum

Education in Indonesia was decentralized in 2004. Along with this new policy, the 2004 ELT Curriculum, known in Bahasa Indonesia as Kurikulum Berbasis Kompetensi (KBK) or competency-based curriculum (CBC), was implemented nationwide. The 2003 Act of National Education System No. 20 served as the new CBC's legal foundation. The new ELT curriculum specifically adopted Celce-Murcia, Dornyei, and Thurrell's competence model as well as Halliday's systemic

functional grammar (SFG) framework (Department Pendidikan Nasional, 2003a, 2003b). The goals of English learning, as stated in the 2004 ELT Curriculum, were to:

1) Develop communicative competence, which emphasizes macro skills such as listening, speaking, reading, and writing and five competencies, including linguistic, discourse, action, sociocultural, and strategic;

2) Build and raise self-awareness of acquiring English as a foreign language and a means of learning and communication;

3) Build and develop a solid understanding of a close relationship between language and culture and raise intercultural understanding.

Language skills, communicative competence, the position of English as a foreign language, English as a means of communication, and intercultural awareness are all elements of English learning that draw on these goals. The 2004 ELT Curriculum also acknowledged the use of Halliday's three metafunctions in the instruction of four skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

Activities in English textbooks were divided into three categories: (1) themes and tasks, (2) text types and text forms, and (3) macro language skills. Micro language skills such as grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation were not explicitly presented in these textbooks, but were dependent on how teachers presented such micro skills in the classroom. The curriculum emphasized performance-based instruction, with students expected to demonstrate integrated language skills and competencies in a variety of communicative situations. In practice, most English teachers were hesitant to develop their own classroom materials and investigate the approaches used in the curriculum. Teachers relied on commercially published textbooks, and they appeared to become textbook implementers. This suggests that English teachers compared textbooks to curriculum and assumed that textbooks were a product of the curriculum to which they were required to adhere. Furthermore, activities in English

textbooks included test items that emphasized comprehension and memorization. These were typical of the majority of English textbooks. This suggests that English language instruction was cognitively demanding.

Poor classroom management, a lack of pedagogic foundations and contextual knowledge, no extensive engagement in English use, theoretical classroom materials analysis and use, test-driven language instruction, a poor understanding of competency and systematic functional frameworks, rigid pedagogic values and traditions, and government-controlled language assessments all hampered the successful implementation of the 2004 ELT Curriculum. These are common in some Asian countries where English is regarded as a school subject and do not allow for exploratory and innovative language teaching practices (Littlewood, 2007; Richards, 2010). Given these issues, the Government of RI, through the Ministry of National Education (now the Ministry of Education and Culture), incorporated the concept of school-based curriculum (SBC) into the 2006 ELT Curriculum to assist students in acquiring English as a means of communication in an international arena. As a result, the 2004 ELT curriculum was renamed "Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan" (KTSP) in Bahasa Indonesia or SBC.

b. The 2006 ELT Curriculum

The 2006 ELT Curriculum, or SBC, was introduced to meet different socio-institutional, economic, cultural, and educational backgrounds, and it recognized that each school in a different district needed to cater to its student and institutional needs while also utilizing local resources. The revised curriculum also aimed to address the globalization challenges that Indonesia is facing as information, communication, and technology (ICT) advances. Along with this change, the 2006 ELT Curriculum adopted the school-based curriculum (SBC) or KTSP framework. The Government of RI granted each school the freedom to design, implement, and evaluate its curriculum at the school

level using local resources, broader socio-cultural dimensions, and learners' needs (Badan Standar Nasional Pendidikan 2006). This curriculum did not prescribe curriculum materials, but rather established core competency guidelines for English teachers to follow. The core of the 2006 ELT Curriculum was driven by the need to integrate context, meaning, and communicative competence because they are inextricably linked.

English teachers working in groups designed and developed the 2006 ELT Curriculum. Through an English Teacher Development Group (ETDG) forum, these teachers could share their curriculum with other teachers from different schools in the same district (Musyawarah Guru Mata Pelajaran or MGMP in Bahasa Indonesia). English teachers could use this forum to provide feedback on each other's curriculum materials, such as syllabi, lesson plans, and lesson units. These forums were facilitated and supervised by the district's board of education. The board assigned experienced teachers as teacher supervisors to provide mentoring and supervision to school teachers.

The ELT Curriculum for 2006 was also based on national education standards established by the Badan Standar Nasional Pendidikan, or BSNP (Council for National Education Standard or CNES). Content standards, process standards, competency standards for school leavers, teachers, and staff, facilities, management, financing, and evaluation are all part of these standards (Badan Standar Nasional Pendidikan, 2006). Individual schools designed the 2006 ELT Curriculum package, which included ELT goals, a yearly school calendar, lesson plans, and syllabi. Fundamentally, teachers created their own ELT curriculum in 2006 based on the following principles:students' and stakeholders' needs and interests;

1) integrity;

2) sensitivity to the development of science, technology, and arts;

3) relevance to real-life needs;

4) comprehensiveness and sustainability;

5) life-long learning;

6) A balance between national needs and local needs.

In general, the 2006 ELT Curriculum was based on the 2004 ELT Curriculum, which was informed by competency-based, communicative competence, and systemic functional frameworks. Because the government did not prescribe a detailed nationally mandated curriculum, each school was responsible for designing, implementing, and evaluating its own curriculum under the supervision of the district board of education. Despite this, the Ministry of National Education maintained tight control over a national assessment system that did not reflect the core of the ELT Curriculum of 2006. Most EFL teachers oriented their English language instruction toward the national examination, for which policymakers established competency standards.

c. Policy on International Standard Schools (ISSs)

In addition to implementing KTSP or SBC, the Indonesian government enacted policy on international standard schools (ISSs) or English medium instruction (EMI) in mid-2006 in order to improve education quality and cater to students with exceptional academic abilities. The EMI policy has recently become widespread in Asia (see a chapter by Mihyon Jeon in this volume; Hu, Li, & Lei, 2014). The discourses of internationalization, globalization, and modernization have ideologically driven this policy. In the context of Indonesia, the implementation of this policy was aimed at increasing the country's international competitiveness and producing a workforce ready to work for multinational corporations. As part of economic globalization, the ISS policy attempted to meet international competitiveness and global demands. It was designed for primary and secondary school students in order to train and educate them to be globally competitive (Zacharias, 2013). The ISSs were enacted as a strategy for increasing access to cutting-edge knowledge and strengthening national competitiveness in

knowledge and science (Hu, 2007a, 2007b). The internationalization program, as reflected in both national and institutional policy documents, was also a major motivator in the planning and implementation of the ISSs. This situation is comparable to that of other Asian countries such as China (Hu et al., 2014).

The definition of an ISS is one that meets all national standards and takes into account the educational standards of one of the 34 members of the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and other world's most developed countries with much more improved education systems on a global scale. The policy's goal was to enable high school and university graduates to compete globally with those from other countries. It is important to note that the ISSs are distinct from common international schools that have been established in some major Indonesian cities (e.g., Jakarta, Surabaya, and Denpasar) to meet the needs of expatriates who want to send their children to schools with international standards (curriculum, teachers, and facilities) and a school environment similar to that of their home countries. EMI, the use of information and communication technology (ICT), and the administration of international testing (e.g., TOEFL and Cambridge's International General Certificate of Secondary Education) are all features of ISSs. On an institutional level, the ISSs adopted OECD-accredited standards for accreditation, curriculum (e.g., language policy and planning, pedagogy, and assessment), and school management. International standard schools (ISSs) were also encouraged to form partnerships with sister schools in an OECD member country.

The implementation of ISS policy was problematic in some ways over a five-year period (2006-2011). First and foremost, teachers and students alike lacked English proficiency. As a result, the majority of the classes were held in Bahasa Indonesia. Despite the fact that teachers claimed to use a bilingual or EMI approach to instruction, they lacked sufficient English language ability. Furthermore, despite the fact that the

majority of the textbooks were written in two languages: Bahasa Indonesia and English, the students only read Bahasa Indonesia texts. This suggests that the students were not prepared for EMI. Teachers were not given any sound training in EMI. They also lacked English-language resources, and they translated Bahasa Indonesia textbooks into English, but the translated versions were poorly written. This demonstrates that neither teachers nor students were adequately prepared for EMI. Both teachers and students preferred using Bahasa Indonesian as a medium of instruction because it made teaching and understanding a lesson much easier. In the context of China, Hu, Li, and Lei (2014) also reported on these issues.

In this regard, it must enact those standards in national schools without considering whether such standards are appropriate for institutional contexts and needs at the school and classroom levels. In other words, the ISSs adopted the curriculum, facilities, teacher quality, management, and accreditation established by OECD member countries without adaptation or modification. International standard schools (ISSs) applied higher school tuition and fees through an economic capital lens. This was exacerbated by the fact that they received greater financial support or grants than regular schools. This educational hegemony created an imbalance between ISSs and regular schools, as the Indonesian government prioritized ISSs in terms of financial support and facilities. Instead of benefiting educational elites such as policymakers, schools, and economically disadvantaged students and parents, the ISSs as a result of nationally initiated policy do not reflect what an EMI framework was supposed to achieve. Students with high socioeconomic status were granted access to the ISSs, despite the fact that the Indonesian government allocated 20% of financial aid to students from economically disadvantaged families. Students with a high socioeconomic status, in fact, have access to higher education quality, services, and facilities. In

other words, the ISS policy established hegemonies or inequalities in social, economic, and educational domains.

In addition to these issues, the Constitutional Court of the Republic of Indonesia conducted a judicial review based on input from non-governmental organizations and community leaders. The review resulted in the repeal of Chapter 50, Paragraph 3 of the Act of the 2003 National Education System, which legalized the ISSs. In early January 2013, the review attempted to provide equal rights to quality education for all citizens without any socioeconomic discrimination or injustice. The decision was made to end the ISS program. The ISS policy is no longer being implemented in secondary education, but EMI is flourishing in higher education through World Class University (WCU) programs.

d. The 2013 ELT Curriculum

The current curriculum emphasizes teacher-designed learning (the taught curriculum) and learning experiences (the experienced curriculum) based on students' sociocultural backgrounds and abilities. It also tries to meet eight national standards, including content, process, and competency standards for high school graduates, teachers and administrators, facilities, management, financing, and assessment. These standards are intended to improve educational quality while also meeting global demands (e.g., human resources with global workplace requirements). Setting these standards takes into account both national and global needs.

The development of the current curriculum is anchored in the following principles:

1) Student-centered pedagogy is of top priority. Students are afforded an opportunity to choose what to learn to achieve a particular competency.

2) Interactive pedagogy involves interactions between teacher and students, between students and materials, and between students and their social environments.

3) Integrated pedagogy assists students to explore what they need to learn and to see interconnectedness among a variety of materials through direct observations and mediated observations through the Internet, for instance.

4) Exploratory and engaging learning and teaching are framed in scientific inquiry or discovery learning, which follows these steps: Observing, questioning, exploring or experimenting, associating, and communicating.

5) A collaborative principle underpins a learning process.

6) The use of technology enriches learning and teaching process.

7) Students' needs inform pedagogy.

8) Critical and interdisciplinary approaches are adopted to inform the whole pedagogy.

Through a critical lens, the current curriculum is highly prescriptive in the sense that it dictates what and how to teach and learn English within the confines of pre-determined competencies. The ideological and political agenda determines both core and basic competencies. These competencies do not reflect communicative language competence or the full range of skills required for students to become proficient English users. English teachers must adapt and modify their pedagogical practice and assessment to these competencies without exception. Furthermore, in order to reduce teacher workloads, the current curriculum is accompanied by prescribed syllabi and textbooks.

Teachers teach in a five-step learning cycle, according to pedagogical principles. In terms of assessment, while the current curriculum emphasizes both process- and product-based assessment, it still prioritizes cognitively demanding assessment, which assesses student capability through formal assessment. What is missing in the current curriculum is an emphasis on idealized guidelines that fail to recognize critical elements of what the curriculum means to English teachers, school administrators, teacher educators, and other interested

stakeholders (e.g., students, parents). More importantly, the current curriculum lacks details about curriculum materials, pedagogy, and assessment, which are informed by relevant theories of language, language learning, and language teaching. It instead defines ideologically and institutionally envisioned goals and competencies, as well as rigid and idealized language pedagogy and assessment.

3. Method

The learning method is the method or stages used in the interaction between students and educators to achieve the learning objectives that have been established based on the learning method's material and mechanism. According to Djamarah, SB. (2008: 46), a learning method is "a method used to achieve a predetermined goal." The method is required by the teacher in teaching and learning activities, and its application varies depending on what you want to achieve after teaching. In the learning process, the following teaching methods are used:

a. Conventional Learning Methods

The lecture method is a popular type of learning method. This method is used by lecturing or conveying information to students orally. This method, however, has both advantages and disadvantages.

The following are the disadvantages of the conventional learning method;

1) Students become passive.

2) The learning process is boring and students are sleepy.

3) There is an element of compulsion to listen.

4) Students with a visual learning style will be bored and unable to receive information or knowledge, for children with an auditory learning style this may be quite interesting

5) Evaluation of the learning process is difficult to control, because there are no clear achievement points.

6) The teaching process becomes verbalism or focuses on understanding words only.

The advantages of the conventional learning method;

1) Encourage students to be more focused.

2) The teacher can fully control the class.

3) Teachers can deliver broad lessons.

4) Can be followed by a large number of students.

5) Easy to implement.

b. Question and Answer Learning Method

The Question and Answer method is a teaching method that allows for two-way communication because the teacher and students are conversing at the same time. The teacher either asks the students or the students ask the teacher. The teacher and students have a direct reciprocal relationship in this communication.

The advantages of the question and answer method;

1) Questions can attract and focus students' attention.

2) Stimulating students to train and develop thinking power, including memory power.

3) Develop students' courage and skills in answering and expressing opinions.

The disadvantages of the question and answer method;

1) Students feel afraid if the teacher is not able to encourage students to be brave by creating an atmosphere that is not tense.

2) It is not easy to make questions that are appropriate to the level of thinking and easy for students to understand.

3) Often it wastes a lot of time.

4) Lack of time to ask questions to all students.

c. Discussion Learning Method

The discussion method is a method of teaching that is closely related to problem solving. This method is also commonly used in groups or group discussions. The Discussion method entails regularly exchanging information, opinions, and elements of experience in order to

achieve a common, clearer, and more thorough understanding of something or to prepare and finalize a joint decision.

The advantages of the discussion method;

1) Stimulate the creativity of students in the form of ideas, ideas, crafts and new breakthroughs in problem solving.

2) Develop mutual respect for the opinions of others.

3) Widening knowledge.

4) Fostering the habit of deliberation in solving a problem.

The disadvantages of the discussion method;

1) It takes a long time.

2) Cannot be used for large groups.

3) Participants receive limited information.

4) Mastered by people who like to talk or want to stand out.

4. **Assessment**

Assessment is a process that determines whether or not a predetermined program is successful. Formative assessment, summative assessment, diagnostic assessment, and placement assessment are the four types of assessment of learning processes and outcomes (Arifin, Z. 2009: 35-37). According to Sudjana (2009: 5), there are several types of assessment based on their function, namely: Formative Assessment, Summative Assessment, Diagnostic Assessment, Selective Assessment, and Placement Assessment. Meanwhile, Purwanto (2010: 26) distinguishes between two types of research: formative assessment and summative assessment.

a. Formative Assessment, this assessment is intended to monitor student learning progress during the learning process, to provide feedback for improving learning programs, as well as to identify weaknesses that require improvement, so that student learning outcomes and teacher learning processes become better. The main purpose of formative assessment is to improve the learning process, not to determine students' abilities.

b. Summative Assessment, summative Assessment means an assessment that is carried out if a unit of learning experience or all of the subject matter is considered to have been completed. Thus the semester final exams and national exams include summative assessments. The goal is to determine the value (number) based on the level of student learning outcomes which are then used as report card numbers. And can also be used to improve the overall learning process.

c. Placement Assessment, the main purpose of this placement assessment is to find out whether students already have the skills needed to take part in a learning program and to what extent students have mastered the basic competencies as stated in the syllabus and learning implementation plan (RPP).

d. Diagnostic Assessment, this assessment is intended to find out the learning difficulties of students based on the results of the previous formative assessment. And this assessment requires a number of questions for one area which is thought to be a difficulty for students, and the questions vary.

e. Selective Assessment is an assessment that aims for selection purposes, for example a screening test to enter a particular educational institution.

Types of learning assessment test techniques are assessments used to determine students' cognitive abilities. Description tests (free descriptions, brief descriptions, and structured descriptions) and objective tests (multiple choice, short answer, matching, true-false) are examples of test techniques. Objective tests with true-false questions are uncommon in test implementation. Non-test assessment techniques include assessments used to determine students' abilities in affective and psychomotor areas. Observations, documentation studies, questionnaires, interviews, sociometry, performance, portfolio, and work results analysis are some of the non-test techniques.

B. Compulsory Learning In Practice

    1. Teaching English Spoken in High School Context

Studying is the basic thing that everyone should do. Both children and adults, learning is an important key that can broaden one's knowledge. Learning is not limited in time. That is, everyone in any age range can freely learn through formal education, or learn from experiences that have been passed during their lifetime. For a child, learning is an obligation that must be done. The Indonesian government itself has stipulated 12 years of compulsory education, starting from elementary school to high school or vocational. In fact, the issue of education for the people of Indonesia has been regulated in Article 31 of the 1945 Constitution, which emphasizes that every citizen has the right to receive education, and the government is obliged to finance it.

Learning is a requirement that everyone must fulfill. According to Susanto Ahmad (2016), learning is a mental activity that occurs in the interaction between a person and their environment and results in relatively constant changes in knowledge, understanding, skills, and values. In essence, learning is any human activity that involves changing behavior, gaining knowledge, and developing skills. Learning can take the form of interaction and result in something beneficial for someone. Learning is a requirement because it can change one's behavior. Learning has several worthwhile goals that will benefit one's life in the future.

Learning is the primary obligation that all students must fulfill in all parts of the world. However, many students regard learning as boring and unimportant, so there are often seasonal learning patterns in which students only study to complete assignments or for a test the next day. Some students may even question whether studying is a requirement because learning is one of the efforts to increase the intelligence and abilities of the nation's children in order to advance the nation in the future. Second, learning is essential for people of all ages. Learning is essentially an obligation that we must continue to fulfill from birth until we return to the Almighty, because

we constantly discover new things to learn in our daily lives. As a result, students must be educated to want to learn.

"Every citizen country has the right to education," states Chapter XIII Article 31 paragraph 1 of the 1945 Constitution. Education is a human right and a fundamental right of all Indonesian citizens. However, many Indonesians have not received an education for a variety of reasons, including living in a remote environment. This has an effect on the lack of human resources needed to achieve fair and equitable development. It is the government's responsibility to ensure that its citizens have the right to an education. As a result, the compulsory education program has been in place since 1984 (6 Year Compulsory Education Basic Education), and after ten years, a nine-year basic education compulsory education program was launched in 1994 via Presidential Instruction No. 1 of 1994.

Compulsory education is a national education program that must be followed by Indonesian citizens on the responsibility of the government and regional governments. Compulsory education is the minimum education that must be followed by every Indonesian citizen. Meanwhile, learning is an activity carried out by a person or student personally and unilaterally. While learning involves two parties, namely the teacher and students which contain two elements at once, namely teaching and learning (teaching and learning). The following are the obligations that must be owned by a student and teacher;

Student Obligations:

a. Participate in all school activities in accordance with applicable regulations.

b. Realizing and maintaining order, security, beauty, kinship and shade.

c. Be present at school before the bell rings.

d. Take part in maintaining existing facilities.

e. Obey the rules that apply at school.

f. Participate in teaching and learning activities in an orderly and concentrated manner.

g. Following the flag ceremony in an orderly manner.

Teacher's obligations:

a. Carry out quality learning processes, as well as assess and evaluate learning.

b. Act objectively and non-discriminatively.

c. Uphold the laws and regulations, laws and codes of ethics for teachers.

d. Maintain and foster a sense of unity and unity of the nation.

e. Educate patiently without violence.

f. Use good language when communicating with students

English is a compulsory subject taught in high schools, both public and private, as part of the secondary school certificate requirements. It has developed into a second language used for official communication as well as a medium of teaching and education. English proficiency is also required for admission to professional universities as English is used in all placement tests. Despite the enormous global spread and impact of English, teaching and learning English in non-native settings leaves much to be desired for learners to actually develop their language skills, such as listening, speaking, reading and writing.

Teaching and learning speaking is an important part of any language education class; Spoken language not only offers 'ability' to learn as the primary communicative medium in the classroom, but is also an important component of syllabus content and learning outcomes. However, teaching speaking remains a challenge for many English teachers. The main issue here is whether what happens in the speaking class relates to 'doing' teaching or 'teaching' speaking. In this research, I consider several important elements that comprise speaking competence and present a cycle of teaching speaking which is designed to discuss teaching speaking systematically. Many of the approaches usually used in language teaching to teach speaking have taken little into account the features of spoken language, and have tended to return to grammar which is primarily based on written text.

Technological advances in recording speech and the formation of collections of spoken utterances by linguists have resulted in a much greater knowledge of the similarities and differences between these two modes of communication. It is invaluable for language teachers to be aware of some of the key differences and features that typically characterize speech, as this will enable them to make more informed decisions about what to teach. A teacher is a professional educator whose main task is to educate, guide, teach, assess, train and evaluate students starting from early childhood education, basic education, secondary education and formal education. Teachers not only teach various sciences, but also have to take care of several students in class even within the allotted time.

As a teacher, of course it is difficult to meet the needs of all students who are different from one another. The teachers have tried their best, it is not uncommon to find criticism for their performance. Of course the teacher from the beginning had intended to work professionally and become a competent teacher. Teacher competence is the ability of a teacher to carry out his duties and obligations properly and responsibly. The role of the teacher as a learning agent is as a facilitator, driver, and motivator, inspirational and learning engineer for students. As a teacher there are 4 competencies that must be possessed, the teacher competencies are as follows;

a. Pedagogic Competence

This competency is the teacher's ability or skill in managing the learning process or teaching and learning interactions with students. In this competency there are 7 aspects that must be mastered, including;

1) Characteristics of students
2) Learning theory and educational principles of learning
3) Curriculum development
4) Educative learning
5) Developing the potential of students
6) How to communicate

7) Assessment and evaluation of learning

b. Personality Competence

The next competency is about personality related to teacher character and must be possessed in order to be an example for students. In addition, teachers must also be able to educate their students to help them have a good personality. There are several personalities that teachers must have, including;

1) Stable personality, acts according to social norms and takes pride in being a teacher.

2) A mature personality displays independence in acting as an educator and has a work ethic as a teacher.

3) A wise personality displays actions based on the benefits of students, schools and society and shows openness in thinking and acting.

4) An authoritative personality includes behaviour that has a positive effect on students and has behaviour that is respected.

5) Having noble character includes acting according to religious norms and having behaviour that is exemplary by students.

c. Professional Competence

This competency is an ability or skill that must be owned by a teacher so that school assignments can be completed properly and correctly. These skills are related to technical matters and are directly related to teacher performance. These competency indicators are;

1) Mastering the subject matter being taught, including the structure of the lesson, the concept of the lesson and the scientific mind set of the material.

2) Mastering competency standards (SK), Basic Competency (KD), and learning objectives of the lessons taught.

3) Able to develop subject matter creatively so that it can provide reflective knowledge in order to develop professionalism in a sustainable manner.

4) Able to utilize information and communication technology (ICT) in the process of learning and self-development.

d. Social Competence

This is the competency of the teacher's ability to communicate effectively with students, education staff, parents/guardians of students, and the surrounding community. These capabilities include;

1) Act objectively, not discriminate based on gender, religion, race, physical condition, family background, and family social status.

2) Communicate effectively, empathetically, and politely to fellow educators, educational staff, parents or guardians of students and the surrounding community.

3) Adapting to the place of duty in all regions of the Republic of Indonesia which have socio-cultural diversity.

2. Language Learning

Language learning is defined broadly as the acquisition of the ability to communicate in a second/foreign language. Language learning is an essential component of language unity (Robbins, 2007:49). Language learning is a multifaceted activity with numerous components. Teachers, students, methods, materials, technological equipment, and other elements are all directly involved in the classroom learning process. Meanwhile, elements of government, society, institutions, and others are not directly involved in the learning process in the classroom but make a significant contribution to the learning's continuity. Improving the quality of language learning requires an understanding of each component of the language learning process.

Language learning will be successful if there is a good understanding. According to Alsayed (2003), some people can learn languages quickly, whereas others must spend a significant amount of time learning languages without achieving satisfactory results. Children also differ in their ability to learn their first language; some begin speaking at the age of nine months,

while others do not speak a single word. Various studies on the success of language learning have also been conducted.

These studies investigate language learning success from a variety of perspectives, including affective aspects (Zayed & Al-Ghamdi, 2019), cognitive intelligence, emotional, learning styles, learning strategies (Taheri, Sadighi, Bagheri, & Bavali, 2019), and language learning environment (Lodhi, Sahar, Qayyum, Iqbal, & Shareef, 2019). The facts presented above demonstrate that language learning success cannot be predicted with certainty and is influenced by a variety of factors. The factors that influence one's success in learning a language are not the same as those that influence the success of others. As a result, understanding the factors that influence the success of language learning is critical for teachers' language in order to maximize the positive factors that exist while minimizing the negative factors that arise. Kumaravadivelu (2012) proposes five major constructs that underpin a series of input-output processes in language learning and use: input, intake, intake factors, intake processes, and output.

According to Richards and Schmidt (2010), input in language learning is language that students hear or receive as well as language that they can learn from sources. Kumaravadivelu (2006) provides a more specific definition, stating that operationally input can be defined as a target language corpus (oral or written) intended for language learners, delivered through various sources, and introduced to them as language input. This definition includes two requirements: availability and accessibility.

a. Availability: input must be available to students or they must seek it out on their own, which can be oral or written, formal or informal and so on.

b. Accessibility: students must recognize input as language input and accept it as something they can master. For students, input must be linguistically and cognitively appropriate.

Experts define intake differently and often contradict one another. According to Kumaravadivelu (2006), two ideas emerge from all the concepts and terminology surrounding intake: the idea that regards intake as

a product and the idea that regards intake as a process. The view that considers intake to be a product considers intake to be part of the input before it is processed by students. While the view that considers intake to be a process considers intake to be something that occurs after the psycholinguistic process. The intake in this case is part of the student's interlanguage system. According to the first point of view, intake is unprocessed language input, whereas the second point of view is processed language input.

According to Stern (2003), input from each learning condition is not received and processed in the same way by different students. Stern's idea weakens the first view (product view), which states that intake is part of language input that is not processed, because unequal acceptance and processing by students of the same input will result in different results, according to Stern. In support of the second (process) view, Richards and Schmidt (2002) define intake as "the part of language exposed by learners that actually "goes in" and plays a role in language learning." According to Richards and Schmidt (2002), unless input is done consciously, it will not become intake for language learning (noticed).

Similarly to Richards and Schmidt, Corder (in Kumaravadivelu, 2012) defines intake as "what goes in rather than what is available to go in." Corder's concept explains how intake differs from input. What goes in is associated with intake, whereas what is available to go in is associated with input. Internal and external factors that are raised to support the psycholinguistic process of language learning are referred to as intake factors. Intake processes are cognitive mechanisms that mediate the relationship between input data and intake factors. Intake processes are made up of mental operations that are unique to language learning. In terms of internal procedures and operations for students, intake processes continue to be a critical link in the input-intake-output chain (Kumararavadivelu, 2006). The students' language production is the output (Richards & Schmidt, 2010).

According to Kumaravadivelu (2006), intake cannot be directly observed, quantified, or analyzed. Intake is a complicated network of mental representations. What can be empirically verified is the product of these mental representations, which is commonly referred to as the output. As a result, the output is a corpus of utterances produced by students in spoken or written form. The writer follows the second idea (process view) from the two main ideas about intake as described above in explaining the factors that influence the success of language learning, because intake as part of processed language input will be influenced by various factors in the process.

Kumaravadivelu proposes intake factors as one of the series constructs in his ideas about the input-output construction of language learning. According to Kumaravadivelu (2006), intake factors are six factors (each with two variables) that aid in the development of a second language. According to Kumaravadivelu, these factors are only facilitating factors, not causal factors, because there is no direct cause-and-effect relationship between these factors and second language development. Rationally, each factor will help to facilitate various interests. These factors are encapsulated in the acronym INTAKE, which stands for:

I   : Individual factors: age and anxiety

N   : Negotiation factors: interaction and interpretation

T   : Tactical factors: learning strategies and communication strategies

A   : Affective factors: attitudes and motivation

K   : Knowledge factors: language knowledge and metalanguage knowledge

E   : Environmental factors: social context and educational context
       Kumaravadivelu groups these factors into two groups, namely internal factors and external factors.

a. Internal factors

1) Individual Factors

Several individual factors have been studied to assess their role in the development of L2. They include age, anxiety, empathy, extroversion, intro version, and risk taking. Of these variables, age and anxiety appear to play a relatively larger role than the others.

a) Age.

It is widely assumed that the age at which learners begin learning a second language has an impact on their eventual achievement in language knowledge/skills. Lenneberg proposed the critical period hypothesis (CPH) in 1967, arguing that language is best learned before puberty, after which everyone faces limitations in language development. Scovel (2001) discovered three distinct schools of thought in a comprehensive review of SLA research based on this hypothesis. The first strand contends that a critical period existed, but it was limited to only foreign accents. The researchers claim that if L2 learners begin language learning after the age of 12, they will end up with some degree of foreign accent because there is a large mismatch between their lexicogrammatically excellent L2 learners and their poor phonological abilities. The reasoning is that L2 phonological production is the only aspect of language performance thought to have a neuromuscular basis. The second strand is that there is a critical period for both accent and grammar. Scovel (2001) discovered very little evidence to back up this claim. The third strand is that no critical period exists, even for pronunciation. According to research, L2 learners can acquire sufficient phonological competency to pass as native speakers with adequate phonetic training and the right learning conditions. However, such instances are uncommon. Age has an impact on L2 development, but the nature of the impact depends on which intake factors, when,

and in what combination, are applied to an individual learner's learning experience.

b) Anxiety

Anxiety is an emotional state characterized by fear, tension, nervousness, and apprehension, which is mediated by stimulation of the autonomic nervous system. Anxiety is characterized in the L2 learning context by feelings of self-consciousness, fear of negative evaluation from peers and teachers, and fear of failing to meet one's personal standards and goals.

2) Affective Factors

The term affective factors refers to a group of variables that define learner dispositions, the most important of which are attitudes and motivation. According to Siegel (2003), motivation is "influenced by learners' attitudes toward L2, speakers and their culture, the social and practical values of using L2, and their own language and culture" (p. 185).

a) Attitude.

A person's attitude is their evaluative reaction to a person, place, thing, or event. Individual attitudes, according to social psychologists, are driven by one's personal thoughts or feelings based on one's beliefs or opinions; thus, different individuals develop different patterns of attitudes toward the same stimulus. Attitudes are also socially based, in that they must be experienced in relation to outside subjects or events. As stated in the Routledge Encyclopaedia (2000), attitude "affects the learner not only with respect to information processing and identification with people or groups, but also with respect to motives." And the relationship between language and culture, as well as their position within the existing linguistic and cultural diversity" (p. 57).

b) Motivation

Motivation is "the driving force that keeps a long and often tedious learning process going" (Routledge Encyclopaedia, 2000, p. 425). Experiment results show that motivation "involves all the influences and cognitions that initiate language learning, determine language choice, and energize the language learning process" (Dornyei, 2000, p. 425). It operates at the language, learner, and learning situation levels. Several intake factors, particularly individual, affective, and environmental factors, contribute to determining a learner's level of motivation to a language learning task over time.

b. External Factors

1) Tactical Factor

The tactical factor refers to an important aspect of L2 development: learners' awareness of, and ability to use, appropriate tactics or techniques for effective L2 learning and efficient use of the limited repertoire they have developed thus far. Such tactics are discussed in the L2 literature under the broad headings of learning strategies and communication strategies.

a) Learning strategies.

Learning strategies are operations and routines used by learners to facilitate the acquisition, storage, retrieval, and use of information. The term learning strategy then refers to what learners know and do to manage their learning.

b) Communication Strategy

In addition to learning strategies, L2 learners also use what are called communication strategies, which are plans that consciously have the potential to solve what for the individual presents itself as a problem in achieving certain communicative goals.

2) Knowledge Factor

Language knowledge and metalanguage knowledge are referred to by the knowledge factor. All adult L2 learners who have received formal language education in their L1 will undoubtedly bring not only their L1 knowledge/skills, but also their own perceptions and expectations about language, language learning, and language use. Language knowledge and metalanguage knowledge are critical for the development of L2.

a) Language knowledge

Is knowledge/ability in the native language, the target language that is still developing, and other already known languages. All adult L2 learners have varying degrees of implicit and explicit knowledge/ability in their L1 due to their membership in their native language's speech community and their experiences as speakers of the language. The influence and application of language knowledge can either help or hinder the development of L2.

b) Metalanguage Knowledge

Metalingual knowledge, also known as metalinguistic awareness, refers to a person's ability to consider language as an object of inquiry as well as a means of expressing ideas or communicating with others.

3) Negotiation Factor

In conversational analysis, the term negotiation refers to the ways in which participants in a communicative event structure their social relationships through interaction. Negotiation is essential for L2 development because it necessitates the continuous application and refinement of linguistic and pragmatic knowledge/skills. Negotiation has at least three dimensions: introspection, interaction, and interpretation. Intrapersonal introspection involves the language learner's lonely mental journey through and about meaning and

context. However, direct observation and analysis are rarely possible. The other two dimensions of negotiation, interaction and interpretation, are primarily interpersonal in nature, involving the exploration of shared meaning between participants in communicative events, and are open to investigation.

a) Interaction

Negotiated interactions in the L2 context necessitate the learner's active participation in communicative activities like clarification, confirmation, understanding check, request, correction, reaction, and taking turns. Several experimental studies have revealed that negotiated interactions help L2 learners develop the necessary language knowledge/skills in a facilitative, rather than a causal, manner.

b) Interpretation

The ability to interpret spoken target language as intended is closely related to interaction opportunities. Interpretive procedures assist the learner in distinguishing between what is said and what is meant. Positive correlations with other intake factors, particularly individual anxiety factors and attitudinal and motivational affective factors (see forthcoming text), may be required to realize the full potential of negotiating factors. As a result, when combined with other relevant intake factors, the negotiation factor provides numerous opportunities for L2 learners to pay special attention to new features of the linguistic input being studied, thereby contributing to the activation of psycholinguistic processes.

4) Environmental factor

Environmental factors refer to the larger context in which language learning and teaching occur. Global, national, social, cultural, political, economic, educational, and family contexts are all included. The impact of these overlapping factors on the development of L2 is not fully understood, in part because, as Siegel (2003) points

out, "generalizations have been made on the basis of research conducted only in a limited scope." Various sociolinguistic contexts and only the standard range of language" (p. 183). Even our limited knowledge suggests that environmental factors influence the development of L2. We are now concentrating on two closely related factors: social and educational.

a) Social context

The term "social context" refers to a variety of language learning environments, including the home, surroundings, classroom, and society as a whole. Scholars such as Pavlenko (2002) and Siegel (2003) have recently proposed that the transition from L1 to L2 involves more than just psycholinguistic abilities, and that it is influenced by historical, political, and social forces as well. Furthermore, the social context is very important because it shapes various learning and teaching issues such as (a) motivation to learn a second language, (b) the goals of learning a second language, (c) the function that a second language is expected to perform in society, (d) the availability of inputs for learners, (e) variation in input, and (f) acceptable proficiency norms in a specific speech community. Specific social settings, such as the learner's surroundings and classroom, where the learner comes into contact with the new language, were also discovered to influence L2 development.

b) Educational Context

The educational context is inextricably linked to the social context. Educational psychology studies of educational contexts emphasize the integral and reciprocal influences of educational institutions and settings in which teaching and learning operations are embedded. In the context of L2 development, the educational context shapes language policy, language planning, and, most importantly, the learning opportunities available to L2 learners. It is

impossible to separate classroom life from the dynamics of political, educational, and societal institutions, because, as I have argued elsewhere (Kumararavadivelu, 2001), the experiences participants bring to class are shaped by more than just the learning and teaching episodes they encounter. They face challenges not only in the classroom, but also in the larger social, economic, educational, and political environment in which they are raised. These encounters have the potential to shape classroom practice in ways that policymakers, curriculum designers, and textbook publishers do not want or expect. According to Tollefson (2002) and others, the educational context determines the type and purpose of the instructional program provided to L2 students.

3. Psychology Impact to CEL

Psychology is a science that studies humans from the standpoint of human characteristics and behavior (Syaiful Sagala: 2003). Psychology is derived from the Greek word "psyche," which means soul, spirit, or soul, and "logy" or "logos," which means science or knowledge. So psychology means "the science of the soul" or "the study of the characteristics and symptoms experienced by the human soul." In this case, psychology plays an important role in education because psychology as a science is attempting to understand the circumstances of students who are not the same as one another. Whereas knowledge of psychology is very important for teachers in order to understand the process and stages of learning for their students. Psychological aspects of learning attitudes influence learning achievement.

Both students and teachers are affected by psychological issues. In the classroom, both teachers and students experience lack of confidence, speech anxiety, and low self-esteem. Students who lack self-confidence frequently find it difficult to control themselves in class, for example, to regulate their behavior as expected by their friends, to lose confidence in themselves, to believe that their friends are not paying attention, to be afraid of making

mistakes, and so on. Teachers who lack self-confidence and self-esteem, on the other hand, suffer in terms of performance and ability to manage their class effectively. Low self-esteem may be caused by the teacher's lack of subject knowledge. Both of these psychological issues affect the effectiveness of class activities.

Mari, Pathan, and Shahriar (2011) found that students experienced anxiety when communicating in English in a study of 100 students. The psychological impact of a foreign language classroom influences how a person behaves. The majority of the learner's affective status is a determining factor in accomplishing the task of learning a second or foreign language. Anxiety usually arises when studying or speaking, particularly in English.

4. **Potential Problems and Solutions**

Many students find it difficult to express themselves in the target language. As a result, the language being learned can be described as difficult. As a result, researchers believe that learners may make a variety of errors while producing spoken language. To learn English, students must go through a difficult process of making mistakes. The outcomes are potential explanations for pronunciation, grammar, articles, aids, prepositions, and written and spoken errors. Many students make mistakes when producing English, particularly when speaking. Subject knowledge, listening skills, motivation to speak, teacher feedback on speaking activities, self-confidence, pressure to perform well, and preparation time are all factors that influence students' oral performance.

According to Ahmad (2005: 132), three factors influence learning: internal factors such as physical health, intelligence, attitudes, talents, interests, and motivation; external factors such as parental characteristics, family management practices, school buildings and their locations, learning tools; and learning approach factors such as strategies used by students in the learning process. As a result, students must be motivated in their learning activities. Students who are motivated to learn have a desire to

succeed in their studies, encouragement and a desire to learn, aspirations, enjoy learning, and are interested in learning (Uno, 2016: 23). To achieve satisfactory academic achievement, students must enjoy learning, study hard and work diligently on assignments, repeat lessons after school, and try to understand the subject matter in school. Learning is a process of changing the behavior of the subject of study through activity. These behavioral changes can manifest themselves in a variety of ways, including the subject of learning to be creative.

Learning creativity is characterized by several characteristics such as open-mindedness, spontaneity, curiosity, and independence. Creativity in learning does not appear by itself, but is influenced by a number of factors, both internal and external. If a person has a desire to learn, he will be successful and creative in his learning. Motivation is the desire or drive to learn. Based on the assumptions above, students who are motivated to learn are distinguished by a shift in energy within themselves; encouragement that arises from within a person transforms into an energy that drives him to work or study, seek and solve problems to completion. Motivated students also take actions that propel them toward their objectives. Learning motivation has always been one of the most important success factors in learning. Someone who is highly motivated to learn will be eager to participate in a variety of learning activities, both as requested by the teacher and independently.

Teachers and lecturers can use learning motivation to determine the best learning strategy to use. According to Brown (2001: 74), the most widely referenced classification of needs is that presented by Maslow, which assumes a hierarchy of needs beginning with the basic physiological needs that exist from birth (the need for food, warmth, etc.) to higher needs such as approval, identity, self-esteem, achievement, knowledge, and exploration, the fulfillment of which leads to self-actualization. Motives based on basic needs, such as hunger, are called biological motives and are innate, whereas motives based on higher needs, such as love, are called

psychological motives and are influenced by learning and environmental factors. This latter theme is especially pertinent to second language learning research. Motivation is critical in increasing learner interest. Similarly, in language learning, motivation helps learners improve their abilities in a variety of ways.

Because language is always bound by social and cultural contexts, the role of motivation in learning a foreign language is complex. Mastering a foreign language, in particular, is a social event that is always accompanied by cultural elements from the foreign language itself. One of the factors that is thought to build motivation in the context of acquiring and learning a second (foreign) language is the attitude toward the language and culture of the people who use that language. Gagne (1998: 234) proposes three aspects of attitude: 1) Cognitive component, which refers to an object's beliefs; 2) the affective component, which refers to the number of positive or negative feelings a person has toward a specific object; 3) the behavioral component, which refers to a person's intention of behavior or the actual behavior of the object.

Various studies and research on teaching and learning English have been conducted in Indonesia. Several factors are thought to play a significant role in the success of English teaching. Teachers, students, curriculum, teaching materials, and learning facilities are all examples of these factors. Talking about students as an important component of learning is inextricably linked to the topic of motivation. Until recently, student motivation was thought to be a learning factor that determined student learning success. Several research findings on motivation in foreign language learning show that students' motivation in learning a foreign language is the primary driver of success in learning the foreign language. The motivation for learning a foreign language differs. An individual can learn a foreign language because he is interested in that language; for example, if he wants to work in a foreign language country, he must be fluent in that country's language.

Furthermore, someone can learn a foreign language in order to learn about the cultures of other countries. Another very likely motivation is a desire to learn a foreign language, particularly an international language such as English, French, or Mandarin, to make it easier to find work. One of the keys to success and learning achievement is motivation. Students who are highly motivated to learn tend to do well in school. Students' lack of motivation to learn English is primarily due to a lack of will and external encouragement, particularly from family members who constantly remind and warn if there are mistakes or deficiencies. In order to motivate students to learn, the role of the family is still not functioning optimally. Given the current circumstances, this was most likely caused by the family's poor educational background and the work of family members, which made interactions between students and families, both parents and siblings, difficult.

Motivation is an important factor in increasing second language learners' learning achievement when learning English. This is consistent with Shinta's (2012) assertion that "to learn English, learners require motivation because learners must be driven." Students must be encouraged both internally and externally to achieve their goals. When looking at the indicators used to determine learning motivation, it is clear that the elements of dynamic learning have the highest percentage of motivating student learning. Different components of dynamic learning can influence student achievement. These components can be physical or non-physical in nature. Non-physical components include student internal factors such as liking, discipline, responsibility, and others, while physical components include various media, materials, sources, and learning tools.

These various dynamic elements have a significant impact on students' learning motivation. According to Iswahyuni (2017: 38), through dynamic elements of learning, students will use various components related to learning, which can motivate students to learn. The dynamic components of learning can be used to boost student motivation and achievement.

Furthermore, among the student learning motivation factors, the teacher's behavior and personality have the greatest influence on student learning motivation. The teacher's behavior and personality are crucial to the success of student learning. Teachers who can provide students with comfort while learning, communicate effectively, and have a variety of ways to solve problems are well-liked by students. When it comes to learning English, the teacher's demeanor and personality are crucial.

Krashen (in Islam, 2015: 10) defines an effective language teacher as one who can provide input and make language easier to understand in low-anxiety situations. Learning English necessitates the teacher's ability to instill confidence and courage in the students. Because English is a foreign language that is not commonly used in everyday life, students must be encouraged to speak English. Teachers who are patient and meticulous when it comes to teaching foreign languages are more likely to succeed in improving their students' abilities. In general, students like English teachers who are creative and have a close relationship with their students. This is because the characteristics of the English language, particularly those related to the ability to speak English, require students to have a strong will and courage.

5. **Previous Study**

Previous Study was conducted by (Azarnoosh, M, 2014). In his research entitled "When learning English is compulsory at school". The results of research conducted by Maryam Azarnoosh, this study discusses the role of motivation in the long-term process of L2 learning. One's motivation can change even in a short time under the influence of various factors. In order to enrich the basic understanding of attitude/motivation in learning foreign language this study attempts to investigate L2 fluctuations in motivation and the possibility to predict the learning behaviour of students who are motivated in EFL.

Compulsory English learning research was also conducted by (Damian J. Rivers, 2012). In his research entitled "Modelling the perceived

value of compulsory English language education in undergraduate non-language majors of Japanese nationality"? The results of research conducted by Rivers, Damian J, this study modelled "the perceived value of compulsory English education in a sample of 138 undergraduate majors of non-Japanese nationality at a national university in Japan. During the orientation period of the 15-week compulsory English program, 138 students (from four individual classes) wrote about and discussed their beliefs regarding the institution's position that English language education is important (as reflected by the mandatory status of the English program). English classes conducted in their first year). The qualitative textual responses collected during the orientation period were thematically divided into three categories: international friendship orientation, international career orientation and international engagement orientation. The theoretical principles underlying these three categories were used to inform the creation of the Japanese language survey instrument which was conducted at the end of the 15-week programme. The quantitative survey data collected was then adapted to a three-factor model of "perceived value of compulsory English language education".

Previous study was also carried out by (Kutay Uzun, 2017). In his research entitled "Compulsory English courses in higher education: A source of angst or thrill?" The results of research conducted by Kutay Uzun. This research discusses that positive psychology is a significant determinant of successful learning outcomes, where learning in its absence can be negatively affected. In the case of compulsory English courses, it has been suggested that negative psychology may be more important than its positive counterpart because many students show reluctance to attend such classes. In that regard, this study aims to measure the levels of Foreign Language Enjoyment and Foreign Language Anxiety and compare the two psychological constructs to reveal which is predominant in compulsory English courses. The participants were 166 undergraduate students who took the courses mentioned above. The results show that, although the

course is compulsory and every student must take it, Foreign Language Enjoyment outweighs Foreign Language Anxiety.

Research also conducted by (R. Kirkpatrick, 2016). In his book entitled "English Language Education Policy in Asia, Language Policy"? This book presents a distinctive and timely volume on the developments and challenges of English language education in Asian countries. Given its highly informative nature, this will be a good reference book for policy makers, curriculum designers, language teachers, and postgraduate students to read about the history and facts of the development of English language education policy in Asia. This book is well presented and theory based and offers an excellent combination of chapters on policy and practice in different countries.

Previous study was also carried out by (Kumararavadivelu. B, 2006). In his book entitled "*Understanding language teaching: From method to post method*". This book traces the historical development of major language teaching methods in terms of theoretical principles and classroom procedures, and provides a critical evaluation of each. Drawing from seminal, foundational texts and from critical commentaries made by various scholars, Kumaravadivelu examines the profession's current transition from method to post method and, in the process, elucidates the relationship between theory, research, and practice. The chief objective is to help readers see the pattern that connects language, learning, teaching methods, and post method perspectives. In this book, Kumaravadivelu: brings together a critical vision of L2 learning and teaching--a vision founded at once on historical development and contemporary thought;, connects findings of up-to-date research in L2 learning with issues in L2 teaching thus making the reader aware of the relationship between theory, research and practice;, presents language teaching methods within a coherent framework of language-, learner-, and learning-centred pedagogies, thus helping the reader to see how they are related to each other;, shows how the three categories of methods evolved historically leading ultimately (and inevitably) to the

emergence of a post method condition; and provides the reader with a solid background in several interconnected areas of L2 pedagogy, such as concepts of competence, input factors, intake processes, interactional modifications, and instructional design. Understanding Language Teaching: From Method to Post method is intended for an international audience of teacher educators, practicing teachers and graduate students, researchers, curriculum planners, and materials designers in the field of second and foreign language teaching.

The difference between this research and the five previous studies is that this research emphasizes the practice of English learning method in the regions. In this study investigates the learning process, challenges, implementation and what potential can improve and evaluate the practice of learning English in the future.