The Effects of Flipped Classroom Instruction on Indonesian EFL Students' Speaking Ability in One Higher Learning Institution

by

Risang Baskara

DISSERTATION

Submitted in total fulfilment of the requirement of the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

2023

Swinburne University of Technology

Abstract

The opportunities for English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) students to practice verbal communication in higher education are often limited, making speaking challenging. To address this issue, flipped learning presents a promising approach. Flipped learning involves delivering instruction outside the classroom and allowing students to engage in interactive learning activities during class. This approach is relatively new in Indonesia, and its effectiveness in improving EFL students' speaking skills is poorly understood. The study aims to investigate the impact of flipped learning on Indonesian higher education students' speaking skills for English language learning. The primary aim of this study is to contribute to the literature and examine the effectiveness of flipped learning in improving EFL students' speaking skills. The study employed action research with a mixed-methods approach, including both quantitative and qualitative components. In total, 40 students participated in the study and watched video lectures, followed by in-class interactive learning activities. The quantitative aspect of the study followed a pre-test/post-test design. Qualitative data was collected through semi-structured interviews. The study's results revealed an improvement in the speaking performances of the participants. The qualitative data showed that students preferred the personalised, input/output-rich instruction and increased opportunities for speaking skills development provided by the flipped learning instruction. Based on the research outcomes, a Flipped Speaking Framework was developed. This framework incorporates four learning theories (Constructivism, Bloom's Revised Taxonomy, Community of Inquiry, and Output-driven, Input-enabled Hypothesis). It could be applied to other language learning environments in the education industry.

Acknowledgement

First and foremost, I am grateful to my principal supervisor, Professor Ida Fatimawati Adi Badiozaman, for her endless patience, understanding, support, and essential advice. Thanks to her, I have grown as a scholar and learned the genuine meaning of determination. Her faith in my research has encouraged me and pushed me on at various stages of this research effort.

I would also like to thank my co-supervisor, Professor Therese Keane, for her valuable input and ideas during my PhD research. She willingly shared her comprehensive knowledge and insight with me and recommended many crucial adjustments that greatly aided the writing of this thesis. Her support and advice have been invaluable.

I will always be grateful to my co-supervisor, Dr FX Mukarto, who initially pushed me to do this PhD research, supported my application and guided me. I was fortunate to have supervisors who genuinely cared about my work and promptly replied to my questions and concerns, allowing me to meet each milestone quickly.

All credit for the work goes to the Swinburne Research and Consultancy Office (Sarawak), Swinburne Research, and the Faculty of Higher Education (Australia). I want to thank Professor Lau Bee Theng, Director of the School of Research, for her wise and confidential guidance.

Finally, I want to thank my family (my mom and her never-ending prayer, my wife, Mira, and my beautiful daughters, Audra and Agniya) for their spiritual support during the composition of this thesis.

Candidate declaration

I, Risang Baskara, declare that this thesis is my own original work and does not contain material that has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma.

To the best of the candidate's knowledge, this thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the text.

In addition, I warrant that I have obtained, where necessary, permission from the copyright owners to use any third-party copyright material reproduced in the thesis (such as artwork, images, and unpublished documents) or any of my own published work (such as journal articles) in which the copyright is held by another party (such as publisher, co-author).

Risang Baskara

Table of contents

List of tables

List of figures

List of abbreviations

CEFR	Common European Framework for Reference
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
CoI	Community of Inquiry
COVID-19	Corona Virus Disease 2019
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
ESL	English as a Second Language
FLA	Foreign Language Anxiety
GE	General English
HE	Higher Education
HOTS	Higher Order Thinking Skills
K13	Kurikulum 2013 (Curriculum 2013)
KBK	Kurikulum Berbasis Kompetensi (Competency-Based Curriculum)
KTSP	Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan (School-Based Curriculum)
L2	Second Language
LMS	Learning Management System
LOTS	Lower Order Thinking Skills
LPTAE	Language Proficiency Assessment for Teachers of English
LTMPT	Lembaga Tes Masuk Perguruan Tinggi (Higher Education Entrance Test Organiser)
SBMPTN	Seleksi Bersama Masuk Perguruan Tinggi Negeri (Joint Entrance Selection for State Universities)
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
SOFLA	Synchronous Online Flipped Learning Approach
STEM	Science, Technology, Engineering, and Math
SUHREC	Swinburne University Human Research Ethics Committee
TESOL	Teaching English for Speakers of Other Languages
USBN	Ujian Sekolah Berstandar Nasional (National Standard School Final Examination)

Chapter One: Introduction

1.1. Background

All Indonesian primary and secondary schools teach English as a foreign language. Although the English curriculum is meticulously planned to encourage learners to use the language to meet their needs for English in daily life, for the acquisition of knowledge, and for future needs in the workplace, it has been established that students' grades do not accurately reflect their English competence (Hamied, 2013; Panggabean, 2015). There are many causes for this. Fairus (2003) explains that the lack of exposure to English and language usage beyond the classroom causes learners to find it challenging to maintain interest and motivation in English language learning. Also, Al-Tamimi and Shuib (2009) claim that learners' motivation toward the English language could be one factor contributing to the deterioration of the language, as motivation can directly influence the success rate of second language learning. Wu (2003) has found that the classroom atmosphere might positively correlate with language learners' motivation.

Since many teachers in Indonesia recognise the significance of speaking for their students, many have endeavoured to instruct their students' speaking skills while facing several obstacles. The challenges have been attributed to many students in a classroom, a less supportive environment to speak English, limited time to practice, and different learning styles (Fareed et al., 2016; Jamulia, 2018; Khajavy et al., 2016; Solak & Bayar, 2015; Wijaya & Rizkina, 2015). The first problem is that many students do not have sufficient prior or background information when they are required to discuss specific topics with their classmates or in groups spontaneously. The lack of prior knowledge is related to the learning model, which sometimes uses media such as PowerPoint, video, audio, or visual aids such as pictures and texts to be noticed and identified by the students during the class and addressed in real time. When confronted with speaking English spontaneously, students could find it challenging to discuss the topic because they do not have access to visual aids, have less time to prepare, and may have limited vocabulary related to the topic.

The second challenge is limited time allocation and the number of students to practice speaking. The non-English department is allotted 3 x 50 minutes weekly at the university level for English subjects. Within this allocated time, the teacher must cover the indicators on a lesson plan and be responsible for completing the syllabus. Typically, forty to fifty students in the class exacerbate these complications. As a result, it is challenging for the teacher to teach these students and emphasise reading, listening, grammar, and writing. Group presentation, role play, open-ended questions, and answers are the teachers' strategies to cover speaking activities. However, those speaking activities are still less effective in facilitating and giving students many opportunities to speak English in class

(Wijirahayu & Doran, 2018).

The next challenge is the student's attitude, motivation, and learning style differences in learning English. These attitudes mean positive or negative beliefs and opinions about learning English (Setiadi & Sukirlan, 2016; Setyowati & Sukmawan, 2016). Setiadi and Sukirlan (2016) added that the students might have negative English beliefs, such as less progress and efforts to develop their willingness to learn and maintain their English. Therefore, students may have poor motivation, such as attending class merely for attendance, being more passive in the learning process, and being shy and hesitant to speak English. These attitudes lead the students to believe English to be the most difficult language, which can contribute to an unconducive classroom atmosphere.

Because of this, the concept of using several methods to resolve the issues that arise when teaching speaking has come to mind. An exciting alternative can be found in the research of Bergmann, who flipped his classroom to transition to the concept of deep learning; he coined the *Flipped Classroom Model* (Bergmann & Sams, 2013). Bergmann used this model to teach students (math and science subjects) remotely. It was required for the students to watch the instructional videos when they were at home. Students do homework and class activities the following day with the teacher's assistance.

Recent research indicates that the flipped classroom model in English classrooms has significantly altered the traditional roles of the teacher and the students, as well as increased interaction between the two groups during classroom time (Du, 2018; Chuang et al., 2018; Iyer, 2019). In a flipped classroom, learners are introduced to content before/outside class to practice what they have learned in a guided setting. During the process of in-class knowledge internalisation, the activity's design progresses from simple to complex, moving from a primary task to a more challenging one. Such an approach allows students to develop linguistic skills in classroom activities.

This section will explain the research background of the current study and provide information about the educational system in Indonesia, emphasising difficulties related to teaching English in the classroom. Furthermore, an overview of the instructional theories that form this study's basis will also be provided: the interaction hypothesis and explicit instruction. Specific challenges related to English language teaching and learning will be identified. Those issues can be addressed using a flipped classroom model combined with technology, specifically grammar instructional videos. The purpose and significance of the present study will be discussed, which will evaluate the efficacy and feasibility of a flipped classroom model for English language teaching and learning.

1.1.1. The Indonesian educational system

Four key developments have occurred in the Indonesian educational system (Ilma & Pratama, 2015). They were Kurikulum Berbasis Kompetensi (KBK) or Competence-based Curriculum in 2004, Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan (KTSP) or School-based Curriculum in 2006, Kurikulum 2013 (K13) or Curriculum 2013, and the latest one were Kurikulum Merdeka Belajar or Independent Learning Curriculum in 2022. The educational system has four schooling stages in Indonesia: preschool, primary, secondary, and higher education. Indonesia's education policy includes two phases and nine years of compulsory schooling (Jones & Pratomo, 2016). While the first part (elementary school) lasts six years, the second consists of three years of instruction (junior high school). The beginning age of the first phase is seven years old. After completing primary education, students are placed in secondary schools according to their Ujian Sekolah Berstandar Nasional (USBN) or National Standard School Final Examination scores. At the end of elementary school, each school administers this exam in collaboration with the Ministry of Education and Culture. It comprises 130 multiple-choice questions on three disciplines: Bahasa Indonesia, Mathematics, and Science. English is not included in this examination for elementary school.

There are two primary categories of secondary schools: general high schools and vocational high schools. Secondary education consists of three years of classroom instruction, ranging from Grade 10 to Grade 12. Like primary school, secondary education is separated into general and elective stages. During the first year, students take general subjects like Bahasa Indonesia, English, Mathematics, Physics, Civics Education, Religious Education, and History. Depending on their interests, students choose one of several distinct study tracks and spend the next two years participating in intensive learning. There are three primary areas of academic study: the natural sciences, the social sciences, and foreign languages. The curriculum structure for secondary school is presented in Table 1.1. Due to this decision, students will reach an intersection since they cannot enrol in higher education institutions that are not linked with their chosen study streams.

Table 1.1.
Curriculum Structure in Secondary Schools in Indonesia

School Subject		**Time Allocation per Week (Hours)**		
		Grade 10	**Grade 11**	**Grade 12**
Compulsory Subjects Cluster A				
1	Religious Education	3	3	3
2	Pancasila and Civic Education	2	2	2
3	Indonesian Language and Culture	4	4	4
4	Mathematics	4	4	4
5	History of Indonesia	2	2	2
6	English	2	2	2
	Compulsory Subjects Cluster B			

1	Arts and Culture	2	2	2
2	Physical Education	3	3	3
3	Entrepreneurship	2	2	2
Total Time for Compulsory Subjects per Week		**24**	**24**	**24**
Elective Subjects (Mathematics and Natural Sciences Stream)				
1	Mathematics	3	4	4
2	Biology	3	4	4
3	Physics	3	4	4
4	Chemistry	3	4	4
Total Time for Mathematics and Natural Sciences Stream per Week		**12**	**16**	**16**
Elective Subjects (Social Sciences Stream)				
1	Geography	3	4	4
2	History	3	4	4
3	Sociology	3	4	4
4	Economics	3	4	4
Total Time for Social Sciences Stream per Week		**12**	**16**	**16**
Elective Subjects (Language and Culture Stream)				
1	Indonesian Language and Culture	3	4	4
2	English Language and Culture	3	4	4
3	Other Foreign Languages (Arab, Chinese, Korean, German, French)	3	4	4
4	Anthropology	3	4	4
Total Time for Language and Culture Stream per Week		**12**	**16**	**16**
Total Time per Week (Compulsory and Elective Subjects)		**36**	**40**	**40**

Participants in this study are currently enrolled in non-English departments. Hence, they are not graduates of the Foreign Language Stream. According to Kurikulum 2013 (K13) or Curriculum 2013, only two hours per week are allocated to English instruction in the Natural Science and Social Science streams (see Table 1.1). Before continuing further education, students must learn English to pass the National Examination by the Indonesian Ministry of Education and Culture (Table 1.2).

Access to higher education institutions is standardised and exam-based, like other levels of education. Public higher education institutions are centrally administered by Lembaga Test Masuk Perguruan Tinggi (LTMPT) or Higher Education Entrance Test Organiser based on multiple-choice tests. This test is called Seleksi Bersama Masuk Perguruan Tinggi (SBMPTN) or Joint Entrance Selection of State Universities. The test will determine whether students are qualified to be accepted as university

students. The design of these examinations is a subject of ongoing discussion in Indonesia, as a single exam influences millions of students (Ikhsan, Massie, & Kuncoro, 2019).

Table 1.2

The Structure of National Examination for Secondary Schools in Indonesia

	School Subjects		
	Mathematics and Natural Science Stream	**Social Sciences Stream**	**Language and Culture Stream**
1	Indonesian Language	Indonesian Language	Indonesian Language
2	Mathematics	Mathematics	Mathematics
3	English	English	English
4	*One Elective Subject*	*One Elective Subject*	*One Elective Subject*

On the other hand, each university may have its entrance exam format for their admission. SBMPTN or most other entrance exams in Indonesia are multiple-choice questions. For both entrance examinations in a public and private university, students for any stream must take aptitude tests, Mathematics, Science, Social Science, and English.

This overreliance on multiple-choice tests to determine a student's English proficiency level creates a gap that cannot be bridged between the test-takers' primary concern and the communicative function of language. Although this assessment method is convenient for evaluating many students simultaneously, there is some argument as to whether it accurately reflects the level of English competence of those who take the examination. This is because individuals have the potential to achieve success by establishing methods through the process of learning particular English structures, which is sufficient for determining the appropriate responses during examinations. Many students claim to have spent many years learning English but cannot speak it correctly, and their comprehension is limited (Bueno, Madrid, & Mclaren, 2006).

1.1.2. English language teaching in Indonesia

Most people living in Indonesia can speak at least two languages; Bahasa Indonesia as their *lingua franca* and the local language as their mother tongue (Setiawan, 2016). Most public and private school students also study English as their principal foreign language. Alrajafi (2021) argued that although English in Indonesia has no extensive use in society and is not used as a medium of communication in the official domain, like the education system, it is still considered the most important foreign language.

English is incorporated into the school curriculum and is formally taught from secondary school through higher education. However, from 1994 to 2012, it was considered an elective subject in primary school (Widodo, 2016). The number of times per week English is taught varies depending on the student's educational background. Sahiruddin (2013) stated that English is only an extra-curricular subject at the primary level, and as an effect, teaching English under Kurikulum 2013 (K13) is given outside of school hours. The number of lessons depends on each school, but it usually takes two to six hours per week. English classes will be at the junior high level for four hours per week. Senior high school students will receive four hours of English instruction each week in the first year. Those who take Natural Science and Social Science in their second and third years will only receive two hours of English instruction each week. Students taking a Foreign Language course will receive approximately four hours per week of English instruction. Considering that each semester lasts seventeen or eighteen weeks, these estimates indicate that a student who completes all three years of senior high school will receive around 648 hours of English instruction.

Most senior high school graduates struggle with English despite this learning time because English classes mainly deal with formalised English structures, such as grammar and lexical resources (Farhani & Binsasi, 2020). However, after students attend university and begin their studies in departments other than English, they begin to emphasise speaking and writing, among other parts of the English language. In these departments, the programme lasts for a total of four years, with each year being divided into two semesters. Moreover, as a mandatory subject, students in their first year must take English classes even if they are majoring in something other than English. Individual universities are responsible for the English design of courses taught by departments other than English, resulting in various methodologies. In this study, students who enrolled in departments other than English were mandated to take English classes during the first semester of their studies. Students who completed these English classes with passing grades did not need to repeat them. On the other hand, students who fail the course exam must retake the course the following semester.

1.1.3. Teaching speaking in Indonesia

Despite taking English classes for a considerable amount of time, many students cannot communicate effectively in English, particularly regarding the four language skills (Bueno et al., 2006). Speaking is among the most challenging language skills for students to acquire (Abrar et al., 2018). According to the Indonesian curriculum, the purpose of teaching English as a foreign language in Indonesia, particularly at the university level, is to prepare students to communicate fluently and accurately. This objective is designed to be achieved at the highest level of education (Marzuki, 2017). In the Kurikulum 2013 (K13), it is also stated that the goals of teaching English in secondary education are

to achieve a functional and informational literacy level. At the functional level, students can use the language to fulfil their daily communication needs, such as reading the newspaper or following a manual or instruction (BSNP, 2013). Students who communicate effectively will have a better chance of mastering English language abilities like productive skills, speaking and writing, and oral communication (Zaim, 2016). Developing learners' communicative skills in English's primary education curriculum is also declared the primary objective.

Despite this, the designs of the English national tests that are given in Indonesia are in direct contradiction to this method. The contradiction representing two ways of approaching the curriculum and testing contributes to the weight assigned to English classroom activities. This is because the primary goal of learners is to perform well in English examinations. Abrar et al. (2018) identified three factors causing EFL speaking class constraints in the English curriculum. The important note is that they argued that class management and teaching preparation are inadequate, and most teachers still use monotonous approaches and methods (2018).

The research conducted by Too and Saimima (2019) makes it possible to comprehend the dynamics of the activities that take place in the classroom, which examines classroom practices in Indonesian public schools. It is uncommon for teachers to develop syllabi, lesson plans, and modules for their students because students must complete the required materials by the end of the academic year to prepare for the national English examinations. This is because the topics that are assessed in English national tests are subject to change on an annual basis. Since the class concentrates on information on the national examination, it can be difficult for the students to improve their English-speaking skills. Yuliantari and Mantra (2019) argued that the students are not brave enough to speak because they lack prior knowledge about topics and have poor teacher-student relationships.

Franscy and Ramli (2022) also added that the problem Indonesian EFL learners have in developing their speaking skills is the classroom tasks given by the teachers and their vocabulary and linguistic competence. Learners can increase their intake of the target language and improve their ability to process information correctly and effectively if they receive explicit grammar instruction. This information could come from the materials or their interactions with teachers or peers (Benati, 2017). In the following sections, we will address the importance of direct interaction and instruction in grammar.

1.1.4. Indonesian higher education (HE)

Higher education is in demand in Indonesia. Euromonitor projects that the Indonesian education business will generate US$118 billion by 2025 (The Australia-Indonesia Centre, 2019). Higher education enrollment climbed from 5.2 million in 2010 to 8 million in 2018. This figure will treble by 2024, ranking third globally behind India and China (The Australia-Indonesia Centre, 2019). Indonesia's higher education system generates roughly 250,000 graduates from over 4,600 institutions and 26,000 fields of study.

Indonesia's national systems are the country's primary avenues of higher education in terms of the educational system. Most higher education institutions, both public and private, are subject to the regulation of the Ministry of Education and Culture (Kemendikbud) (The Australia-Indonesia Centre, 2019). The second is governed by the Ministry of Religious Affairs (MoRA). It includes faith-based and state-run higher education institutions with curricula of theology and other religious studies (The Australia-Indonesia Centre, 2019). The state curriculum is taught in numerous religious institutions, including those run by Muhammadiyah and the Catholic Church. Higher education centres are classified into five categories: universities, institutions, tertiary colleges, and polytechnics. All higher education institutions can award degrees from bachelor's to doctorate levels, although polytechnic masters and doctorates are 'applied' degrees (The Australia-Indonesia Centre, 2019).

Some statutes outline the government's higher education policy. Higher education is governed by Law No. 12 of 2012 (Rokhyati, 2013). Article 4 of Chapter 1 defines higher education. One is to produce original, responsive, creative, skilled, competitive, and cooperative graduates. Those goals are stated in Chapter 5. One of the objectives is to increase the number of science and technology expert graduates to fulfil national requirements and boost competitiveness (Rokhyati, 2013). Those two articles underlined the government's desire to increase national competitiveness.

Also, the national standard agency for education regulates higher education content. The higher education curriculum must include several general and specialised disciplines to enhance graduate competencies (Rokhyati, 2013). Every university student must take general subjects, such as religion, civic education, Indonesian, English, and math (Rokhyati, 2013).

The objective to improve national competitiveness aligns with making English a compulsory subject. The issue is how students study English in university. According to the content standard for higher education, teaching foreign language/English in Indonesia improves students' capacity to comprehend academic texts written in foreign language/English and their discipline-specific knowledge

(Rokhyati, 2013). However, lecturers only get two credits for that. It has been determined that students must take at least one English class during their time in higher education (BSNP, 2010). Despite this, it only counts for a weight of 2 credits. It is not enough to ensure that graduates are proficient in English. Before students can find primary ideas and recognise and develop rhetorical frames, they must understand certain linguistic aspects such as grammar, vocabulary, and discourse (Rokhyati, 2013).

1.1.5. Challenges of general English courses

In countries where English is not the native tongue, students taking English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classes frequently speak the same native language and are immersed in the same culture. EFL teachers in other countries speak English only minimally. Thus, there might not be any opportunities to use English outside of the classroom (Hibatullah, 2019). Teaching English as a second language and teaching English as a foreign language are very different (Sekhar and Chakravorty, 2017).

Because English is rarely taught in schools, it has no practical usefulness because students rarely use it outside the classroom. Students who learn English in a group that uses and speaks it are English as a Second Language (ESL) students, whereas those who do not are English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students (Sato & Storch, 2020). Due to the demography of the study, the term second language learners (L2) will be used throughout the thesis to refer to EFL students.

General English course has several challenges. These are (a) lack of exposure to the English language, (b) poor speaking abilities, and (c) the short length of the General English course. Despite students' awareness of the need for more excellent English instruction than their educational institutions provide, their exposure to English is deemed insufficient to qualify them in English (Burgos & Perez, 2015; Nduwimana, 2019; Silalahi, 2017). Studies (Arifin, 2017; Geddes, 2016; Ting et al., 2017) show that university students need to study English for communication and employment skills. However, Silalahi (2017) revealed that even after six years of schooling and two semesters of English enrichment programs, many university graduates in Indonesia lacked acceptable English competence.

This study attempts to use a flipped classroom model to boost student interaction, improve speaking performance to solve problems and help L2 students improve their proficiency.

1.1.6. The current study

This study was conducted at a private higher institution in Yogyakarta, Indonesia. The study site is a private, coeducational, Catholic university administered by the Indonesian Province of the Society of Jesus. Eight undergraduate schools with 25 departments, seven graduate programmes, one doctoral programme, one professional programme, and three certificate programmes are available at this study site. It has 10,000 students from all provinces of Indonesia and more than ten countries internationally.

The General English course is designed to facilitate the students from non-English departments so that they from different levels can develop their English proficiency and focus on spoken language use. As determined by a placement test administered at the beginning of their university studies, the student's language proficiency ranges from beginner to advanced (A1 to B1 on the Common European Framework Reference, or CEFR) levels. As English is one of the mandatory subjects in Indonesian higher education, all students from non-English departments are expected to meet the university's benchmark, B2 to C1, on the CEFR scale. This course is administered by the Language Institute of the study site, including developing course materials and assessments. The first semester of this subject is required for all non-English department students.

The current study's second language (L2) students were English as a foreign language (EFL) students. English is recognised in Indonesia as a foreign language, not a second language, and a native Bahasa Indonesia speaker taught the students in this current study.

1.2.Problem statement

English language proficiency is essential in today's globalised world, and higher education institutions face the challenge of helping their students achieve this objective. However, a range of factors such as prior experiences, attitudes towards speaking, lack of motivation, and difficulty in mastering grammatical concepts pose a significant hindrance to students' speaking skills development (Rabab'ah, 2002; Abrar et al., 2018; Zeinivand et al., 2015; Cagatay, 2015; Asakereh & Dehghannezhad, 2015; Alharbi et al., 2016). Without effective intervention, EFL students may struggle to compete globally (Susilo, 2015).

The present study aims to address these challenges by investigating the impact of the Flipped Learning approach on students' speaking skills. Flipped Learning is an instructional model that leverages technology to provide students with direct and explicit education and resources outside the classroom (Strayer, 2007; Berrett, 2012; Davies, Dean & Ball, 2013). Students can communicate and

interact with peers and teachers during class by replacing traditional lecture-based instruction with instructional videos and other learning materials (Berrett, 2012). This model can help students gain grammatical and lexical resources and promote active student participation in speaking exercises, thereby allowing them to improve their speaking skills (Davies, Dean & Ball, 2013).

Additionally, the Flipped Learning approach can foster higher-order thinking skills (HOTS) in Bloom's Taxonomy (Orey, 2010) and lower-order thinking skills (LOTS) through class interactions that replace traditional lectures (Hung, 2015). Furthermore, it allows teachers to devote more time to guiding students in improving their speaking performance and evaluating their lexical and grammatical knowledge (Berrett, 2012).

In order to address the research problem, students in a Flipped Learning environment will be assessed through pre-test and post-test questionnaires, interviews, and observations. The study's results will provide valuable insights into the impact of the Flipped Learning approach on students' speaking skills, particularly in the EFL context in Indonesia.

1.3. Significance of the study

Some researchers have previously conducted a flipped classroom model and argued that this model is sufficient for implementation. These researchers are Jafarigohar and Koshshima (2019). They examined students' perceptions of the flipped classroom concerning the development of listening skills. Zarrinabadi and Ebrahimi (2019) examined the impact of adding a flipped classroom technique on collaborative peer discourse. In addition, Shih and Huang (2019) analysed the use of flipped classrooms in the EFL context to explore college students' metacognitive strategy use. Hwang et al. (2019) also explore flipped learning in reading courses to improve student performance. Current research in specific academic subjects and levels demonstrates that the flipped classroom model benefits undergraduate education and requires further study, particularly in language skills (i.e., Abedi & Namaziandost, 2019; Ekmekci, 2017; Engin, 2014; Lin et al., 2018). Then, this study indicated that the flipped classroom model facilitated language acquisition effectively.

While the research on instructional approaches that share elements with the flipped classroom model appears transferrable to various skills and levels, the literature lacks evidence that students studying English as a foreign language at higher education institutions will see improvements in their speaking abilities due to utilising the flipped classroom model. The relationship between the flipped classroom model and the speaking abilities of EFL students in Indonesia must be examined. This study aims to explore the usefulness and practicability of the flipped classroom method for improving the speaking abilities of Indonesian EFL university students. Researchers are implementing the flipped classroom

even though a handful of studies demonstrate that flipped classes improve students' speaking abilities (i.e., Amiryousefi, 2019; Li & Suwanthep, 2017; Tazijan et al., 2016).

This study will contribute to the existing body of knowledge by expanding the application of the flipped classroom technique to non-STEM (science, technology, engineering, and mathematics) areas, such as investigating the teaching and learning of a second language (L2) speaking. This could suggest a Flipped Speaking Framework for university students with a second language. This contribution will be helpful as the need for L2 speaking instructors to instruct L2 struggling speakers increases. The conceptual framework of this study could potentially be applied to other English courses in higher education. The flipped classroom concept could be a successful method for enhancing the speaking skills of university-level L2 students.

1.4.Purpose of the study

This study uses the flipped classroom method to examine students' speaking ability in English classes. The study employs mixed-method action research with an embedded concurrent model (Ivankova, 2018). This strategy contrasts quantitative and qualitative results to get complementary evidence in various data kinds and to provide well-validated conclusions. Additionally, the study explored the relationships between the learning environment and prior English-speaking proficiency. This research may contribute to an improvement in education. It evaluates the benefits of shifting the paradigm for student achievement based on a research-based framework derived from a language-learning context.

There has been minimal empirical research on the efficacy of flipped instruction in studying foreign languages, particularly in speaking skills and Indonesian higher education. A review of the available data indicates that empirical studies investigating the impact of flipped instruction on language learners' speaking skills are insufficient. Furthermore, the growth of students' speaking skills concerning flipped instruction in university English classes has not been studied. In this perspective, the current research must reveal the impact of flipped instruction on the development of speaking abilities and language learners' attitudes towards this new instruction approach. The setting in Indonesia is considered an EFL context; flipped instruction may offer an additional opportunity for language learners to build their speaking skills.

1.5. Research questions

Students in non-English higher education departments frequently retain negative experiences from previous English language classrooms. Such encounters may generate unfavourable attitudes and apprehensions regarding English language learning, mainly speaking. The flipped classroom model

may alleviate such negative attitudes and anxieties by creating an environment conducive to language learning and retention. This investigation aims to understand the impact of flipped learning activities and flipped classroom models on Indonesian EFL students' speaking abilities and attitudes. In addition, the problems associated with implementing the flipped classroom model to enhance students' speaking skills in Indonesian higher education were highlighted. This study's overarching objective is to suggest a flipped classroom model and a set of guidelines that could address these possible issues based on teacher and student opinions of the instructional approach and the current research. The following questions guide the present investigation:

1. What is the Indonesian EFL learners' perception of their ability to speak English?
2. What challenges do Indonesian EFL learners experience while speaking in English?
3. To what extent does the flipped classroom model improve students' speaking skills?
4. What are the teachers' and students' perceptions of the flipped classroom model to improve students' speaking skills?

1.6. The organisation of the thesis

This thesis consists of seven chapters. Chapter 1 includes a thorough introduction to the study, covering the study's setting, English in higher education in Indonesia, the challenges of English courses in higher education for EFL learners in Indonesia, a definition of the problem, and the study's objectives.

Chapter 2 reviewed the literature on L2 speaking instructional approaches and flipped classrooms, as well as the theoretical frameworks such as constructivism, Bloom's Revised Taxonomy, Community of Inquiry, and output-based/input-enabled hypotheses that support flipped classrooms and are used in the General English course to enhance the learning experience.

Chapter 3 summarises the research methodology, context, and participants, as well as a detailed overview of the research processes, including data collection tools and analysis. Chapter 4 discusses the investigation's research design and hypothesis. In Chapter 5, quantitative and qualitative results are provided.

Chapter 6 discusses these findings in the context of the literature before discussing the study's implications and limitations and several conclusions and suggestions for further research in Chapter 7.

1.7.Chapter summary

This chapter comprises contextual information relevant to the study, emphasising speaking abilities in English language instruction in Indonesia. The discrepancy between educational objectives and classroom methods is explored, along with their possible causes. Moreover, a summary of the interaction hypothesis and explicit instruction from the foundation of this study are explored. This chapter also examines the challenges of teaching and learning the English language and how these challenges might be solved using the flipped learning approach and technology. The significance of the flipped classroom model in resolving the challenges is also underlined. Building on the issues presented in this chapter, the following chapter will critically analyse relevant literature and lead to the formulation of the study's particular research questions.

Chapter Two: Literature review

2.1. Introduction

This literature review aims to investigate the effectiveness of flipped classroom instruction in improving the speaking skills of ESL/EFL learners. The primary objective is to explore the relationship between the flipped classroom model and the development of English-speaking competence while also considering the role of technology in supporting language learning. The first section addresses speaking abilities and the significance of proficiency in English language acquisition, including communicative competence and proficiency-focused classroom discussion. The second section examines the importance of technology in English language teaching and learning. The utilisation of technology in the flipped classroom approach investigated in this study involves a consideration of technology's significance. The third section examines the history of the flipped classroom and summarises and evaluates contemporary research on the topic. The section will discuss the theoretical frameworks that support the flipped classroom approach and its implications for teaching and learning English as a second language.

2.2. Speaking skills

The ability to speak a language is a fundamental aspect of communication and is a critical component of language proficiency (Apriyanti & Ayu, 2020; Namaziandost & Nasri, 2019; Rao, 2019). However, research on speaking skills for ESL/EFL learners has shown significant gaps in the existing literature. Specifically, there is a lack of research on the factors that affect speaking performance, the development of speaking skills in the classroom, and the use of technology to support speaking skills. These gaps in the literature have led to the formulation of the research question and objectives.

Speaking skills relate to the reasons and purposes why people need to speak. In real communication, the conversation between two speakers is needed to have the same purposes as the nature of speaking. Furthermore, Harmer (2007) argued that people have particular reasons to speak, such as saying something, closing the information gap, complaining about something, and getting the effect or feedback after conveying the message. Without conversation with an interlocutor, the communicative purpose is not achieved and will be monotonous. Meanwhile, Bygate (2001) stated that speaking is reciprocal, communicates simultaneously in conversation, and responds immediately to interlocutors online. It involves comprehending the messages, pronouncing them, and speaking fluently to the interlocutor. The speaker has little time to correct the words or messages, while written interaction could make a draft.

There have been various definitions of speaking throughout history. Florez (1999) described speaking as a participatory process of information construction, reception, and processing. Chaney (1998), on the other hand, emphasised that speaking constructs and communicates meaning using verbal or non-verbal symbols in varied circumstances. As a result of evaluating their development based on their spoken communication accomplishments, language learners consider oral communication proficiency the essential ability they can acquire (Burkart, 1998).

Effective oral communication requires using the language effectively in social contexts, making speaking a problematic skill for second-language learners (Shumin, 1997). Mackey (1978) argued that speaking is the most challenging linguistic skill because it requires simultaneous comprehension and communication of the intended message compared to other language skills such as listening, reading and writing. According to Bygate (1996), the contrast between knowledge and skill complexity is vital for teaching speaking in speaking classes. However, learning grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and intonation is insufficient for a great speaker; studying how to communicate effectively with this information is also required. Thus, three speaking concepts can be distinguished from these definitions: speaking as an action, a process, and a skill. This study will concentrate on the third definition of "speaking" in teaching and learning a foreign language.

There are two definitions of speaking ability. According to the bottom-up methodology, speech was defined as the production of sound-related signs intended to elicit a variety of verbal responses from a listener (Moskovsky, 2014). According to the top-down methodology, speaking is characterised as a two-way process involving the accurate transmission of ideas, information, or emotions; more specifically, spoken texts are the product of collaboration between at least two interlocutors in a shared temporal and spatial-temporal context (Puspalatha, 2019). Speaking is an oral product that creates, receives, and processes information, as supported by several evaluations of prior research on speaking competence (i.e., Valadi & Baharvand, 2015; Yahay & Kheirzadeh, 2015; Zhou, 2019). Because of the importance of speaking ability, EFL learners must develop linguistic proficiency and maintain constant awareness of the linguistic features of the language to speak it naturally in a particular setting. According to Florez (1999), speaking is a process of collaborative meaning construction. The situation, the speakers, their experiences, the environment, and the conversation's purpose define its form and meaning.

Bachman (1990) claimed that organisational and pragmatic skills are the two primary components of oral communication proficiency. Textual and grammatical competence (e.g., vocabulary, morphology, and syntax) are components of organisational competence (e.g., discourse genres).

Syakur (1987) argues that speaking is difficult since it involves pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, and fluency. According to Chastain (1998), speaking synthesises background and linguistic knowledge to produce a spoken message for the intended audience. Based on these definitions, speaking competency is the learner's ability to communicate reasonably, effectively, and appropriately orally.

2.2.1. The Importance of speaking

Ideas, feelings, messages, and information can be conveyed to others through language. Harmer (1991) described speaking as one of four skills for expressing the language, involving verbal or oral production. Speaking is meaning-focused output, which uses the language productively (Nation and Newton, 2020). Thus, people can share ideas and messages with someone else, talk about strange things, exchange information, and have many opportunities to produce words sentence by sentence orally.

Furthermore, speaking is a tool for people to express and make sense of meaning through language's active use (Cameron, 2001). People know how to use the language and negotiate and evaluate the meaning. In addition, they then plan and execute the natural use of interlocutors to achieve the communicative objective of language. Moreover, communicative objectives can be completed through non-verbal language. Using all non-verbal language in speech facilitates communication and negotiation of meaning (Nasri & Namaziandost, 2019). Non-verbal can be divided into gestures, facial expressions, and body language as expressions or feedback interlocutors in real-time or face-to-face interaction.

As stated previously, speaking has been characterised by Richard and Rodgers (2001) as a part of a system for meaning expression, uses functional and communicative structure, focuses on the meaning rather than grammatical and structural features, and also allows interaction and communication as the gist of the language function. It is also in line with Hoge (2014), who stated that speaking is not a passive activity, but something that people can do in active and interactive ways. Additionally, people must communicate their ideas and feelings, connect the message and information, interact with each other, and give the interlocutor feedback.

Therefore, the significance of speaking skills for language learners is essential (Mandasari & Aminatun, 2020). It enhances communicative efficacy because teachers want students to utilise the language as fluently and accurately as feasible (Nasri & Namaziandost, 2019). Because speaking is the active use of language to convey meaning, speaking skills are prioritised in the learning process.

Widdowson (1990) believes mastery of the linguistic system is not the only valid method for communicating in a foreign language. The obstacles of contact and communication in a foreign language cannot be overcome just by linguistic structure understanding. Students do not require acquired rules and isolated phrases outside of the classroom.

However, becoming fluent in a foreign language is time-consuming and frequently complicated (Abrar et al., 2018; Herder, 2018). Thornbury (2012) notes that students can spend years studying English yet still be incapable of speaking the language. He noted that one of the primary challenges is that speaking occurs spontaneously and in real-time, allowing planning and production to overlap (Thornbury, 2008). Suppose much emphasis is placed on planning. In such a scenario, production decreases, leading to a loss of fluency. On the other hand, if the speaker focuses only on production, accuracy is likely to deteriorate, which could compromise intelligibility. Therefore, to engage the audience, the speaker must have reached planning and production efficiency (Thornbury, 2008).

It is a challenge for teachers to teach English as a foreign language in a manner that improves learners' active participation and speaking skills. Oral communication and efficient target language use are of utmost importance, so learners who cannot speak a foreign language fluently cannot be considered active users. Since speaking is the most basic form of human communication, Murcia (2001) believes that the capacity to speak a language is synonymous with understanding it for most individuals.

Learners could affect their listeners through speaking by expressing and demonstrating their social views and by fostering social cohesion. Therefore, speaking is significant in and out of the classroom (Akhter et al., 2020). It is a method that increases career opportunities for foreign language speakers. It is also the capability that enables people to be colleagues or to remove themselves from others. According to Baker and Westrup (2003), students who speak English fluently may have more significant opportunities for further study, employment, and promotion.

2.2.2. Challenges for ESL/EFL speakers

Most English as a Second Language (ESL)/ English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students struggle with classroom speaking (Ghafar & Amin, 2022; Günes & Sarigöz, 2021; Vo, 2022). The primary issue is inhibition. Learning English in a foreign language environment might result in fewer possibilities to utilise English in social settings (Ur, 2009). Students are concerned about making pronunciation and grammar errors in English. The teacher corrects in front of his or her peers. Therefore, individuals are embarrassed or lose face due to the feedback. Students sometimes hesitate to explore their English because they lack an interlocutor with whom to practise. They pay attention

to the structure pattern when presenting or performing in front of the class (Ansari, 2015; Ariyanti, 2016; Tercan and Dikilitaş, 2015). The teacher can address these problems by fostering a stress-free, friendly, safe, and cooperative school atmosphere (Nation, 2009).

In addition to inhibition, some students do not know what to say during classroom speaking practice (Ur, 2009). They do not comprehend the material being taught or do not know how to pronounce the words. The use of sophisticated vocabulary is one of the obstacles for them to formulate their opinion or relevant comments. Students have negative beliefs in a traditional speaking classroom, such as memorising grammar rules and taking tests (Kang, 2017). Besides, they do not say anything they want because English is unattractive. To overcome this problem, the teacher can maintain interest in English through various activities (Nation, 2009). Students are motivated and interested in responding to the topics, for example. Tipmontree and Tasanameelarp (2018) employed role-playing simulations to enhance EFL students' Business English oral communication. Students were required to do role-playing simulations according to the course scenario. The outcome demonstrated that the instructional strategy enhances students' oral communication skills.

The next factor is the low or uneven participation of the students (Riadil, 2020). When the students can speak with other students, particularly in group discussions, some students tend to dominate. In contrast, others speak very little (Nisa, 2014). The active speaker of students has the initial motive to practice their English fluency. The middle students or low participants do not want to say anything before the active students ask or give them opportunities to speak up.

Furthermore, passive students stay silent until the discussion (Sari, 2018; Dalaf, 2019). This situation is caused because students' differentiation of background knowledge and input is significant in a foreign language classroom. It can be solved by providing plenty of comprehensible input (Nation, 2009). According to Krashen (1985), intelligible information resembles spoken language and is slightly ahead of a learner's present grammatical knowledge level. Hence the students can participate in peer or group discussions because they have similar background knowledge that they have learned related to the topic.

Besides, speaking ability in a group sometimes frustrates students' engagement in the target language. It is challenging for a foreign language learner to encourage students to speak in the target language. Moreover, some students in the class sometimes feel reluctant to speak English because of a lack of encouragement (Howe and Strauss, 2007). Students prefer to use their language to comprehend information without consideration for rules. It can be solved by focusing on meaningful

and relevant language when asked to speak English (Nation, 2009).

2.2.3. Proficiency-oriented classroom

According to Harley et al. (1990), proficiency is having grammar knowledge and knowing how and when to use speech appropriately. The concept of proficiency was initially coined "communicative competence" by Dell Hymes in the mid-1960s (Cazden, 2011). Harley et al. (1990) distinguished communicative competence as grammatical, sociolinguistic, and strategic. To make the concept of communicative competence relevant to classroom teaching and learning, Savignon (2007) suggested four additional components: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence.

These communication elements are associated with the language's actual use or competency, which concerns what students can do in the real world (Savignon, 2007). Thus, communicative competence posits that proficiency requires more than the sum of disconnected knowledge and skills but demands grammar knowledge and language skills balanced with the opportunity to use the language (Heilenman & Kaplan, 1985). Consequently, a proficiency-oriented instructional curriculum should incorporate language practice and learning the language rules.

Language classrooms utilising instructional approaches to foster language proficiency are defined as proficiency-oriented classrooms. Hadley (2001) mentioned five essential characteristics of a proficiency-oriented classroom. First, there should be sufficient opportunities to practice using the language in various contexts. Rather than arranged exercises that mainly focused on language forms and recommended answers, small-group and paired communicative activities are recommended. Second, opportunities should be provided for students to practice various tasks that will likely be encountered in dealing with others.

These tasks include expressing and exchanging opinions and conveying one's needs in survival situations. While some operational practices are directed at advanced-level learners, well-planned methodologies can help novice students develop skills to cope with real-world communication needs (Derakhshan et al., 2016). Third, form-focused grammar instruction and direct and indirect corrective feedback will progress language skills toward accurate and coherent language use (Farshi and Baghbani, 2015). Fourth, classroom activities should be planned to address students' individual needs and preferences in language learning. Hadley (2001) also proposes considering affective elements such as motivation and anxiety and utilising technology to create an accommodating, comfortable, and supportive study environment. Finally, cultural aspects are essential in a proficiency-oriented

classroom, promoting cross-cultural understanding (Al-Wossabi, 2016).

Technology is necessary to facilitate learning and improve these language classrooms' instructional approaches (Asad et al., 2021; Biletska et al., 2021; Poláková & Klímová, 2019). Technology can assist learners in improving their reading and writing skills, vocabulary, and verbal language development. The setting of technology in language schools is now much more multimodal, and students have greater latitude to build their language skills via digital forms (Blake, 2016). Regarding language proficiency, speaking tasks will now involve listening and writing as the students produce videos and post them online. Listening tasks will include reading the caption, and writing will involve chatting, collaborating, and developing the learners' cultural and language proficiency (Blake, 2016).

The typical proficiency-oriented classroom requires student-centred and context-driven learning activities and formal grammar instruction. The student-centred activities promote engagement in real-world-like experiences, while formal grammar instruction helps develop language accuracy (Alsowat, 2016; Ling, 2015). Also, the technology-mediated learning environment can enhance language instruction in the classroom and support the learning process. These factors enable students to develop proficiency in a friendly and motivating environment.

2.2.4 The importance of English-speaking competence

Speaking is a fundamental skill in English that students must learn. To gain this skill, students require more than grammatical and semantic knowledge. Students must collaborate on these two difficulties and the contextual application of language (Mahripah, 2014). Speaking is more than just opening one's mouth and uttering words and sentences; it integrates the cultural context of a target language (McKay, 2008). Speaking is a productive talent necessary for classroom success (Richard, 2008). Students must struggle to speak fluently. Many teachers use group presentations, peer-to-peer conversations, and issue-based debates to help students practice speaking (Hidayat & Herawati, 2012).

Understanding how a person speaks a language affects EFL students' ability to build excellent English-speaking skills. In particular, for Indonesian students already fluent in a language other than their mother tongue, English presents more challenges than a mother tongue (Chand, 2021). Because it is so common in conversation, students have difficulty understanding it (Fauzan, 2016). In Indonesia, English is taught from elementary school through university, showing that students have studied the language for years (Zein et al., 2020). This attitude explains why Indonesian students have a poor mastery of spoken English.

Cognitive or psychological issues may affect EFL students' speaking difficulties (Malik, Qin, & Oteir, 2021). If students with strong cognitive capacity have trouble speaking, motivation, self-esteem, and anxiety may affect their oral performance (Aouatef, 2015). Students commonly suffer from anxiety, nervousness, low confidence, and a lack of motivation when required to speak in front of their classmates (Juhana, 2012). The teacher's lack of speaking opportunities and direct corrections creates students' shyness, anxiety, and fear of making mistakes (Fauzan, 2014). Another view notes that psychological or personality elements like self-esteem, anxiety, and motivation are crucial to language learning success (Brown, 1994).

Many experts say psychological variables negatively affect students' speech the most (Bourezzane, 2014). Psychological variables can hinder students' English-speaking skills (Haidara, 2014). Putri (2014) studied the relationship between anxiety and student speaking performance. Her study revealed that low anxiety scores correlate positively with students' speaking performance, while high anxiety scores correlate negatively. This finding confirms that psychological issues can negatively affect students' oral performance. In this study, the researcher seeks to determine which psychological factors inhibit students' oral performance and speaking skills.

Furthermore, English is a language many people speak worldwide since it impacts education, tourism, and economics (Rao, 2019). Around 380 million people worldwide whose native language is English, and 300 million speak English as a second language (Mahu, 2012). The value of knowing English is in written form and how it may be applied in daily life since it is a global language (Lathifah, 2015). Ingram & Sasaki (2003) argue that mastering English may help people communicate with people from various nations; hence, English is a vital talent to learn and develop.

Speaking is a skill English learners must master (Mustafa, 2015) for various reasons. Speaking helps students grasp teacher-taught topics and is their primary source for learning a language (Al Hosni, 2014). If a student has good speaking skills, society assumes he has mastered a language (Mahripah, 2014). It becomes an indicator of students' linguistic proficiency.

EFL students have never found speaking English simple (Islam, Ahmad, & Islam, 2022). Speaking requires interpersonal skills to express feelings, thoughts, and judgments about life (Mahripah, 2014). Many EFL students find it challenging to speak English even after years of schooling (Alonso, 2012). This occurs with Indonesian English students. They have studied English in elementary, junior, and senior high school for six years, but their speaking abilities are lacking.

Given the importance of English speaking, students should focus on language elements, especially English. Hemerka (2009) identifies three key components that students must master to speak English well:

a. Structural view

According to the structural view, a language's structural elements closely relate to how meaning is communicated. This element also addresses how a language becomes accepted so that others can understand a speaker's pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary.

b. Functional view

Language is discussed concerning its communicative use. In this scenario, the structural view is still tied to the functional view, as language, including a structural element, must be able to modify the speaker's intended meaning or fulfil the role of a language function.

c. Relating forms to meanings

A teacher must balance the percentage of language teaching between structural and functional views. A complication will develop if the teacher believes that the student's capacity to speak spontaneously will emerge after he has taught them numerous grammatical items. Due to the grammatical rules, the students would speak awkwardly, consult dictionaries for every word, and develop a fear of making errors.

2.2.5. Affective factors in speaking

Many researchers have studied the affective aspects of English oral communication (Fathi & Derakhshan, 2019; Hu, 2022; Zrekat & Al-Sohbani, 2022). They investigated students' attitudes, barriers, and difficulties with English oral communication. Students mostly correspond to affective factors such as motivation, personality, self-esteem/anxiety, cross-cultural awareness, and external factors (Guo & Wang, 2013). The affective factors encountered by L2 learners in oral communication negatively affect the students' speaking performance, such as boredom, anxiety, hopelessness, inhibition, and low self-confidence (Zhu, Biyi, & Zhou, 2012).

2.2.5.1 Motivation

According to Dornyei and Ushioda's definition, motivation drives humans to engage in certain actions or behaviours, even when those actions or behaviours are difficult or costly (2011). Students that have an interest in learning the target language will succeed. Extrinsic and intrinsic forms of motivation

were distinguished by Harmer (2007). Reward and punishment are extrinsic variables that have a role in language acquisition (Bao & Liu, 2021). Individualism is at the heart of intrinsic motivation. Students are motivated to learn because they enjoy learning or want to feel better. Intrinsic motivation is essential for achievement; students learn best when they like acquiring new knowledge. When intrinsic motivation is high, students persevere even when faced with language learning difficulties.

Personality, experiences, and motives can affect human behaviour (Dörnyei, 1998). Classroom interaction typically reveals student differences. Some students are active and talkative; others are passive and uninterested. Harmer (2007) said that in language acquisition, motivation comes from four sources: the culture we live in, our significant others, the teacher, and the teaching approach. When these components are met, it motivates students to learn.

Walker (2011) studied the motivation of Asian high school students to acquire language. In his work, he connected unmotivated students and poor teaching. He believed that a teacher's effectiveness might influence their students' motivation. Dornyei (1998) outlined the influence that motivation has on language acquisition. In the second part of his book, Dornyei talked about many ways to motivate students to get started and keep them going. Aydin (2012) studied how teachers lose motivation as part of his research on motivation in language acquisition.

2.2.5.2 Self-regulation and self-efficacy

Self-directed learning (Morris, 2019; Sumuer, 2018), self-regulated learning (Adi Badiozaman et al., 2020; Alghamdi et al., 2020; Wong et al., 2019), and online learning self-efficacy are all factors that relate to persistence in a virtual learning environment (Carter et al., 2020; Geng et al., 2019). Self-regulated learning is the extent to which a student takes an active role in their learning, experimenting with various strategies to help them achieve those goals, engaging in activities that involve self-monitoring and self-evaluation, and managing their time effectively (Zimmerman, 2002). Self-directed students also have an active role in their education by establishing and self-evaluating learning objectives. Additionally, the student is responsible for independently initiating courses, identifying their own learning needs, and determining the resources essential to achieve their goals if they are considered self-directed students (Knowles, 1975).

In the same way, as self-regulation is a process, so is self-direction. However, these two similar concepts can be separated. Several researchers have noticed that for students to be self-directed and successful in achieving their goals, they must display effective self-regulation (Hawkins, 2018). Therefore, students need to learn how to self-regulate before becoming self-directed (Jossberger et

al., 2010). In conclusion, a self-directed student must be able to self-regulate; conversely, a self-regulated student cannot be self-directed.

Self-regulatory tasks are crucial because they motivate students to accomplish learning and performance objectives (Matric, 2018; Shih, 2019). Goal-oriented activities encourage the development of self-regulation abilities such as goal setting and planning (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2011). These skills can be information processing, practising, linking new learning to past knowledge and creating constructive social and professional situations (Zimmerman, 2002). Students that have mastered self-regulation skills participate actively and constructively in their learning process (Zarouk et al., 2020). They can then define learning objectives and monitor and manage their cognition, motivation, and behaviour concerning their learning environment (Anthonysamy et al., 2020; Zhu et al., 2020).

Self-efficacy is connected to the notion of self-regulation. This might be characterised as the individual's idea that he or she can acquire knowledge and perform tasks at predetermined levels (Bandura et al., 1999). Strong self-efficacy encourages skill development, motivating students to engage in projects, work more, and persist more, particularly when meeting challenges (Bucura, 2019; Duchatelet & Donche, 2019; Lin et al., 2021). Students with solid self-efficacy explicitly self-regulate by establishing their goals, monitoring their learning, and assessing their success. According to previous studies, a student's self-efficacy is essential for effective self-regulation to study and perform successfully (Doo & Bonk, 2020; Müller & Seufert, 2018; Stephen & Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2021). Consequently, self-regulation and self-efficacy skills help students to recognise their requirements and develop accordingly.

Accurate evaluation of self-efficacy constructs is essential for the reliability of self-efficacy research. In Bandura et al.'s (1999) social cognitive theory of human agency, self-efficacy reflects internal personal beliefs that interact bidirectionally with behavioural and environmental variables. Self-efficacy is an intrapersonal motivational variable that captures the essential components of human agency. A particular person's views that they contribute to their outcomes but are not the only determinants.

Bandura's conception of self-efficacy is characterised by: (a) ideas about future behaviour, not previous performance; (b) views about capabilities, not outcome expectations; and (c) domain specificity, not an evaluation of generalised attributes (Artino, 2012). Other concepts are conceptually comparable to self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is significantly different from confidence, for instance.

Although researchers occasionally interchange the two terms, confidence is more of a catchphrase than a theoretically grounded construct (Bandura et al., 1999). Self-confidence has been the research focus but on a somewhat weak conceptual basis. Self-confidence reflects belief strength but not the object or specific domain of that belief. Self-efficacy research has the benefit of building upon a solid theoretical foundation, which provides a more profound knowledge of human agency.

Other concepts, including self-concept, self-esteem, and locus of control, are distinct from self-efficacy. Self-efficacy can be measured independently of these concepts (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2020). On the other hand, self-efficacy beliefs are judgements of capabilities that are goal-oriented, context-specific, and future-oriented, and they shift depending on the activity being performed (Bandura, 2001). The term "self-efficacy" relates to a person's ideas of their capabilities, not an evaluation of their previous successes or judgements about the outcomes that they anticipate will result from having high self-efficacy (Bandura, 2006). Measures of self-efficacy generally include phrases reflecting an appraisal of competence, such as can and confident, as in the following example: "I am confident that I can tackle this problem." In conclusion, self-efficacy is not a generalised attribute of self-confidence that does not identify a particular task or area; it is task- and domain-specific (Bandura, 2006). Accurate self-efficacy scales involve attention to specific domains of functioning rather than general well-being since people's levels of efficacy vary across the various aspects of functioning with which they are tasked (Bandura, 2012).

Heyde (1977) observed a positive correlation between oral production and global, situational, and task self-esteem, with task self-esteem having the most significant correlation. If a learner has a low opinion of themselves, it can be difficult for them to pick up English as a second language. A lack of self-esteem can harm one's self-confidence and willingness to learn. Heyde (1977) concluded that American students learning French as a foreign language benefited from higher global, situational, and task self-esteem. The term "self-esteem" is both familiar and used in psychology. It is the extent to which an individual approves of themselves, appreciates, or enjoys themselves (Blascovich & Tomaka, 1991).

Self-esteem is the evaluative aspect of self-concept and comprises cognitive and behavioural aspects (Blascovich & Tomaka, 1991). While the term is most frequently used to refer to a generalised sense of self-worth, more specific ideas, such as self-confidence and body esteem, point to aspects of self-esteem that are present in more narrowly focused areas. It is also believed that one's self-esteem is a trait that remains constant over time. Self-esteem is a widespread psychological construct associated with personality, behaviour, cognitive processes, and therapy difficulties. Self-esteem is an

individual's subjective judgement of their worth, as demonstrated by their attitudes towards themselves. The individual's judgement and upkeep constitute the individual's self-esteem; It expresses acceptance or disapproval and reveals the extent to which the individual views himself as capable, significant, successful, and worthy (Coopersmith, 2007).

2.2.5.3 Anxiety

In the early stages of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research, cognitive qualities such as intelligence, language ability, and learning styles were highlighted. After Gardner and Lambert (1959), the significance of affective and emotional elements in SLA increased (Chakrabati et al., 2012). Affective characteristics are individual qualities that are emotionally related and impact response (Gardener and MacIntyre, 1992). More study was conducted in the field of SLA theory after Krashen (1985) proposed the affective filter hypothesis in the field. The affective filter hypothesis analyses characteristics that impede language acquisition. Krashen covers motivation, confidence, and anxiousness. Krashen maintains that second-language learners need comprehensible input and low affective filters (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). Affective elements are crucial in second-language acquisition. L2 learners may not employ comprehensible input without a "mental block." When the student is unmotivated to acquire the language, lacks confidence, or is afraid of failing, the affective filter becomes a barrier to language acquisition. The filter is less sensitive when the student is not worried or attempting to interact with the language (Du, 2009).

Horwitz et al. (1986) defined anxiety about learning a foreign language as a complex combination of self-perception, beliefs, attitudes, and behaviours associated with classroom language teaching and learning. No other field integrates self-perception and self-expression as closely as education (Horwitz et al., 1986). This topic distinguishes between distinct types of anxiety associated with learning a foreign language. People with general anxiety may be more susceptible to developing Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA). In contrast, individuals skilled in general themes may have more trouble learning a foreign language. When attempting to communicate in a second language, even those fluent in their first language frequently report feeling awkward. On the other hand, those who study a second language are more likely to be concerned that their sense of identity would be questioned (Horwitz et al., 1986).

According to Horwitz et al. (1986), FLA can be linked to difficulties with communication understanding, the fear of receiving an unfavourable evaluation, and exam anxiety. Students with communication comprehension issues may struggle to communicate and listen in a second or foreign language. People with high communication anxiety avoid it whenever feasible. Introverted, reserved

persons are quieter and less communicative. Students who fear unfavourable evaluation do not embrace linguistic blunders as part of learning but as a threat. Thus, they stay quiet and do not participate in class.

Liu and Jackson (2008) studied English language classes to assess Chinese students' reluctance to communicate and anxiety when learning English as a foreign language (EFL). They concluded that (a) most students were willing to participate in interpersonal conversations; however, many prefer not to take the risk of using/speaking English in class, and (b) more than a third of students felt anxious and feared being evaluated negatively in their English language classrooms.

Socially nervous people fear humiliating themselves in public. It has been argued that language anxiety may be a cultural syndrome (Jones, 2001). Language anxiety is not a mental condition; instead, it is one component of a syndrome that is comprised of a group of characteristics that are culturally different. It can range from moderate to severe, as with various physiological, psychological, and social diseases. In other words, linguistic and cultural differences can hamper an ESL learner's ability to make successful situational assessments. Fear of unfavourable appraisal, test anxiety, communication apprehension, and identity can affect self-efficacy and expectancy-value theory. Anxiety influences are not isolated. English language anxiety is social anxiety based on social interactions. Therefore, its socio-constructivist implications must be explored (Pappamihiel, 2002).

2.2.5.4 Inhibition

Fitriati and Jannah (2016) state that students' initial problem is "inhibition." Speaking requires real-time audience exposure, unlike reading, writing, and listening. Students are often constrained when speaking a foreign language in class. They fear making mistakes, criticism, and public attention. A foreign language classroom might cause inhibitions and anxiety, according to Fitriati and Jannah (2016).

EFL students' inhibition hinders their personality development. Varghese (2015) found that in Kerala, India, the English medium of instruction is often neglected, and Malayalam is used instead. The Collegiate Education Department, the Government of Kerala's primary goal is to provide high-quality higher education to eligible students. To learn spoken English, exposure is needed. As the saying goes, practice makes perfect. Fear of speaking English can develop into contempt for the language. Without speaking English, we cannot learn the spoken form. English exposure can diminish English-speaking inhibitions. In Kerala, university students prefer Malayalam to English. If their peers speak English, they mock them. Varghese (2015) describes the superego as a person's psyche related to

right and wrong and guilt. In colleges, when classmates mock their friends for speaking English, the speaker feels they are going against the norms of their classmates, even though the medium of education is English, and it can positively impact their life. The fear of peers or friends develops guilt in the speaker's mind, and the superego, a moralizing agent, develops inhibition in the students' minds.

2.2.6 Speaking and active vocabulary

Vocabularies are the essential components of communication that need to be acquired by English language learners (Alqahtani, 2015). This is because individuals with limited vocabularies cannot effectively articulate their thoughts and ideas. It has become a significant obstacle when communicating or interacting with others if they have a restricted vocabulary (Sari, 2021). Learning a foreign language comes from a basic understanding of that language's vocabulary. On the other hand, when people talk about how well they speak English, they frequently mean how well they can carry on a conversation. One needs at least a passing familiarity with the vocabulary used in the discourse to participate (Koizumi, 2012).

When studying a foreign language, one of the most crucial aspects is expanding one's vocabulary. Anyone with a small vocabulary will also have a restricted understanding of speaking, reading, listening, and writing. It is a fact that it is challenging, if not impossible, to learn a language without first becoming proficient in its vocabulary. One of the challenges that English language students face is acquiring a sufficient vocabulary (Mahmudah, 2014). Learners are unable to communicate with others understandably due to their restricted vocabulary. There are instances when it is challenging to categorise the ideas communicated to them. The student's abilities to read, speak, listen, and write can all be improved by acquiring a greater variety of vocabulary (Nagy & Herman, 2014). Students can make their schoolwork easier and more gratifying by developing their vocabulary and improving their ability to use words correctly and efficiently. Additionally, many examinations students take in school include questions assessing their vocabulary. Their chances of doing well on an English test increase proportionately to the number of vocabularies they know (Mahmudah, 2014).

Two vocabulary categories can be distinguished based on high-frequency and low-frequency (Nation, 1994). High-frequency vocabulary is more common than low-frequency vocabulary. Words used frequently in everyday language, across all four skills, and in various contexts make up what is known as high-frequency vocabulary. The high-frequency vocabulary is made up of word families that contain 2,000 different terms. These word families account for approximately 87% of the running

words found in standard written text and more than 95% of the words found in informal spoken language (Nation, 1994).

On the other hand, low-frequency vocabulary includes only a tiny proportion of the running words of a continuous text. This indicates that low-frequency vocabulary is not frequently utilised in everyday English activities. This category contains over a hundred-thousand-word family (Nation, 1994).

Words used in spoken and written communication are included in an active vocabulary (Laufer, 1998). The creative and productive use of words is referred to as active vocabulary. It comprises the words a person may employ with assurance due to their familiarity with their meanings and appropriate applications. The students' working vocabularies need to have new words introduced to them consistently to achieve the goal of fluency in both spoken and written language. Active language vocabulary includes using the proper word in the right place, spontaneous memory of words, grammatical precision, fluency, and the capacity to recreate accurate sounds, pronunciation, intonation, and rhythm in speech (Richards, 2008). Active vocabulary in a language involves using the appropriate term in the appropriate context, spontaneous recollection of words, and grammatical precision.

In conclusion, active vocabulary refers to words and phrases a student can effectively utilise when speaking. It is also a productive vocabulary, even though it is more challenging to implement (Aebersold & Field, 1997). This challenge means that for students to use productive vocabulary, they need to know how to pronounce the words correctly, be familiar with collocation, and understand the connotation meaning of the words. This type is frequently employed in the development of speaking skills.

2.2.7 Speaking and classroom participation

According to Ur (1997), one essential aspect of teaching a language is developing activities for the classroom that encourage students to find unique ways to express themselves. Ur (1997) emphasised the importance of being prepared with the subject- and activity-based activities when speaking in front of a class. A task is goal-oriented; its primary purpose is to accomplish an objective, typically portrayed as a visible result of the participants' interaction. A task can be made more interesting by using a visual aid to help speak. In this way, topics should be relevant to the learners' experiences and knowledge and represent a genuine debate to promote conversation within the group (Correa et al., 2017).

A certain level of fluency in the target language is required for learners to actively participate in the learning process and have natural conversations with their teachers or classmates. Not all students have reached this level of proficiency. Therefore, Oxford (1997) developed language learning techniques when prompted to provide options to students with difficulty increasing their English proficiency. According to Oxford, (1997), learning strategies are the activities learners engage in to achieve a goal, and the strategies focus on completing tasks.

According to Warayet (2011), participation is the process by which students engage in spoken or non-verbal interactions with one another. Students can take part in class discussions and idea exchanges verbally. On the other hand, students can participate in a sort of classroom involvement that does not require verbal expression by employing a variety of indications of embodied behaviours such as smiling or nodding. According to Warayet (2011), classroom involvement can occur in various ways depending on the structure of the student relationship. The learning outcome produced from engagement in pairs and groups is significant. This significance occurred because group work helps minimise anxiety and encourages participation. Ur (1997) also discusses a few more interactions, mainly focusing on two: active and receptive interaction. The first activity requires students to talk or write, while the second requires listening or reading.

Learners' oral or written responses to activities, concentration level, and contributions to classroom discourse indicate student engagement. Learners' level of participation can also be determined by other indications, such as whether they are paying attention, smiling, and raising their hands in response to a question posed by the instructor. Students, for instance, participate in speaking sessions by offering responses, asking questions, or contributing to debates. Ellis (1994) examines the phenomenon of participation from the perspectives of both the quantity and the quality of the involvement. On the other hand, situations in which the teacher had control appeared to produce single-word utterances, short phrases, and formulaic chunks of language. Furthermore, the disparities in the quality of the learners' participation depended on the activities they took part.

Nation (1997) presents several methods to encourage engagement and the usage of the target language in the classroom. According to Nation (1997), teachers must ensure that the work requirements are commensurate with the learner's level of competency. Because the influence of the mother tongue can be pretty intense, and because there are few opportunities to practise the target language, he also mentioned changing the circumstances of the task. Some students might find participation discouraging because there are few opportunities to practise the target language. It is possible that the content of the assignment needs to be altered in some way so the students can understand it (Correa et al., 2017).

Another factor that could prevent students from participating in their feelings of anxiety. In this light, Nation (1997) suggests that students of English adopt realistic language learning expectations. Learners must be aware of the possibility that English will be of assistance to them and that they will have feelings of insecurity regarding their performance in the language they are learning. Thus, class participation is the student's active engagement in the learning process. This definition will consider not only the students' contributions to the class objective and topic but also the students' interactions with one another and some of the agents involved in the student's educational process.

Much research has been done on how motivation and attitude influence acquiring a foreign language. According to Lightbown and Spada (1999), the term "motivation" refers to the communicative demands of the learner as well as their attitude towards the community of speakers of the foreign language. Motivation significantly influences language learning goals in general; however, it is not yet clear how much or to what extent motivation accounts for students' participation in oral activities. Because of this, students will participate in oral activities with greater vigour to the extent that they are motivated.

There is no question that the levels of the students in a class do not correspond to one another. There are two different tiers of linguistic competence: the most fundamental interpersonal communication skills and the academic, cognitive language proficiency. Basic interpersonal communicative skills entail using natural and casual language when conversing with others. Students apply their fundamental interpersonal communication abilities when they converse about everyday topics in concrete scenarios. The context provides cues that make comprehension not entirely dependent on verbal contact alone (Cummins, 2007). According to Harmer (2001), when students in a class have varying levels of language proficiency, it can be challenging for teachers to select an appropriate method of instruction, language, and activities for their students. This situation can be actual in terms of the methods and the activities.

Additionally, he indicates that there are a variety of strategies and activities, some of which are suited for some students but less for others. The student's pronunciation of the foreign language is yet another aspect connected to their level of language that has the potential to impede their involvement in activities that require them to speak. Most students studying English have issues with their pronunciation, making it challenging to speak effectively in the language they are learning.

2.2.8 Speaking and classroom interaction

Some students may find it challenging to learn speaking skills. This event may have occurred because the activities conducted in the classroom were uninteresting to students. In addition, students are not

given opportunities to speak. Most of the time, rather than giving students opportunities to practise the target language, the teacher merely repeats explanations (Rao, 2019). As a result, the students feel disinclined to talk in class, and the ultimate objective of learning English cannot be attained. There are many reasons why students cannot speak English proficiently. One of the difficulties stems from their interlocutors. As Nunan (1991) explains, determining the so-called interlocutor effect complicates the difficulty of a speaking assignment. Harmer (2007) added that the class composition, the topic, the work arrangement, and the students' reluctance could all become obstacles while teaching speaking.

In order to improve their speaking skills, both the teacher and the students must engage in authentic classroom discussions. Several methods could be utilised to make this condition a reality. Increasing the interaction between teachers and students or among students is one method. However, interaction among students is more crucial. As Nunan (1991:51) states, learning to speak in a second or foreign language is facilitated when students actively engage in communication. Therefore, it is the teacher's responsibility to develop a classroom activity that fosters genuine student interaction.

Despite having several opportunities to learn English, students have not met the learning objectives. Studies found that many senior high school English teachers cannot speak English. University graduates' English proficiency is also low. Senior high school students English skills are still poor (Poedjiastutie et al., 2018; Wulandari et al., 2022). Another study found that instructor discussion dominates students' classroom engagement and impairs their learning (Abou-Khalil, 2021). Even in basic sentences, students are afraid to speak English. They hesitate and fear making mistakes when speaking in English (Gistituati et al., 2019). Hasrina et al. (2018) discovered that classroom instruction was mainly in Bahasa Indonesia, making English challenging. In foreign language teaching, teacher speaking dominates students' classroom interaction, not giving them enough practice (Nasir et al., 2019)).

School administrators and English language teachers should examine the significance of including optimal and meaningful classroom interaction in teaching and learning to address these issues. It takes the collaboration of two or more students to achieve communication. Interaction is a means of learning in general and language development. Interaction in the classroom emphasises the efficiency of student participation in discussion, enhancing their capacity to speak (Vurdien, 2019). EFL teachers must be able to pay more attention to classroom interaction for students to develop speaking skills.

Interaction is vital for the acquisition of a second language. Long (1996) claims in his interaction hypothesis that feedback from meaning negotiation is crucial in second language acquisition. Moreover, according to Swain and Lapkin's (1998) output hypothesis, learners need opportunities for output engagement to build and practise using the target language. As a result, it is not sufficient to provide input when teaching a second language; instead, it is vital to encourage students to practise making utterances in the target language. Oga-Baldwin (2019) described classroom engagement as acting upon each other. It implies the interaction between two individuals with a reciprocal relationship. In addition, Tan et al. (2019) described classroom interaction as a two-way relationship in which the teacher provides students with feedback and vice versa.

The teacher and students' interactions in classroom speaking activities create several patterns. The students see classroom engagement as a collection of elements that can be categorised and arranged into patterns. Thomas (1987) categorised interaction patterns as a teacher-whole class, teacher-individual student, student-teacher, and student-student. The instructor creates the first teacher-whole class interaction pattern to engage students. Second, the teacher-individual student pattern involves a teacher telling or asking a question and students reacting by answering, discussing, reflecting, or doing the instructor's prescribed work. The third type of student-teacher contact requires the teacher to convey information, and students may ask questions if they do not understand. The last student-student peer work activity showed this pattern (Arisandi, 2018). Interaction between peers is frequently considered the fundamental participant structure for communication. Recent years have seen more studies conducted on the consequences of peer interaction. This phenomenon is mainly because peer interaction is likely the most common in many proficiency-oriented classrooms (Loewen & Sato, 2018).

Several factors contribute to the decreased amount of interaction. Repetitive questions, a lack of language proficiency, and restricting the class to the textbook were some noted characteristics that contributed to decreased interaction (Congmin, 2016; Sundari, 2017; Tuan & Nhu, 2010). When a question is repeated multiple times, students lose interest in it. It gets tedious, diminishing students' desire to continue participating in the classroom. Also, communication ceases when a low-proficiency student does not react to an enquiry posed by a teacher (McNeil, 2012). Thus, it upsets the teacher and turns to another student to communicate. Furthermore, it has been noticed that when classwork is only done from a textbook, there is no room for students to negotiate the meaning of what they are learning when they are doing the structural-formalistic tasks in the book (Shomoossi, 2004). However, when there was, for example, a warm-up discussion at the beginning of sessions, students were more likely to initiate conversations and speak.

2.3. Teaching speaking and technology

Effective teaching of speaking skills requires appropriate teaching methods and technologies that can support the development of oral communication skills. However, there is a lack of research on the effectiveness of different teaching approaches for speaking skills, particularly in the context of ESL/EFL learners. Moreover, there is a gap in the literature on technology to support the development of speaking skills in the classroom. These gaps in the literature have led to the formulation of the research question and objectives.

2.3.1. Computer-assisted language learning

According to Warschauer and Healey (1998), computer-assisted language learning, abbreviated as CALL, is an approach to teaching and learning foreign languages. The topic that has to be studied can be presented, reinforced, and evaluated with the help of computers and computer-based resources, such as the internet. A computer is a critical tool for teaching and learning activities, as indicated by the definition of CALL (Computer-Assisted Collaborative Learning). Learning a language with the assistance of a computer, often known as computer-assisted language learning or CALL, is a form of education conducted entirely on a computer and combines two crucial components: learning in both directions and individualised instruction (Delbio & Ilankumaran, 2018). The use of CALL lays more of a focus on learning than it does on instruction. The process itself serves as a student-centred learning tool that encourages independent study.

The Internet's interactive aspect affects how language can be used realistically. According to Warschauer and Healey (1998), students can develop synchronous (real-time) and asynchronous (delayed-time) connections with other ESL students via the Internet. Asynchronous communication is communication that occurs at a different time from real-time communication. The Internet, which can connect people worldwide, has also been investigated for its potential to assist in developing abilities in individuals learning a second language (Davis, 2006).

CALL (Computer-Assisted Language Learning) resources are deployed in the classroom to make language learning more accessible. Computer-assisted language learning (CALL) is a terminology that has also been referred to as technology-enhanced language learning (TELL), computer-assisted language instruction (CALI), and computer-aided instruction (CAI). However, the basic principle remains the same (Healey, 2016). The primary objective of CALL is to empower learners to learn autonomously through structured and unstructured interactive classes (Anwar & Arifani, 2016). Previously, structured, interactive lessons have been methodically designed and developed following the performance scale. In contrast, unstructured interactive lessons are unplanned programs that have

not yet been evaluated for performance.

Both language acquisition and technological advancement are predicated on a significant number of fundamental assumptions. Interactivity is assumed to be there from the beginning. The term "interactivity" in the context of computer-assisted language learning (CALL) refers to how responses to the inputs made by learners are evaluated by the method that is used to aid learners in acquiring language competency, which may include linguistic abilities (Nejati et al., 2018). Furthermore, the interactive aspects of CALL ensure that learning happens whenever students are fully engaged in class (Sung et al., 2015). Well-programmed interactive CALL classes will provide feedback on scores, guidelines, and individualised lessons to assist students in enhancing their academic performance. The CALL course designer must consider linguistic pedagogical concepts derived from learning theories (behaviourism, cognitivism, and constructivism) and second language acquisition, such as Krashen's Monitor Theory (Ismaili, 2015). CALL is not a method but a tool that aids instructors in facilitating language acquisition. CALL can be utilized to reinforce classroom-based instruction. It can also be a remedial tool to assist students with inadequate language skills.

The following assumption is the significance of help and feedback (Robinson, 1991). It is still connected to the interactive aspect. The most prominent characteristic of computer-assisted language learning (CALL) is providing accurate error analysis or learner initiative feedback (Baur, 2015). How assistance and feedback contribute to the typical learner's language development is unknown (i.e., Kleij, Feskens & Eggen, 2015; Kluger & DeNisi, 1996; Shute, 2008). There is evidence that the majority, if not the vast majority, of learners, disregard the availability of support materials even when it is evident that they need them. In addition, whether their use results in learning or only assists learners in overcoming a temporary challenge is unknown.

The following assumption accommodates individual preferences (Lee et al., 2016). Individualizing instruction, or the learning process, is a fundamental advantage of CALL (Baur, 2015). This is feasible when students work autonomously for their purposes and at their own pace. Learners vary substantially in learning styles, strategies, attitudes, motivation, and personalities (Baur, 2015). This is a significant advantage of technology: its capacity to adjust itself and the content it provides (Muralidharan et al., 2019).

Learner-centeredness is the following assumption (Kılıçkaya, 2015). Individualization is closely related to the topic of learner-centeredness. In contrast, the teacher controls all language interactions in a teacher-centred classroom; practically all communication is between the teacher and one student

(Emaliana, 2017). In a learner-centred classroom, students interact with one another as much as with the teacher, and they have a high degree of autonomy over classroom activities (Garbaj, 2018; Rajeswaran, 2019). Everything a student does is planned and predicted by the teacher in the lesson designer's personality in teacher-centred material design. In learner-centred resources, the student has several more options for what to work on.

The constant progress of technology offers endless options to incorporate into foreign language teaching and learning; at the same time, the technological progress imposes a challenge to language instructors trying to select appropriate technology and understand how to use and how to connect new and evolving technology with learning content and process (Morehead & LaBeau, 2005). A course of an action plan is required to advance the use of technology in educational settings, capitalise on the increasing presence of data-driven learning and evaluation, and the growing adoption of social media and open educational materials (Hashim, 2018).

2.3.2. Blended learning

The selection of available technology offers various tools to enhance foreign language instruction for specific learning purposes. Therefore, the emergence of blended learning models in foreign language teaching and learning is a natural consequence of technological advances (Dziuban et al., 2018). While there is no single accepted definition of blended learning, in a broad sense, it can be defined as structured learning opportunities that employ many teaching and learning approaches, inside or outside the classroom (Abrosimova et al., 2019; Hratinski, 2019; Smith & Hill, 2019). Cronje (2020) also stated that blended learning is the innovative fusion of face-to-face and online learning experiences. It combines face-to-face and CALL in the most effective and efficient combination for the single learning subject and objectives. Some advocates of blended learning claim that "blended" refers to incorporating online components that replace face-to-face class time resulting in less classroom time (Bouilheres et al., 2020; Liu & Zainuddin, 2021; Rasheed et al., 2020). Other blended learning applications consider integrating traditional classroom instruction with online components that expand learning beyond the confines of the traditional school day (Krasnova & Demeshko, 2015).

In a typical proficiency-oriented foreign language classroom, a standard one-hundred-minute class time, in reality, is not sufficient to cover both grammar instruction and active learning activities (Kaharuddin, 2018). Al Zoubi (2018) claims that increasing contact with the target language is essential to second language acquisition, making learning a foreign language intensive and time-consuming. As a result, most instructional hours required at the university level are insufficient to reach high proficiency. One way to deal with this problem of insufficient teaching and learning time

is through technology. According to Lee (2022), using technology in learning a foreign language involves various resources, artefacts, and practices. These can range from multimedia personal computers to the Internet, videotapes to online chat rooms, web pages, and interactive audio conferencing. Given the vast array of available modern technology, Lee (2022) further said the technology could positively affect language learning if used correctly.

The study conducted by Shadiev and Yang (2020) analysed 398 articles on technology-assisted language acquisition. They discovered that twenty-four technologies were utilised in the examined research on technology utilisation. All these technologies were numbered, and Shadiev and Yang provided instances of how they were implemented to promote language acquisition and yield positive outcomes (2020). According to their findings, most of the research found favourable outcomes. In other words, when technology-facilitated learning, students achieved more significant results.

Furthermore, students held favourable views on the employed technology. This demonstrates that technology aids language learning and that learners embrace and utilise it. The usage of technology can increase the motivation and interest of students. Technology provides language learners with input, output, and feedback in the target language and enables professors to organise course content effectively and communicate with multiple students. In any case, technology is welcomed, and teachers can modify their instructional activities and tactics to use available resources well.

On the other hand, Ahmadi and Reza (2018) analysed several significant challenges with applying technology to language acquisition. The literature review revealed that technological resources could not ensure the teaching and learning of teachers and students. Teachers should be convinced of the use and benefits of technology for enhancing student learning. This necessitates support and training for the integration of technology into language instruction. The analysis indicated that when technology is utilised effectively, it may benefit teachers and students. Learners can utilise this resource because it assists them in resolving their learning issues and discovering effective and meaningful ways to apply what they have learned. In addition, the literature review revealed that technology plays a crucial role in language learning at the learner's own pace, aids in self-understanding, does not eliminate interaction with the teacher, and generates high motivation among learners for the effective acquisition of language skills (Ahmadi & Reza, 2018). Thus, students should use technology to improve their language skills since it plays a significant part in fostering students' creativity and provides them with engaging, entertaining, and exciting ways to study the language.

2.3.3. Explicit grammar instruction

Norris and Ortega (2000) claimed the effectiveness of foreign language instruction in their meta-analysis. Primary researchers neither agree on the specific features of the different categories of foreign language instructional treatments nor use the same terminologies to describe instructional treatments. Consequently, Norris and Ortega decided on generic categorical definitions of grammatical instruction, which were adopted from Long's (2000) classifications: focus on forms, which is the conventional method of teaching grammar through a straightforward explanation of language rules; focus on form, in which specific grammar rules are intended to be taught within the context of communication, rather than directly; or focus on meaning, which is communicative and grammar is expected to be learned incidentally and implicitly.

According to Long (2000), an emphasis on forms indicates explicit grammar instruction, a focus on meaning suggests implicit instruction and a focus on form implies a medium between explicit and implicit instruction. On the other hand, Ellis (2012) stated that implicit instruction occurs when two or more people speak; they create their linguistic resources. In other words, learning takes place at a subconscious level.

Explicit instruction was applied in the current research because, as supported by Nazari (2013) and Zaferanieh and Behrooznia (2011), it more efficiently conveys grammar lessons than implicit instruction, given the time constraints of a college course. While implicit grammar instruction is believed to aid in learning and retaining grammar lessons (Andrews, 2007), explicit grammar instruction reinforced through practice and exercise is also helpful (Archer & Hughes, 2011; Nazari, 2013).

Culman, Henry, and VanPatten (2009) conducted research illustrating explicit grammar instruction effectiveness. Their experimental research of the efficacy of specific information on the knowledge and performance of college-level German language learners compared four groups of two different language abilities: first-semester and two-third-semester classes. The researchers asked whether the learners with specific grammar instruction treatment correctly processed the target structure sooner than those without it and whether they had any effect. The results revealed that the treatment group students started choosing correct responses immediately and scored consistently better than the control groups. In contrast, few people in the control group '"got it at all" (Culman et al., 2009). The research concluded that specific information positively impacted the processing, leading to the acquisition of grammar.

The value of explicit grammar instruction is summarised by Ellis (2006), who stated that a case exists for teaching explicit grammatical knowledge to assist the subsequent acquisition of implicit knowledge. Scott, Randall, and Hall (1992) believed that explicit grammar instruction was helpful for language learning. They inquired whether students could apply grammar rules after studying independently from the textbook. They concluded that students could learn some linguistic structures, and explicit grammar instruction did have a place in foreign language learning. The study's most important finding was that teachers might identify the language structures that can be taught outside of class so that class time is not focused on unnecessary explicit instructions and grammar rule presentations. This is significant because proficiency-based instruction emphasises engaging in meaningful and communicative tasks throughout the class. Accordingly, the flipped classroom model effectively meets these needs because it delivers explicit instruction outside class and devotes face-to-face time to active learning activities.

One way to conduct interactions between a teacher and a student is to drill exercises. Matsuoka and Ikhsan (2013) have excerpted three types of drill exercises from classroom practices: mechanical, meaningful, and communicative. The instructor controls the whole process of mechanical drills, and there is only one way to respond to the stimulus the instructor produces. In contrast, meaningful and communicative drills give more choices of answers to the students. Wong (2013) maintains that drill exercises do not foster communicative ability because they only focus on ' students' oral production and ignore input, resulting in students not having the chance to express and negotiate meaning, which are necessary skills for communicative development.

Although Wong (2013) does not support drills, Matsuoka and Ikhsan (2013) concluded otherwise in their research. Matsuoka and Ikhsan (2013) studied 21 first-year students in an English language class at a vocational college in Japan to evaluate the effectiveness of essential drill exercises, rather than mechanical and communicative drills, in improving the student's language proficiency. After having six sessions of drill practices, they compared the mean scores of pre-and post-tests that involved three sections a yes-no quiz or listening test, a vocabulary test, and a dictation or writing test to measure the subjects' overall language proficiency. The comparison of mean scores using a t-test was significantly different, indicating students made significant gains in the proficiency tests. As a result, they concluded that classroom interactions involving drill exercises helped students improve their proficiency.

Small group work or pair work, in which communication is shared among or between students, is another method of classroom interaction in a foreign language classroom. Long and Porter (1985),

based on a survey of studies conducted by various researchers in the field of second language acquisition, found six effective outcomes of implementing interactional activities: (1) group work increases the number of individual practices that supplement short instructional time; (2) group work offers a greater variety of operational practices (e.g., rhetorical, pedagogical, and interpersonal) than a centred approach; (3) group work enables students to produce output with similar grammatical accuracy regardless of the interlocutor's language background, thus gaining more opportunity to practice; and (4) students tend to be more motivated when working in groups.

2.3.4. Interaction hypothesis

The interaction hypothesis is foundational for classroom interactions such as drill practices and group/pair work. The interaction hypothesis suggests that "negotiation for meaning" through interaction facilitates L2 acquisition, especially when it involves a competent speaker's utterance, such as repetitions, extensions, reformulations, rephrasing, expansions, and recasts (Long, 2000). The critical components of this interaction are input and output.

The word 'input' refers to everything the learner is exposed to in the target language, either aurally or orally (Rast, 2017; Selinker & Gass, 2008). Gass and Mackey (2006) state that SLA studies recognize the salience of input because the SLA process begins with the input, or the "raw data," a learner uses before producing the language.

The lack of studies systematically testing the effect of time exposed to the target language (TL) on the performance of adult language learners led Rast (2008) to conduct the first exposure research, which collected data from the very beginning of contact with TL through a subsequent period within a controlled TL input environment. A total of 127 students participated in this research. It was placed in three groups: French learners of Polish studying Polish as part of their course research. However, with no prior Polish knowledge, native French speakers who do not take a Polish course and without any Polish knowledge and Polish native speakers are the control group. The research lasted for six class sessions, each meeting for two and a half hours once a week. The students were instructed not to refer to grammar books, dictionaries, or outside input. Each group received eight hours of Polish instruction using a communicative approach without metalanguage. The research methodology involves specific linguistic features such as lexicon and syntax beyond the present research scope. Nonetheless, Rast's (2008) finding is relevant to the current study. It argues that the more time learners spent with the L2, the more proficiently they repeated Polish words, even for brief periods. While this research's input was Polish, this assumption may be applied to other foreign languages.

Although input studies indicate positive implications, Wong (2013) argues that if L2 acquisition refers to acquiring accurate and fluent communication skills, input alone is insufficient in foreign language acquisition. The output may be needed to develop these skills. Indeed, in the context of second language acquisition, the output may serve multiple functions (Swain, 2000). According to Swain's output hypothesis (2000), output requires more mental effort than input for language processing; in other words, learners discover what they can and cannot do while creating linguistic forms and meanings in their minds.

To examine the importance of output in SLA, Toth (2006) compared processing instruction to communicative output tasks involving 80 English-speaking university students enrolled in starting Spanish as a second language class. The students in two experimental groups received instruction on Spanish grammatical elements often problematic for English-speaking learners for seven days. The research included two control groups, one of which did not receive purposeful instruction on the target grammar topic. The other consisted of native Spanish speakers who did not significantly know pedagogical rules. Data collection involved pre-, post- and delayed post-tests and video transcriptions of one lesson from each treatment group.

Toth (2006) discovered that both experimental groups scored significantly higher than the control groups on the post-test. The communicative output group performed marginally better than the processing instruction group. Moreover, the fact that learners in the communicative output groups were required to reformulate their utterances due to having metalinguistic knowledge indicates, at the very least, the existence of mental processes other than input processing as elements that influence the outputs. In other words, the communicative output group engaged in processing input and production during the classroom activities, while the processing instruction group only needed processing.

Also, some research (i.e., Nobuyoshi & Ellis, 1993; Gass et al., 1999; McDonough, 2005) supports a relationship between output and L2 development. In their study of low-level proficiency L2 English adult learners, Nobuyoshi and Ellis (2003) found that methodically focused communication tasks appeared to force speakers to push utterances, thereby improving the accuracy of their oral productions both immediately and over time, despite the small sample size (three in each group). Mackey's (1999) empirical research investigating the link between interaction and L2 development with English as Second Language (ESL) learners have also indicated that active participation in interaction positively affects oral production. This research indicated that learners who actively participated in conversational interaction positively produced developmentally more advanced

structures than those who did not engage in active interaction, only watching interaction or without negotiations.

McDonough (2005) investigated the impact of negative feedback and the altered output produced in response to negative feedback on developing L2 language skills, specifically ESL question formations. Using three experimental groups with various feedback levels and one control group without any treatment, this pre-test-post design research revealed that it was not necessarily the interlocutor's feedback but rather the learner's modified output that played a significant role in developing advanced question forms.

Even though earlier research has focused on specific structural elements of L2 development, Mackey and Abbubuhl provide an excellent review of the relationship between L2 output and development (2005). Output serves various goals, including fostering automatisation, challenging learners to find gaps in their L2 knowledge, motivating them to process syntactically instead of semantically, and allowing learners to test theories they have generated about the target language (Mackey & Abbubuhl, 2005).

Tsui (2001) described classroom interaction as the interaction between the learners and the classroom learners. Also, Swain (2000) claims that interactions generate language use and language learning concurrently, which she calls a knowledge-building dialogue. Interaction activities require negotiations and feedback, such as drill practices or collaborative learning. When a pair engages in a dialogue, two-way tasks occur. These tasks involve both input and output, pushing the learners to notice and hypothesize their interlanguage, each affecting L2 learners' language development (Egi, 2010).

Current SLA studies have expanded to different interaction paradigms to understand language learning. Ellis (2012) conducted a meta-analysis of research examining the effects of interactions in a foreign language or L2 classroom from two distinct theoretical perspectives: Sociocultural theory and Interactionist-Cognitive theories. In his description, the two perspectives are distinct as the language of the former view learning as a process, while the latter regards it as an acquisition.

Ellis and He (1999) conducted the research analysed in the Ellis (2012) survey. They investigated the influence of adjusted input and output on the incidental acquisition of word meaning, understanding, and vocabulary by L2 learners (recognition and production). Fifty students from six university-intensive English programmes participated in the study for intermediate-level learners.

Approximately three-fourths of the students were Asian, and the rest were from other parts of the world. No group was a control, but the six classes were divided into pre-modified, interactionally modified, and outcome groups. Pre-modified input has been streamlined by removing unnecessary information and making it easier to understand grammatically. On the other hand, interactionally modified input refers to transformed input owing to meaning negotiation. A pre-test, the treatment, and five post-tests that span four weeks were administered to each group.

The research identified three primary outcomes as a result of the treatment: (1) the group with the opportunity for modified output performed better than the other two groups that received pre-modified or interactionally modified input, and (2) while all three groups demonstrated a high level of acquisition and retention of words, the modified output group outperformed the other two groups over time (Ellis & He, 1999). In conclusion, they argued that creating new words in a modified output allows learners to digest them more deeply and provides a fundamentally different discourse experience, whether for understanding or acquisition, than simply hearing them.

Ellis (2012) emphasizes the relevance of classroom interaction in fostering foreign language proficiency in the context of SLA based on his metacognitive study, demonstrating that interaction helps language acquisition regardless of student settings and interaction theory utilized. Studies on the interaction hypothesis reveal that it involves collaborative and critical components that promote self-awareness in students. This cannot be accomplished quickly; instead, it involves embracing this as a teaching philosophy and incorporating it into each instructional phase. Considering this interaction theory, action research may be the best strategy to develop an autonomous learning environment, as will be addressed in depth in the following section.

2.4. Flipped classroom

This section reviews a flipped classroom definition and a summary of its history. It also evaluates the recent literature on a flipped classroom and describes its critical features. The aims and benefits of a flipped classroom and its relation to English learning and grammar instruction are explored, including the theoretical frameworks supporting flipped classrooms and pedagogical implications.

2.4.1. Defining the flipped classroom

In a flipped classroom, students view a video, discuss and apply the content in class, and then view a video that presents new content (University of Texas, 2013). Two pillars of traditional education are combined in a flipped classroom: lecturing and active learning. Before class, students have access to video lectures and other supporting materials. This allows students to have additional one-to-one

sessions to ask for an explanation from teachers, engage in peer discussions, and apply concepts while receiving support and direct expert feedback (University of Texas, 2013). In order to increase student learning, educators who flip their classrooms favour assigning assignments in the form of lectures. Homework is vital because it allows the students to speak to their parents about their achievements, be alone with their thoughts, contemplate their education, and examine both the curriculum content and the instructor's feedback (Fulton, 2012).

Blended Learning is the umbrella phrase for the flipped classroom. Staker and Horn (2012) defined blended learning as a formal education approach that blends face-to-face instruction with online content and instruction, with some student flexibility over time, place, direction, and pace. The flipped classroom, however, is distinct from online education or "e-learning." Students must spend time with teachers and classmates for feedback and active face-to-face conversation (Staker & Horn, 2012). In their taxonomy of blended learning, Staker and Horn observe that blended learning is influenced by online learning, which they define as "education in which knowledge and instruction are primarily delivered over the Internet" (2012, p.3). Despite the impact of online learning models on the content delivery part of Blended Learning, the flipped classroom prioritises active learning over content delivery (Bergmann & Sams, 2012; Hamdan et al., 2013). Beyond the scope of this study are the history of Online Learning and its influence on blended learning approaches.

In addition to being distinctive from technology-rich instruction (TRI), the flipped classroom also distinguishes apart from distance education. These two models do not handle the parts of video lectures and peer collaboration similar to those in a classroom setting. The flipped classroom requires students to watch videos or listen to lecture content outside the scheduled class hour; as a result, the definition does not apply to classes that deliver TRI. Teachers use internet-enabled devices to supplement the more conventional teaching method used in TRI classrooms, such as SMART Blackboards and personal computers equipped with projectors (Staker & Horn, 2012). Nevertheless, the teacher is in charge of the technology, and the students primarily use it to supplement direct instruction. When using TRI, the benefits of collaborative and active learning that come with flipping the classroom are reduced. In contrast to online and traditional classroom instruction, the flipped classroom model emphasises participatory, in-person instruction (Hamdan et al., 2013).

The following examples illustrate how the definition of a flipped classroom might shift over time: On his blog, Sams (2011), who was one of the people who came up with the idea of flipping the classroom, stated that there is no such thing as a flipped classroom because "the flip is in flux" (Sams, 2011). Sams (2011) states that a class can be flipped for specific units or subjects by combining

interactive lectures, workshops, and in-class activities. This type of classroom can be done in order to teach the material better. Additionally, according to Sams, active learning strategies in educational media will continue to develop as more study is carried out (2011). According to Sams, there is not a single approach to flip classrooms. Despite this, the flipped classroom technique conforms to a socio-constructivist paradigm, predicated on the idea that all passive learning may be completed at home and all active learning should occur in the classroom. According to Eric Mazur, the inventor of Peer Instruction, the active learning component is taken outside of the classroom in the traditional model of instruction. The action of taking out the active learning component is something that Mazur believes to be untrue (Lambert, 2012). Consequently, the flipped classroom's core ideas revolve around increasing the time spent in class on active learning and supporting students while learning (Bergmann & Sams, 2012).

The primary focus of the " flipped classroom " value system is the "generation tech" students growing up in an environment where new programmes and devices are continually being introduced is the primary focus of the "flipped classroom" value system. Because of this, qualified teachers should be concerned with a new type of literacy known as technological literacy, which refers to the ability to comprehend and use various forms of technology (ITEA, 2007). Technology culture requires independent learning principles, exceptional research skills, intelligence, critical reading abilities, and numerous other standard academic criteria (Bishop & Verleger, 2013). The internet must detect high-quality content and assess the credibility and robustness of the information when a student is utilising this new library to learn (Seaboyer, 2013). These concepts are "partly a response to a generation of students who have spent their whole lives studying through computer screens, the Internet, and visual media" (Lambert, 2012, p.11); yet, "these initiatives also represent a search for alternatives to the traditional lecture" (Lambert, 2012, para.11). As a result, the flipped classroom is an essential step towards developing integrated learning.

2.4.2. The history of the flipped classroom

The flipped classroom method involves and promotes educational technology as a means of content delivery. This strategy was developed with socio-constructivist education and active learning theories as its foundations. Educators and researchers such as King (1993), Mazur (2009), Lage, Platt, and Treglia (2000), Baker (2000), Tenneson and McGlasson (2006), Strayer (2007), Khan (2012), and Bergmann and Sams (2012) have based their flipped classes on the theories of active learning, blended learning, differentiated instruction, and community inclusion. They have attempted to synthesise these theories in the flipped classroom approach. King (1993), Mazur (2009), Lage, Plat (Hamdan et al., 2013).

Teachers considered the inverted classroom for the first time in the late 1990s (Baker, 2000). However, there were few studies on classroom flipping. This lack of knowledge may have been caused by the lack of educational and technology resources to adopt flipped classroom instruction until the middle of the 21st century (Obari & Lambacher, 2015). During the 1920s, radio and television were the primary content dissemination modes. Before the term "flipped classrooms" became popular, this method was known as "remote learning" (Byrne, 1989). In the 1960s, The Open University was the first educational institution in the United Kingdom to apply for a daily educational television programme that would later be seen in the United Kingdom, Canada, and Australia (The Open University, 2014).

Instruction in which the lecture is moved outside of the classroom, technology is used, and students' homework is brought into the classroom in the form of learning activities are all components of the flipped classroom model, which is a new approach for getting students interested in learning (Bergmann & Sams, 2012). It is commonly believed that Bergmann and Sams were the ones who first conceptualised the current generation of flipped classrooms, which combine live classroom instruction with online video lectures (Pink, 2010). In 2007, both individuals were employed as teachers at Woodland Park High School in Colorado. Increased student absences were caused by several important factors, such as the geographic isolation of their school. They discovered that many students were compelled to leave school early to participate in extracurricular activities such as athletics or other school-related events. According to Bergmann, students absent from class received the most significant benefits from the early recordings (Bergmann & Sams, 2012).

During his TED lecture in March 2011, Salman Khan discussed "flipping the classroom" (Khan, 2011). Salman Khan praised the flipped classroom model and explained that using his videos frees teachers to concentrate on higher-level learning activities with their classes. Such activities included running simulations and labs with students, providing individual interventions, and encouraging them. Since then, there has been a significant increase in the number of publications and blogs devoted to the teaching methodology known as the flipped classroom and interest in flipped classroom instruction.

2.4.3. Aims and benefits of flipped classroom

This study investigates the efficacy of the flipped classroom paradigm for foreign language instruction and learning. The flipped classroom model is integrated learning that refers to the inversion of the usual instructional method. The primary characteristic of the flipped classroom

paradigm is active rather than passive learning while offering educational lectures outside of class (Berrett, 2012). The flipped classroom approach aims not for students to view content videos at home but rather to use face-to-face class time for active learning with students (Bergmann & Sams, 2013). Bergmann and Sams (2013) claim that flipping helps teachers to boost student involvement by controlling technology. A flipped classroom style can utilise classroom time more efficiently to assist students in enhancing their language competence due to increased engagement (Witten, 2013).

The flipped classroom model encourages students to view lectures at their own pace and apply the concepts discussed in class. For example, students are usually expected to read a novel before class, so the class time can be dedicated to discussing themes and symbolism in humanities courses. Students in law schools are often engaged in the Socratic method, in which the norm is to learn the materials before class and face their professor's rigorous questions. An example is the Mathematics Department at the University of Michigan in Ann Arbor, which has implemented flipped teaching and learning since the mid-1990s. Students are expected to do their reading before class and spend time-solving questions together or in class groups (Berrett, 2012). Professors lead students through exercises and clarify misconceptions in their introductory calculus lectures at the University of Michigan at Ann Arbor. In addition, students present their responses to their classmates or collaborate in small groups (Aronson & Arfstrom, 2013).

Yong et al. (2015), engaged in research on flipped classrooms within three disciplines (Chemistry, Engineering, and Mathematics) at a small undergraduate residential college, claimed that they had not found significant differences in student performance compared to the traditional courses. Their research utilised several different outcome measures in order to examine the usefulness of the flipped classroom approach. These outcome measures included pre- and post-assessments of student surveys, content assessments, assignments, and course grades. Consequently, they have reported the research's first- and second-year findings of the Engineering and Mathematics course. The study utilised a quasi-experimental methodology that compared "students in inverted sections to those in control sections" (i.e., traditional course model). Yong et al. (2015) found hardly any difference in students' learning outcomes or gains. Furthermore, students in the inverted classroom design expressed mixed opinions concerning the overall satisfaction of the courses.

While the research by Yong et al. (2014) has not found significant benefits from the flipped classroom model, they caution not to generalize their findings. Each school had different learning environments that could impact results. For example, a learning environment could affect the success of flipped classrooms at non-residential colleges. Furthermore, some studies have indicated issues with

implementing flipped learning, such as resistance from students and professors who are more familiar with traditional lecture-oriented courses (Berrett, 2012; Hamdan et al., 2013).

Strayer (2007) found, in mixed-methods research comparing the learning environment of an inverted introductory-level college statistics class to that of a traditional introductory-level college statistics class, that flipped classrooms may not work in introductory courses where students lack sufficient interest and motivation. Furthermore, focus group interviews found that more students offered good feedback to the traditional classroom for having an established pattern for class activities, allowing them to tolerate minor alterations to how the class was handled. In contrast, students in the inverted classrooms felt discomfort with the environment's surprising variety of activities (Strayer, 2007).

Regardless of the support for the flipped classroom model, many who practice it agree that it initially requires additional time and effort (Bergmann & Sams, 2013; Kellogg, 2013). Bergman and Sams (2013) suggest allowing 30 minutes to create a 10-minute video. Witten (2013) added that planning a thematic unit with the flipped class model initially took three times longer. Witten created her videos to teach grammar basics, introduce some cultures, and practice vocabulary. Witten (2013) also looked for quality, authentic resources, challenging and time-consuming. The time required to produce the present research's grammar lecture videos was also time-consuming. It took over 40 hours to create the lecture videos.

2.4.4. Flipped classroom and English language learning

The flipped classroom model enables students to learn grammar through lecture videos outside class and engage in face-to-face active interaction and class participation (Alharbi et al., 2015). As discussed earlier in this section, a proficiency-oriented classroom is helpful for active student learning and lecture instruction. However, a traditional classroom with limited instructional time restricts the ability to include both components. Nevertheless, according to Witten (2013), a flipped classroom enabled her to move grammar lectures out of regular class time by utilising grammar videos she created, allowing her to spend the time in class to practice new skills and to increase the opportunity for both she and her students to use the target language.

Similarly, when a grammar lecture occupies the first part of class time in a traditional English language class, the time often runs out before the planned student-centred activities are completed. Therefore, reaching the same proficiency levels is difficult when there is limited or fixed instructional time in the classroom. If the English language requires instructional time but is fixed, it is not easy to cover the content and activities necessary to reach the same expected language level (Akshaya,

2019; Durham & Kim, 2019). This issue can be addressed using technology in teaching and learning because technology can restructure learning activities and provide challenging instruction opportunities (Gullen & Zimmerman, 2013). Although there are numerous methods to use technology in foreign language teaching and learning, a flipped classroom can accommodate foreign language acquisition objectives when technology is employed. Instructional lectures outside the classroom can be provided through technology, such as lecture videos, allowing classroom time to focus on active and meaningful activities (Bernard, 2015).

2.4.5. Flipped classroom and grammar instruction

Many scholars agree that grammar instruction benefits SLA (Ellis, 2006; Friedman, 2007; Norris & Ortega, 2000; Schulz, 1998). For example, Ellis (2006) discussed the significance of basic grammar knowledge in language development by addressing competing techniques for grammar instruction, such as explicit versus implicit knowledge, deductive versus inductive teaching, and intensive versus extensive teaching. He claims that explicit knowledge, linked to metalinguistic explanation, leads to tacit knowledge. Tacit and unconscious knowledge is necessary for foreign language competence, and deductive teaching first focuses on and practices a grammatical structure. In contrast, inductive teaching introduces an example using the grammatical structure and guides students to analyse it. Intensive grammar training includes a limited number of structures over time, whereas extensive grammar instruction examines a wide variety of structures quickly (Handoyo, 2015). Ellis (2006) concludes that despite the controversy over the best approach to teaching grammar in L2, basic grammar knowledge helps language development.

Acknowledging that grammar knowledge is essential for language proficiency, foreign language instructors must identify the appropriate grammar instruction method for their classrooms. Ellis (2006) describes grammar instruction as an instructional strategy focusing students' attention on a particular grammatical form. It facilitates internalisation by facilitating comprehension or processing in comprehension and production. According to Ellis (2006), it is crucial to identify the available options, the theoretical justifications for these options, and the issues with these justifications.

2.4.6. Synchronous online flipped learning approach

With the rapid growth of flipped learning, various models have developed, all following its principles but adapting them to specific educational contexts. Educators must decide which models best suit their less popular courses in TESOL. While not all flipping models require students to watch videos (Brinks-Lockwood, 2014), videos are still essential. In 2018, Aaron Sams proposed that flipped learning return to its roots and recognize the importance of video (Walsh, 2018).

One model that has been developed currently is online flipping. Honeycutt (2014) explores this online flipped learning concept in her flipped learning blog. The principle of flipping extends the manner of delivery. A flipped classroom does not require instructors and students to meet in person. Students can interact on wikis, blogs, and forums online to share their comprehension of the topics. The videos are made using software like Edpuzzle (https://edpuzzle.com) or PlayPosit (htpps://go.playposit.com) that includes questions so the instructor can see what the students are learning and organize online activities accordingly. The recorded lessons give students the impression of being in a real class. Individual data is also retrieved and examined ahead of time to inform instruction. Marshall and Rodriguez-Buitrago (2017) developed the Synchronous Online Flipped Learning Approach as their version of online flipping (SOFLA). This notion of flipped learning integrates synchronous classes with the online flip. In this paradigm, students and instructors connect using audio and webcams via Adobe Connect, Zoom, or other platforms. Work in small groups and report back to the main conference room. Marshall (2019) also adds that SOFLA works effectively when students can plan classes and are not attending a full-time program in person, like college or adult education.

SOFLA's main benefit is that it replicates the interactive and dynamic nature of learning when teacher-led activities are taken outside the classroom. Regular asynchronous encounters enable instructors and students to distinguish between in-class and out-of-class learning environments (Marshall & Kostka, 2020). They can also participate in live classes and interact with peers (Marshall & Rodriguez Buitrago, 2017). The SOFLA model has eight phases that define asynchronous and synchronous learning (Marshall, 2020) (see Figure 2.1). Pre-Work, Step 1, is the SOFLA equivalent of flipped learning in face-to-face classes. Before participating in synchronous class sessions, students perform a range of low-level Bloom's taxonomy exercises (Marshall & Kostka, 2020). Step 2 is a brief Sign-In Activity that all students complete upon entering the synchronous classroom session. Common collaborative whiteboards include Zoom (https://zoom.us) and Flipgrid (https://my.flipgrid.com). This warm-up utilises knowledge from the pre-work but challenges students to apply or relate it to their needs.

In Step 3, all students participate in a group exercise that either reinforces their prior knowledge, helps them understand anything unclear from the pre-work, or allows them to put what they have learned from the asynchronous work into practice (Marshall & Kostka, 2020). The fourth step, Breakouts, allows students to collaborate in small groups (Marshall & Kostka, 2020). This stage overlaps with the part of teaching presence known as Community of Inquiry (CoI), in which the teacher facilitates learning in the classroom. Teaching, cognitive, and cognitive presence are three

interconnected CoI aspects that contribute to a meaningful online learning experience (Garrison, 2016) (see section 2.5.2). Teachers facilitate student interaction as students work in groups to complete tasks based on content provided by the teacher (i.e., the pre-work).

Step 5 in the main room of the Zoom meeting is the Share-Out, where students present what their groups have learned (Marshall & Kostka, 2020). In all these processes, the teacher guides but does not lead students, who are constantly asked to reprocess material or recover prior knowledge. However, Preview and Discovery, Step 6, is unique. Step 6 prepares students for their upcoming assignments and addresses a primary challenge in flipped learning. Students may not participate in after-class activities (Talbert, 2017).

Step 6 concludes with new work assignments and reflection (Marshall & Kostka, 2020). In Step 7 of the Assignment Instructions, the teacher discusses the next out-of-class assignment and tells students where the materials are. Lastly, for Step 8, Reflection, the teacher encourages students to write a brief reflection on the whiteboard about what resonated most (Marshall & Kostka, 2020).

2.5. Theoretical framework supporting flipped classroom

Four significant learning theories support the implementation of flipped classrooms: Constructivism (Xu &Shi, 2018), Bloom's Revised Taxonomy (Güvenç, 2018), Community of Inquiry (Lee & Kim, 2018; Panicker, 2018; Talaei-Khoei, Daniel, & Dokhanchi, 2020) and Output-driven/Input-enabled Hypothesis (Jiang, 2019; Wei, 2018; Yang, 2016). It is centred on an awareness of the social and intellectual learning environment. The framework is grounded on understanding the intellectual and social learning environment. In this environment, students actively engage with knowledge, which fosters profound and significant learning (Noddings, 2002; Piaget & Inhelder, 2008). By using technology, the flipped classroom allows teachers to motivate and support students with specialized comprehension.

Constructivism sheds light on principles to enhance learning. Constructivists ask students to address relevant and genuine problems, promoting inquiry or problem-based learning (Brooks & Brooks, 1993). Good problem-solving and collaboration seem fundamental to constructivist interpretations of the learning process, and good problem-solving encourages exploration and contemplation (Brooks & Brooks, 1993). Good problem-solving involves creating and evaluating a prediction, is complex, requires group effort, and is relevant and engaging to students. According to the constructivist viewpoint, students learn best by interacting with others and collaborating to solve problems. The students begin this process in the flipped classroom by initiating learning outside class. The students

interact with their peers in the class, and the teacher guides them. This method allows students to refine their knowledge.

Figure 2.1

The Eight Steps of SOFLA

Synchronous Online Flipped Learning Approach	
Step	**Learning Focus**
1	Pre-Work
2	Sign-In Activity
3	Whole Group Application
4	Breakouts
5	Share-Out
6	Preview & Discovery
7	Assignment Instructions
8	Reflection

Note. The SOFLA model consists of eight steps, each of which describes how asynchronous and synchronous learning takes place. From "Fostering Teaching Presence through the Synchronous Online Flipped Learning Approach" by H. W. Marshall and I. Kostka, 2020, *Tesl-Ej, 24(2), n2.* (https://tesl-ej.org/wordpress/issues/volume24/ej94/ej94int/). Copyright 2020 by the Institute of Education Sciences.

2.5.1. Constructivism

Constructivism is centred on the student. Constructivists hold that learning is a mental process in which students combine new and old ideas (Schunk, 1996). Socrates argued that students and teachers should converse and ask questions to uncover previously hidden information (Stewart & Barry, 1991). Learners do not acquire knowledge receptively; instead, they must synthesise what they already know with newly acquired information to broaden their understanding and interpretation (Von Glasersfeld,

2001). In order to construct the future, a constructivist theory is a framework that stimulates and cultivates new learner experiences.

Piaget and Cook (1952) say learners gain knowledge by interacting with their surroundings. New information helps them learn. They mentally adapt when they cannot assimilate and connect new information to their past knowledge. Piaget's constructivism theory works like this (Wadsworth, 1996). If the instruction is solely top-down, learning may not occur. The teacher can deliver material, but the students may not acquire it if they cannot integrate it. In Piaget's Constructivist theory, learners construct knowledge from the external world of reality.

Piaget's Constructivism theory has been criticized (Crain, 2015; Gredler, 1992), although more for its stages than how learners generate knowledge. According to Piaget (1973), learners go via preoperational, concrete, and formal operational thinking. Constructivist teachers must change their manner, method, and content to the child's developmental stage. Learning requires social interactions and context. Social interactions between peers create a natural learning environment for logical thinking. Learners actively interpret the learning process, but that does not mean teachers do nothing in class. In a constructivist classroom, the teacher engages within the student's zone of proximal development (ZPD) (Chaiklin, 2003) to promote, oversee, and enhance learning based on the notion that each learner's conceptual frameworks and interpretations serve as the foundation for learning (Taber, 2011).

The gap between what a student can do independently and what they can do with assistance from a teacher or peer is known as the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). According to Vygotsky's theory (1980), a learner can acquire knowledge through scaffolding interactions with either a teacher or a peer. The teacher or more knowledgeable classmates can provide temporary support through scaffolding (Samana, 2013). According to Faraj (2015), scaffolding is vital for L2 learners since it fulfils students' needs in EFL writing and improves their writing skills; while most of them struggled with fundamental writing components, such as grammar, they could write with more confidence (p. 131).

Constructivism emphasizes student-centred and teacher-directed teaching. Effective constructivist learning requires carefully planned learning scenarios. This is the concept of presenting a learner with a task that exceeds their skill but is within their Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) and then assisting them with modelling, direction, and hints to complete the activity and reach a goal. Constructivism is not about "direct" or "minimum" instruction but "optimum" levels (Taber, 2011). It involves the substitution of lectures with active or collaborative learning. Topping and Ehly (1998)

define collaborative learning as "the development of knowledge and skills through peer-to-peer assistance and support" (p.1). According to Smith and MacGregor (1992), cooperative learning is the most structured kind of collaborative learning. Students work together in collaborative learning. Each team member has a separate subgoal. Individual and team contributions generate a product, such as writing.

Constructivism encourages dynamic learning (Grabinger & Dunlap, 1995). The theoretical foundations of a flipped classroom are constructivism and student-centred active learning, which enable students to produce their knowledge by providing them with more time, space, and learning opportunities. To acquire knowledge, students must actively interpret what they see and hear (Taber, 2011, p.44). Learning should have value. Students who cannot apply what they have learnt have not comprehended the material. Formal education concerns meaningful learning (Ausubel, 2012), as acquiring knowledge is more than imitation-based learning. Sometimes, students struggle with learning not because they do not comprehend the teacher's instruction but because they have difficulty comprehending the intended meaning or interpreting it differently.

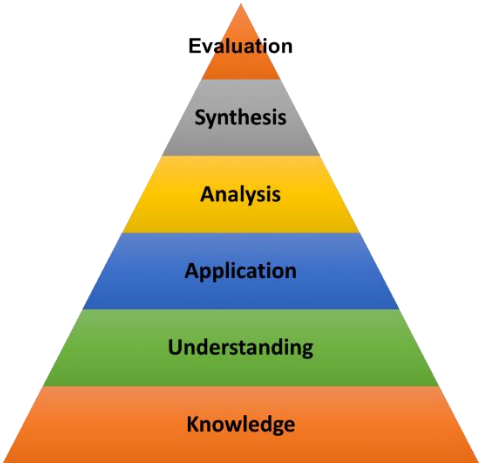
Constructivism has three key aspects (Gurney, 1989). First, students customize their learning. They must learn how to use knowledge afterwards. In a flipped classroom, students watch videos outside of class to learn something new. Learners can check their understanding while they watch a flipped lesson video. In class, the student engages with the same subjects and has the chance to demonstrate knowledge and correct misconceptions. Second, learning takes place in a social context. As a result, there is vital for interaction between the teacher and the students using scaffolding and for the students to work together to negotiate meanings and gain new knowledge. The flipped classroom model improves scaffolding instruction and collaborative learning, in which learners build their knowledge by interacting with the teacher and other students in groups. Third, learners need an active learning environment to experience and process the material to understand a subject and acquire knowledge. Knowledge is not a product of imitation, memorization, transfer, or accumulation.

2.5.2. Bloom’s revised taxonomy

Bloom's Taxonomy helps teachers determine what students should learn through instruction (Krathwohl, 2002). It classifies educational aims, objectives, and standards. Bloom's Taxonomy was released in 1956 (Bloom, 1964). As can be seen in Figure 2.2, it is composed of a total of six subcategories within the Cognitive Domain. These subcategories include knowledge, understanding, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation.

Figure 2.2.

The structure of the original Bloom's Taxonomy



Note. The original version of Bloom's Taxonomy. From "*Learning Science Made Easy: The Original, Revised and Rebuffed Bloom's Taxonomy*" by TopClass LMS by WBT Systems (https://www.wbtsystems.com/learning-hub/blogs/blooms-taxonomy). In the public domain.

The original Bloom's Taxonomy (OT) is a continuum from lower-order (LOTS) to higher-order thinking skills (HOTS). Each category denoted by a noun was graded from lowest to highest. According to Anderson et al. (2001), occupational therapy had a hierarchical structure in which each successive skill was increasingly challenging. This categorisation of education system goals served as a measuring tool to support educators, administrators, professionals, and researchers in having conversations about curricular goals and objectives (Krathwohl, 2002).

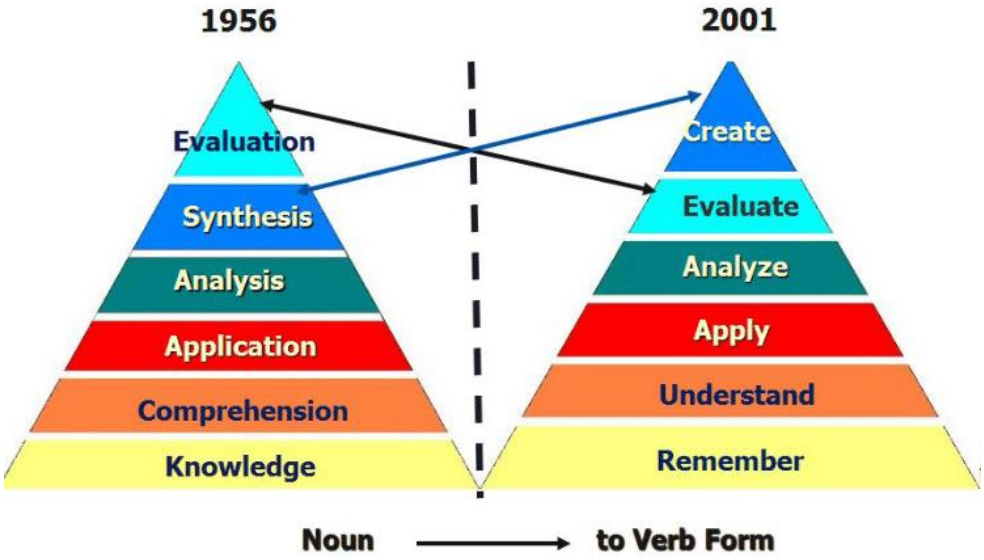
It has been proved that Bloom's Taxonomy can improve students' conceptual comprehension and critical thinking (Bissell & Lemons, 2006), yet it has flaws and practical limitations (Luebke & Lorié, 2013). The cognitive process is a unidimensional, simple-to-complex behaviour that does not span the six categories (Furst, 1994). Inconsistencies in the hierarchy were another issue. Knowledge, Analysis, Synthesis, and Evaluation had distinct prerequisites, with Synthesis perhaps incorporating Evaluation while Evaluation was less demanding (Kreitzer & Madaus, 1994). Learning is seen as an active process in contemporary learning theories and practises, such as constructivism and self-regulated learning, in contrast to the original Bloom's Taxonomy, which had significant limits in its applicability to real-world situations. Students are responsible for understanding, intellect, and deductive reasoning (Zimmerman, 1998). Anderson and Krathwohl (2001) integrated learner-centred learning paradigms into Bloom's Revised Taxonomy (RT). Instead of using a noun to characterise the categories, they employed a verb and rearranged the order from lower-order to higher-order cognitive processes. They transformed the one-dimensional framework into a two-dimensional framework,

renaming Knowledge as Remember, Comprehension as Understand, and Synthesis as Create, and placing creativity above evaluation in the cognitive domain. Figure 2.3 demonstrates that the terms Apply, Analyse, and Evaluate become verbs.

The six cognitive learning categories of Bloom's Revised Taxonomy are the foundation for flipped classroom learning (Anderson, Krathwohl & Bloom, 2001; Bloom, 1964). Lower-level learning areas include memorising information, understanding meaning, and applying knowledge to new situations. Analyse, evaluate and create are higher-level learning domains that entail comparing and dissecting information, judging based on criteria, and creating or combining pieces to produce new products. Bloom's Revised Taxonomy guides learning in flipped classrooms. Students conduct lower-level cognitive work (gaining knowledge and comprehension) outside of class. In contrast, higher-level cognitive tasks (application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation) are completed in class with the support of their classmates and teacher. This is illustrated in Figure 2.4.

Figure 2.3.

The structure of Bloom's Revised Taxonomy (Wilson, 2016)



Note. Comparative Table Bloom's 1956 vs. Anderson and Krathwohl's 2001. From "*Understanding the Revised Version of Bloom's Taxonomy*" by Leslie Owen Wilson. (https://thesecondprinciple.com/essential-teaching-skills/blooms-taxonomy-revised/). In the public domain.

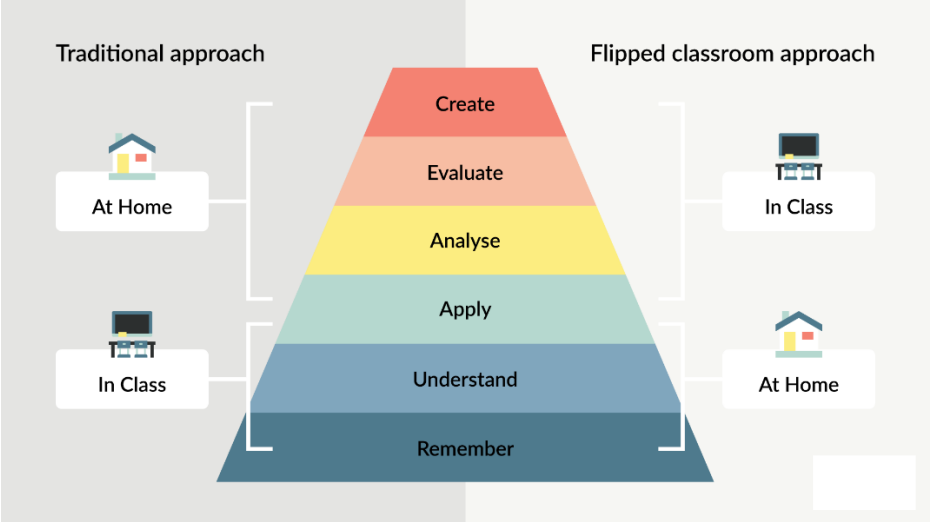
The phrase "flipped classroom" refers to the difference between this method and the conventional paradigm, in which students' "first exposure" to new information comes in the form of homework and "first exposure" occurs during class lectures. Before class, students review or introduce new concepts by watching lecture videos. Students are exposed to instructional materials prior to the teacher. Students must recognise and recall material and comprehend video content's fundamental concepts

and principles at the remembering level. After seeing the film in the comprehension phase, students are requested to demonstrate their comprehension by performing simple exercises. Students apply their knowledge through scaffolding at the application level. Then, following the activity, students analyse a task using argument, comparison, and synthesis. They acquire new knowledge and ideas through creative thought, active learning, and cooperation.

In this level of the revised taxonomy, students are required to think creatively. Students analyse learning concepts at the second-to-last level of the new taxonomy structure and evaluate their mastery of a topic. Students should be able to independently design, develop, and produce something new based on their learning at the creating level. In a flipped classroom, students practise remembering and comprehending outside of class, while in class, they practise applying, analysing, evaluating, and creating. Bloom's Revised Taxonomy displays flipped learning levels in the classroom.

Figure 2.4.

Bloom's revised taxonomy in a flipped classroom



Note. The concept of Bloom's revised taxonomy in flipped classroom. From *"Flipping the Classroom: What's the Concept?"* by Global School Alliance. (https://www.globalschoolalliance.com/sponsored/flipping-the-classroom/). In the public domain.

Teachers used Bloom's Taxonomy; many typical sessions began and ended with Bloom's lower-order thinking skills. By implementing flipped classroom teaching, teachers can reduce the number of minutes they spend lecturing and increase their time interacting with students to improve their analytical reasoning skills. Students could think critically and creatively when they were in courses that were flipped. According to Bergmann (2013), the primary objective of the flipped classroom is to invert Bloom's taxonomy so that students may apply what they learn and get the most out of their

interactions with their teachers and classmates. The teacher is then free to support and guide students while they work on developing higher-order thinking abilities in the classroom. These skills include producing, applying, analysing, and evaluating what they have learned (Hamden, McKnight, McKnight & Arfstrom,2013). The ability of students to master ideas and think critically has been improved because of Bloom's taxonomy (Bissell & Lemons, 2006). Recall, comprehend, apply, analyse, evaluate, and create are the terminologies that Anderson and Krathwohl (2001) gave to the new levels developed to address the needs of students in the 21st century.

According to Bergmann and Sams (2012), students must develop higher-order thinking abilities in the classroom with immediate teacher access. Bergmann and Sams (2012) claimed that when students require the presence of the teacher, they become stuck and require assistance. The students do not require the teacher to provide content; they can receive it autonomously. Bergmann and Sams (2012) discovered that students thought more deeply when Bloom's taxonomy was reversed. Rather than simply having students learn at the lower level of the taxonomy, such as remembering and understanding, the learning skills taught in the classroom have been modified to include higher-order thinking skills, such as applying, analysing, evaluating, and creating. The transformation of the role of the teacher has contributed to this growth in the student's ability to think critically.

Additionally, in flipped classrooms, the knowledge-remembering and knowledge-comprehension abilities that make up the lowest level of Bloom's taxonomy were taught at home to free up face-to-face classroom time for the instruction of higher-order thinking skills. According to Bergmann and Sams (2012) findings, many students fail to remember what was discussed in class. Moreover, students are going to require assistance in order to do their coursework. Bloom's level of remembering and understanding is now delivered to students in advance of class through instructional videos on YouTube or similar technology in a classroom that has been "flipped" (Bergmann, 2013).

Bergmann (2013) suggested that instructors flip Bloom's taxonomy to promote higher-order thinking skills in the classroom. Consider that educators invert Bloom's taxonomy and use technology to move the lower levels of remembering and understanding outside the classroom. Students can then use their higher-order thinking abilities to apply, analyse, evaluate, and create with their teacher and peers (Sams & Bergmann, 2013).

2.5.3. Community of inquiry

Garrison, Anderson, and Archer (1999) built the Community of Inquiry (CoI) framework based on Dewey's (1938) practical inquiry paradigm, which begins with pre-reflection prompted by a problem.

Then comes contemplation and resolve or post-reflection. Passing all four levels would develop action, perception, deliberation, and conceptualization, hence meaningful learning.

Garrison et al. (1999) adapted the CoI to online education in the early 2000s after analysing computer-mediated communication, notably online conversations. Community and inquiry are vital to its designation. In contrast, the latter refers to a scientific technique that mirrors Dewey's scientific method for developing critical thinking. The former refers to a group with shared expectations and interests (1938).

According to Gairn Sallán (2006), CoI can be found in online learning communities and individuals engaged in collaborative, open, participatory, and flexible learning. The paradigm shift in education from knowledge transfer to construction, teacher-centred to student-centred, and passive to participatory learning has formed this type of community (Harrasim, 2006). Virtual learning communities are participatory networks that enable communication, idea sharing, and the socialisation of experiences that increase personal and community identity and knowledge.

Critical thinking and problem-solving are at the core of the enquiry process, resulting in increased knowledge for individuals and society (Garrison, 2013). An in-depth intellectual investigation that ultimately leads to the search for a solution is what has involved in an enquiry. In order to produce meaning, members of an online community of enquiry engage in communication, collaborative effort, and critical dialogue (Garrison, 2013). It describes a group of people with similar educational objectives who believe that exchanging information with one another will improve their ability to acquire new information.

The Community of Inquiry theoretical framework outlines a process of developing three interdependent parts – social, cognitive, and teaching presence – to produce a rich and meaningful (collaborative-constructivist) learning experience, as presented in Figure 2.5. Social presence is participants' ability to identify with the community (e.g., course of study), speak intentionally in a safe atmosphere, and create interpersonal relationships by projecting their personalities (Garrison, 2009, p. 352). Teaching Presence is the planning, facilitation, and direction of cognitive and social processes for realising personally significant and educationally valuable learning outcomes (Anderson, Rourke, Garrison, & Archer, 2001). Cognitive presence is the degree to which students can generate and validate meaning through ongoing reflection and dialogue (Garrison, Anderson, & Archer, 2001).

Every presence enhances learning. Social presence is "participants' ability to identify with the community, talk deliberately in a trustworthy environment, and establish interpersonal relationships by projecting their personalities" (Akyol, 2013, p. 44). It refers to participants' use of names, humour, and compliments to develop trust. Community membership encourages communication and fosters group bonds.

According to Garrison et al. (1999), cognitive presence is the extent to which people in a community of enquiry may construct meaning via lengthy discussion. Cognitive presence is generated through the enquiry process, which consists of four stages:

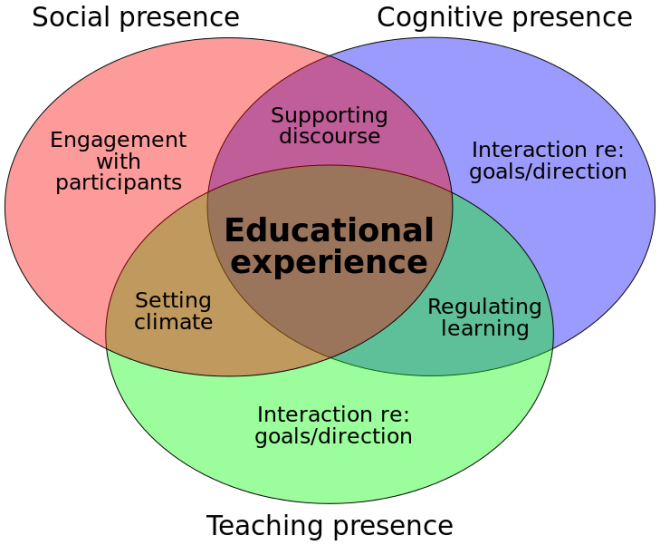
1. Detonation, also known as a "triggering event," is an occurrence that generates interest in a subject, typically as a problem.
2. Exploration is the source of new ideas, perspectives, and conversations among people.
3. Integration makes meaningful learning easier by combining reflective writing and classroom discussion.
4. Reaffirms the importance of learning through application

To develop higher-order thinking skills, it is crucial to complete all four phases; hence, meticulous preparation is essential. Arbaugh, Bangert, and Cleveland-Innes (2010) stated that students often have no trouble mastering the first two but struggle with the last two. This approach distinguishes inquiry-based learning from a focus on social presence. Anderson, Rourke, Garrison, and Archer (2001) further explained that "creating and directing learning sequences, providing subject matter knowledge, and fostering active learning" are the elements that constitute teaching presence (p. 3). Aykol (2013) defined teaching presence as "the design, facilitation, and direction of cognitive and social processes to actualise personally meaningful and educationally worthwhile learning results" (p. 44).

The structure for a community of enquiry includes social, cognitive, and teaching presences. It emphasizes the processes of instructional discussions that lead to epistemic involvement (Shea & Bidjerano, 2009). Through active discussions, the CoI will build an online learning community. Arbaugh, Cleveland-Innes, Garrison, and Ice (2008) promoted a constructivist, collaborative approach to online learning. Students will learn from their peers and gain new knowledge through teamwork.

Figure 2.5

Community of Inquiry Model



Note. From Community of inquiry model.svg (https://commons.wikimedia.org/w/index.php?curid=32442058). CC-BY 3.0.

A participant's capacity to project personal characteristics into the community, portraying oneself as a real person, is called social presence (Garrison, Andrews & Archer, 1999). Building trust and connections in an online community is essential. However, it does not establish cognitive presence; it helps develop a learning community and encourages sharing and cooperation. The term "cognitive presence" refers to an individual's capacity to construct and validate meaning by engaging in ongoing reflection and conversation within a critical community of enquiry (Aykol & Garrison, 2009). Higher education requires students to demonstrate that they can think critically. The idea of cognitive presence proposed by Aykol and Garrison (2009) can be divided into four stages: the triggering event, exploration, integration, and resolution. The generating event initiates the inquiry process with complete student engagement. The exploration phase is all about the problem and finding an answer. The integration phase is more organized and focused on meaning. The resolution phase finds a solution or builds a framework for the problem (Akyol & Garrison, 2009).

To achieve personally relevant and educationally worthwhile learning results, teaching presence includes planning, facilitating, and managing many psychological and social processes (Garrison, Cleveland-Innes & Fung, 2009). It is required for academic community satisfaction and success. A community of learners engaged in discussion and reflection produces higher-level thinking (Garrison, 2009). The teacher must design learning activities, deliver course content, facilitate discussion, and support social and cognitive presence. Shea and Bidjerano (2009) discovered that teaching presence established and maintained online learners' cognitive and social presence.

Asoodar, Atai, Vaezi, and Marandi (2014) conducted a study with undergraduate Information Technology students at an Iranian university taking an online English as a second language writing course. The participants in the study validated the usefulness of using blogs for educational purposes. Students, the instructor, and the blog-buddy app interacted. In addition to Moodle (the university's Learning Management System), email and chat rooms were used. Because they could share their knowledge and skills, students reported being happier with the virtual course sessions. Students could grasp alternative points of view in an engaging and beautiful style, and they liked that they could join in from anywhere and at any time.

Asoodar et al. (2014) used the CoI framework to observe community development and found that students with a more excellent feeling of community (social presence) had improved their grades (cognitive presence). This was discovered after the researchers found that students with a higher feeling of community (social presence) had recognised community development (cognitive presence). The qualitative study demonstrated how students were better able to learn through the co-construction of knowledge (social-cognitive presences) while participating in online activities when they collaborated online. These authors also presented constructivism- and social-interaction-based evaluation paradigms. This assessment approach highlighted the fact that textbooks were out of date and made use of obsolete instructional strategies. They recommend utilising various methods and innovative virtual concepts to increase English language acquisition (Atai, 2006).

According to Tolu (2010), synchronous communication positively affects the development and growth of communities. This online ESOL pre-service teacher research project utilised a mixed-method approach and was carried out at a public institution in the southeast of the United States. The study consisted of live sessions, quizzes, exercises, and papers for self-reflection and case project work. The students communicated with each other using Instant Messenger, Elluminate live, Gmail chat, and Blackboard email. Students could see all three of these presences during live sessions, which contributed to their perception that the class was genuine and increased their motivation to study. Because participants could listen to instructor and peer presentations during live sessions using the program's whiteboard, chat, video, and microphone features, cognitive presence was encouraged.

Chat was primarily used for socializing. This tool increased the teacher's availability, boosting student satisfaction. Instant connection and audio helped class attendees feel comfortable. This study was significant to ESOL since it recommended employing technology to train language teachers than traditional didactic resources better.

Arnold and Ducate (2006) researched two different groups of teachers of foreign languages who were enrolled in hybrid courses (face-to-face and online) at two different institutions. German, French, and Spanish participants took English-language courses. Both colleges employed electronic discussion boards to encourage interaction. Social presence was higher than cognitive, according to the study. Students felt comfortable interacting with students from various colleges and discussing freely. Therefore, they engaged in high-level social activities.

Electronic chats boosted learning as partners' participation exposed new perspectives, clarified concepts, and shared classroom ideas. Despite positive results and substantial student discussion, no resolution was reached. The teachers only presented a provoking situation and did not participate in the following discussion; hence, their help may be needed for the integration stage. A native or non-native English speaker needs further research to determine its effect on cognitive and social presence.

Despite the advantages of greater flexibility, students consider the difficulty of online courses more severe than traditional ones. The research that Chen (2012) conducted using qualitative methods for her Master of Arts (MA) thesis in the Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) programme at the University of Southern California is an example of this. Chen assessed the instructors' respective classes' planning, execution, and effectiveness. Academic demand was a learning strength, but platform instability (WebCT and Blackboard) and the failure of audio and video resources were negatives. Successful students had personality, organization skills, and learning styles, while instructors had inventive personalities, excellent organization, and superior technical skills. Implementing practice activities and assignments helped students achieve the resolution stage.

Cognitive presence seems established through talks and contemplation; however, participants lacked meaningful dialogue. Social presence and group cohesion were built through course discussions and interactions with other participants. Teachers struggled with design and organization because the task took longer than expected. More direction was needed to understand topics; hence facilitation seemed to need improvement, potentially through new teaching strategies.

2.5.4. Output-driven, input-enabled hypothesis

A significant function for language output is emphasized by Ren (2017). Unlike traditional language learning methodologies, input is a way of performing productive actions that begin with language production and concludes with production (Wen, 2018). It has two claims. First, output outperforms input in improving English learning. Second, employing output as the goal of language learning

serves social requirements. Wen (2018) claims four teaching hypotheses: output drive, input facilitates, selective learning, and appraisal. This paradigm involves three fundamental processes: driver, enabler, and evaluation. The first refers to the teacher creating specialized assignments to stimulate students' curiosity, drive learning, and supervise and encourage students to complete the output assignment (Jiang, 2019). Finally, the evaluation process can be immediate or delayed, using various methods (e.g., teacher evaluation and teacher-student co-evaluation).

Krashen (1985) proposed the Monitor Theory emphasising input, proposing that learners can only master the target language if they get sufficient "comprehensible input." According to Krashen (1985), comprehensible input is language material slightly more difficult to comprehend than the learner's current level. The input hypothesis illuminates foreign language learning studies. However, it exaggerates the role of language input and ignores learners. Large amounts of comprehensible input cannot guarantee comprehension without meaningful interactions.

Comprehensible output is a theory that was developed by Swain (2005). According to this idea, comprehensible input cannot teach second language learners how to become proficient. According to Swain (2005), successful second-language learners have input and output easily understood by others. Learners practice the material safely stored in their memories until they can use it fluently. This exposes the learner's perspective to the outside world during language learning. Speaking and writing are both components of learning a second language. According to the notion that output may be comprehended, the output can increase fluency and act as a tool to reflect on what is said or written. However, it separates input and output, which is a mistake, and it overestimates the usefulness of the output.

Both the content of the English curriculum and the instruction methods were altered due to Qiufang (2008). She hypothesised that the "output-driven hypothesis" for students of English contains three additional hypotheses. It has been hypothesised in psychological linguistics that production, rather than intake, may be more beneficial to language learning. Even high-quality input cannot guarantee an acquisition's efficiency without output. Second, the output hypothesis argues that there is more excellent social value in speaking, writing, and translating activities than in listening and reading. Third, the integrated style of teaching English with an emphasis on output is more effective than instruction in a single skill, and it better prepares students for job opportunities in the future.

Qiufang (2004) concludes that there is no specific explanation for the relationship between input and output after attempting to test the output-driven hypothesis. Consequently, she transforms it into "the

output-driven, input-enabled hypothesis," which asserts that output is both the driving force and the goal of language acquisition. Input enables learners to complete the current output job, although it also fulfils this function. This suggests that output is the driving force and goal of language development. To complete the output task set by their teacher, students must first consult the input information for the essential language form and knowledge.

Wen (2015) presents an "output-driven, input-enabled" theory for college English instruction. According to this theory, comprehensible output is the driving force and learning objective in second language acquisition. According to this hypothesis, language output influences the linguistic capacity of learners. Input language that is comprehensible assists students in completing output activities.

Output-driven, input-enabled hypothesis is a tertiary language teaching theory. Contrary to traditional teaching, this hypothesis emphasizes linguistic output or training students to accomplish things in English. After learning language forms and content, students' ability to perform language output tasks has become the norm for assessing teaching effectiveness and learning outcome.

This output-driven, input-enabled hypothesis offers two statements. First, the output is more important than the input in English instruction. It can boost students' ability to apply sensory language information and inspire them to produce new knowledge. Second, as a teaching purpose, output fits our social demands. Students must select one essential speaking, writing, and translation output ability as their learning target(s) and grow to fulfil the output tasks.

According to the output-driven, input-enabled hypothesis, the output is second language acquisition's objective and driving force. In performing language output tasks, language learners will discover gaps in their linguistic knowledge, motivating them to evaluate relevant input sources with a greater focus on acquiring new language forms and content. Thus, learning can be enhanced through producing language, which increases the likelihood that students will know what they can and cannot do with English, reassessing their skills and obtaining new information.

2.5.5. Pedagogical implications

While not all researchers will agree on the specific instructional theories or techniques for teaching foreign language proficiency, instructional activities' pedagogical benefits that focus on input, output, and interactions are evident. It has been empirically demonstrated that foreign language development is facilitated through interactions between learners and other speakers (Mackey & Abbuhl, 2005). This interaction hypothesis is derived from input, feedback, and output (Gass & Mackey, 2006). By

applying the interaction hypothesis, increasing the number of classroom interactions should lead to higher learning outcomes. The current study applies this interaction hypothesis to the flipped classroom model for foreign language teaching and learning.

As previously discussed, a flipped classroom reverses the traditional instructional approach. A grammar lecture takes up part of the class time in a traditional one-class period. In a flipped classroom, instructional videos outside of class to teach grammar concepts increase the frequency of interactive learning activities by giving students more opportunities to practise what they learned in various contexts (Bergmann & Sams, 2012; Enfield, 2013). Increased interactive learning can focus on active learning that involves input, output, and interaction.

While some critics argue that instructional videos replace teachers (Andrei & Buckley-Marudas, 2019; Brame, 2018; Hamdan et al., 2013; Rajadell & Garriga-Garzon, 2017), the present research approaches technology to support L2 development. By removing traditional lectures from face-to-face class time, a flipped classroom model demands that teachers learn new teaching strategies to manage the increased student interaction time. This should not be an issue since most teachers already feel responsible for preparing high-quality, valuable lessons and continuously improving teaching (Lauermann, 2014). However, grammar instruction and input/output fluency exercises are required to develop communicative competence, and grammar instruction is necessary (Elghannam, 2010). Consequently, instructional videos effectively use technology to aid language learning.

Ultimately, teachers' responsibility is to seek and implement effective instruction and classroom activities by synthesizing available theories and English teaching and learning methods. As discussed in this section, the research supports the theory that a flipped classroom model incorporating instructional videos develops language proficiency effectively.

2.6. Chapter summary

This literature review has identified significant gaps in the existing literature related to the development of speaking skills for ESL/EFL learners, the use of technology to support speaking skills, and the effectiveness of different teaching approaches for speaking skills. These gaps in the literature have led to the formulation of the research question and objectives, which aim to investigate the effectiveness of the flipped classroom model for improving the speaking skills of ESL/EFL learners and explore the role of technology in supporting language learning. Investigating these gaps will provide valuable insights into the use of the flipped classroom model for teaching speaking skills and contribute to developing effective teaching methods for ESL/EFL learners.

The previous review and discussion on underlying theories ultimately conclude that explicit instruction and classroom interaction involving input and output as essential components of successful proficiency-oriented English language instruction. When directed by appropriate instructional purposes and theories, the flipped classroom model supplemented by an instructional video can produce a proficiency-oriented classroom that develops language proficiency. Therefore, the proposed research examining the effects of a flipped classroom model on English language teaching and learning will influence instructional practises and provide a framework for other teachers to consider when improving English language instruction.

This literature review examines the significance of teaching speaking in language classrooms and the value of focusing on developing students' communication abilities. Improving one's speaking skills is challenging since it includes acquiring skills in numerous complex and interdependent areas, such as accuracy, word order, vocabulary choice, pronunciation, fluency, turn-taking, and interactional skills. This chapter has also shed light on the difficulty of teaching speaking in a way that encourages individual participation from each student. Students should utilise their speaking skills in the classroom by participating in spoken language activities. Teachers can look for ways to encourage each student's participation in activities that include speaking to address this issue.

However, despite the evident importance of teaching speaking and the potential for the flipped classroom model to support language proficiency, there remains a gap in the literature when it comes to explicitly examining the effectiveness of the flipped classroom model for improving speaking skills in English language classrooms. While several studies have looked at the impact of the flipped classroom on language learning more broadly, few have explicitly focused on learners' speaking skills and how a flipped classroom approach can support their development. As such, there is a strong need for a study like this one, which aims to fill this gap and provide valuable insights into the impact of a flipped classroom model on speaking skills in English language learners.

The current study's two main premises are action research and teaching speaking through a flipped classroom model. According to the literature review, there are many studies on speaking skills, teaching speaking with technology, and flipped learning in teaching speaking skills. However, research on implementing flipped classrooms using synchronous and asynchronous sessions for speaking skills is scarce, especially in EFL classrooms. In the following chapter, the methodological challenges that emerged during this study will be discussed and elaborated on the research procedure developed to implement flipped classroom model for practising speaking skills through action

research.

Chapter Three: The research method

3.1 Introduction

This chapter is divided into three sections. The first section discusses constructivism as the essential principle of action research, followed by a brief review of philosophical research paradigms. The second section defines and discusses the action research with the mixed methods design employed in this study. Finally, the chapter finishes with an action research design using mixed methods.

3.2 The historical overview of research

Paradigms are commonly used in empirical research to describe a collection of shared ideas and behaviours. It affects the questions and researchers' investigation methods (Morgan, 2007). In other words, a paradigm is a set of shared views among experts. Paradigms represent our way of looking at the world, according to Burell and Morgan (1979). Positivism/functionalism and interpretivism are two major paradigms in research (Pansiri, 2005).

Quantitative or positivist research was prevalent in the 19th century. The subject of inquiry was not the researcher; knowledge was gained by direct observation or measurement (Krauss, 2005). The quantitative paradigm favoured "value-free research projects that used rhetorical neutrality to identify social laws, from which temporal and context-free generalisation ensued" (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005). Statistical and mathematical methods were used to investigate, describe, explain, predict, and control social and behavioural phenomena (Scott & Usher, 2010).

Qualitative purists objected to quantitative social behaviour observed in the early twentieth century (Crotty, 2012). Interpretivism "advocated interpretive/hermeneutic techniques in the social and behavioural sciences" (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005, p.269). It is argued that knowledge is context and time-dependent. Meanings connected with behaviour events are researched, and data is gathered when investigators interact with study participants (Coll & Chapman, 2000).

In the 1980s, paradigm wars raged between quantitative and qualitative research. Interpretivism believes that scientific methods cannot be applied to analyse human affairs (Gage, 2007). Science is applied to natural events that are stable and uniform, unlike the human world of teaching and learning. In the qualitative paradigm, a teacher can adjust objectives daily or weekly due to unforeseen situations. "They questioned the assumption of natural homogeneity... [and] the use of linear causal models to infer causal relationships between variables... Instead, they emphasised the person's phenomenological perspective (Gage, 1989, p.5).

According to Sieber (1973), the two primary research paradigms have developed two distinct research cultures. One of these cultures promotes the benefits of "deep, rich, observational data," while the other promotes the benefits of "hard, generalisable" data. Traditional qualitative research, as opposed to traditional quantitative research, places a greater emphasis on inductive research (induction), discovery and exploration (discovery), the generation of theory or hypothesis through exploration (exploration), the researcher as the primary "instrument" of data collection (exploration), and qualitative analysis (induction) (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Because both research paradigms perceive reality and truth differently, combining them in a thesis was deemed irreconcilable and inappropriate (Howe, 1988).

The social and behavioural sciences have undergone three methodological phases in the last 50 years: quantitative, qualitative, and mixed techniques (Polit & Beck, 2004; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003). The quantitative tradition dominated research in the first half of the twentieth century (Cook, Campbell, & Day, 1979), but the qualitative tradition challenged the quantitative paradigm (Lincoln, Lynham & Guba, 2011). Several emerging authorities in mixed methods research have steadily adopted a new era in research methods.

According to Buchanan and Bryman (2007), the conflicts between paradigms that occurred in the 1980s have been replaced by a blend of both paradigms and methodological pluralism has arisen as the third methodological trend. This study does not intend to concentrate on the controversies of research techniques or the aftermath of paradigm shifts. This study explores paradigms' strengths and shortcomings, their relationship to the concept and philosophy of pragmatism, and how they might be used to answer research issues in education.

3.3 Research paradigm in educational research

Because issues regarding research paradigms mirror the researcher's philosophical perspective and determine how to approach research inquiries, the paradigmatic standpoint of research plays an essential part in the research design (Hathcoat & Meixner, 2017). According to Grix (2004, page 26), the paradigm reflects "the broad research strategy." As a result, the conceptualisation of the paradigm affects the research design. Guba and Lincoln (1994) state that a paradigm is "the underlying belief system or worldview that directs the investigator in ontologically and epistemologically essential ways, as well as in methodological decisions." A paradigm is "the investigator's fundamental belief system or worldview" (p.105).

According to Guba (1990), this worldview is characterised by three fundamental concerns: "ontology," "epistemology," and "methodology." According to Grix (2004), ontological views determine an epistemological position, influencing the choice of research methodology. This connection was discovered because ontological views determine an epistemological position. Ontology studies reality concerning the most fundamental concerns regarding what it means to exist (Crotty, 1998). According to Blaikie, ontological attitudes are "claims and assumptions made about the nature of social reality, statements about what exists, what it looks like, what units comprise it, and how these units interact" (2000). The ontological perspective influences the epistemological perspective of "how we know what we know" (Crotty, 1998).

In summary, epistemology is concerned with defining knowledge and articulating the various channels via which it might be obtained. According to Grix (2004), epistemology should be regarded as an all-encompassing philosophical word concerned with human knowledge's origin, nature, boundaries and the information-gathering process. On the other hand, the methodology is more applicable to real-world situations. It entails the preparation of a strategy, plan of action, process, or design before selecting and applying specific procedures to relate those methods to the intended outcomes (Crotty, 1998).

The educational research field employs various prominent paradigms, each taking a different approach regarding ontology, epistemology, and methodology. The positivist paradigm maintains that reality exists independently of our understanding (Grix, 2004). Positivism opposes the assumption that reality depends on the knower, and positivists view research projects as testing a theory or articulating a hypothesis using highly controlled data-gathering procedures, which will result in time- and context-free generalisations. Positivism is a school of thought that emerged in the late 19th century and has since been influential in philosophy, psychology, and linguistics (Nagel, 1986). This emphasis on controlling variables and pursuing statistically generalizable results is problematic for studies in many educational contexts because there is frequently no "correct solution" to a specific educational research question (Melrose, 1996).

The "world is socially and discursively formed by human actors," as the interpretive paradigm of the second paradigm puts it, is a central tenet of this interpretation (Grix, 2004). This paradigm lends credibility to the theory that the reality of a given setting is dependent on persons who possess distinctive qualities that cannot be generalised to apply to settings of a different nature. In this way, interpretive scholars view the social world as idiographic. They seek interpretations of the social life-world that are "culturally generated and historically positioned" (Pring, 2000:67). As a result, they

try to explain how different people understand the world regarding their perspectives, beliefs, values, cultural characteristics, and attitudes. Interpretive research studies do not seek to evaluate ideas that have already been predetermined. On the other hand, they involve investigating real-world scenarios in which the researchers are physically present with the data to comprehend the phenomenon better.

Neither the positivist nor the interpretive paradigms are beneficial for improving individual learning, educational systems, or social norms when trying to comprehend a phenomenon (Melrose, 1996). However, it is essential to remember that educational research does not have a significant impact unless it contributes to the field of study by presenting actionable strategies that can be used to enhance the learning and teaching processes. It is also common practice for policymakers to wait until they have indisputable statistical proof before changing. Bassey (1998) states that educational research should always be focused on enhancing policy and practice.

This is the most crucial issue that needs to be addressed by the critical paradigm. "To comprehend circumstances and phenomena and also to change them" is not the primary goal of critical theory (Cohen et al., 2007:26). According to the critical paradigm, research studies should focus on comprehending and altering qualities instead of only analysing or documenting them. In this regard, the objective of the study should be to "restore to consciousness those suppressed, repressed, and submerged determinants of unfree behaviour in order to facilitate their disintegration" (Habermas, 1984, cited in Cohen et al., 2007:28). In other words, the critical paradigm pursues knowledge through the examination of the social environment in which it is generated. Additionally, it tries to shed light on issues restricting the freedom of individuals living in democratic societies.

3.4 Constructivism

This study utilizes the social constructivism (Phillips, 2000) perspective to determine how a flipped classroom model can affect students' speaking ability in English classrooms while offering specific information regarding the perspectives of teachers and students and the methods of teaching used. With this perspective, the researcher assumes that by maximising the instructional time in the classroom, the students can have positive effects as measured by comparing pre-test and post-test at the end of the semester. Besides, it is also assumed that the designed lessons should be aligned with the course objectives.

The theoretical basis of constructivism is investigated in this study concerning its application to the instruction of students. Using constructivist principles, Hoover (1996) claimed that learners actively interact with new content to create meaning of material by experiencing it and combining that

information with a prior learning experience. This was done in order to make sense of the material. According to this learning theory, students in the flipped classroom model should participate in more classroom activities involving their hands, eyes, or interaction with one another. The students will be able to construct new meanings based on their previous learning experiences, including the new information they gain from viewing videos and other opportunities they have had in the past to learn and speak English. These experiences will allow them to do this.

Dewy, Piaget, Bruner, and Vygotsky brought constructivism to the forefront of learning theory. Piaget (1950) proposed that a learner's attempt to make sense of the world around them constitutes the construction of intelligence in that learner. According to Piaget (1977), this approach emphasises building knowledge to maximise educational opportunities. Throughout the many stages of schooling, constructivism can take many different shapes. According to Doolittle and Camp (1999), constructivism encompasses three different schools of thought: cognitive, radical, and social constructivism. One of the most fundamental forms of constructivism that Piaget developed was cognitive constructivism. Ernst von Glasersfeld (2013) is almost always mentioned with radical constructivism. It centres on the notion that an individual's life experiences and their interpretation of the world around them are the building blocks of their knowledge. The concept of social constructivism is frequently traced back to Vygotsky's body of work. It is the version that incorporates the tenets of radical and cognitive constructivism while also emphasising that knowledge can be shared and learned through social experiences. This kind of constructivism is social constructivism (Doolittle, 2015). In today's English language classes, this particular variety of constructivism can frequently be observed being put into effect (i.e., Aljohani, 2017; Amireh & Asl, 2015; Aydin, 2016; Kiraly, 2015; Kohn, 2018; Lam, 2015; McKinley, 2015)

3.4.1 Social constructivism

Students are at the centre of social constructivism, emphasising the social settings where individuals acquire knowledge (Vygotsky, 1978). The student is viewed as the primary driver of their learning, with the instructor's primary function being facilitation rather than instruction (Bada & Olusegun, 2015). Therefore, social constructivism is considered in this study since it is based on communication between students of the same academic level. This facilitates students' comprehension and research and establishes how knowledge is formed (Dewey, 2006). The notion of social constructivism places an additional emphasis on the collaborative character of educational endeavours (Jonassen, 1994). It could be used in group projects, conversations in the classroom, and asynchronous online discussions with instructors and classmates. If social constructivism theory is incorporated into the flipped classroom model, the efficacy of the flipped classroom model may be increased.

For students to have the opportunity to construct meaning for themselves, teachers need to be aware of the different types of activities they might develop to further students' comprehension of the material. According to Nunan and Bailey (2009), students learning English as a foreign language must be competent in formal linguistics, sociolinguistics, and rhetorical skills. These skills indicate that students know what to say and why they are saying it. Shumin (2002) also noted that the speakers' capability to talk effectively was a demanding interaction component. This is because effective oral communication needs the use of the language appropriately in social contact. The instructor is responsible for developing activities and projects for the class that will encourage students to think critically, formulate problems, and determine their objectives. According to Richards (1991), students will not become active learners by chance but rather by design, through structured strategies to stimulate investigation and enquiry

Parker, Maor, and Herrington (2013) argued that it is essential to integrate the needs of learners with creative pedagogies (such as a flipped classroom) and the use of technology in the classroom. They stated that combining these three aspects can create an ideal classroom environment for teachers and learners. They also argued that it is necessary to align the needs of learners with innovative pedagogies (such as a flipped classroom). Students can engage in self-directed learning at their own pace, particularly in higher education, thanks to the implementation of technology in the form of video-recorded lectures that can be made available in advance of the scheduled classroom time under the flipped classroom model (Brown & Green, 2015). Brown and Green (2015) stated that students could come to class more prepared. They should expect that the time allotted for the class will be used for interactive discussion, question and answer sessions, problem-based exercises, group work, and other hands-on activities that represent a social constructivist approach to learning. On the other hand, a video recording of a lecture is not adequate evidence of a social constructivist methodology, nor does it indicate that the classroom has been flipped (Hodges & Repman, 2011; Lane, 2008). The combination of in-class lectures and video recordings of those lectures allows for more time to be given to active engagement and student-centred, task-based learning, both of which are conducive to the constructivist learning method (Green, 2015).

Therefore, by utilising this theory, educators can ground the concepts of the English language in natural and meaningful applications. They can also design a learning experience that allows them to use their experience and prior knowledge to solidify the concepts further. Given this view that learners can construct knowledge, selecting meaningful tasks and using language discourse are crucial for facilitating a meaningful learning experience.

3.5 Selecting an appropriate research methodology

Research methods are often classified as quantitative or qualitative, with each category having a unique strategy for collecting data and interpreting the results. Even though the line between the two types of research is murky (Bryman, 2008), it is still feasible to distinguish between the qualitative and quantitative research approaches in terms of their natures. In its simplest form, quantitative research emphasises quantification in the data collection and analysis procedures (Bryman, 2008). In contrast, qualitative research focuses on understanding the importance of occurrences and events in people's lives (Smith, Denzin, & Lincoln, 1994). According to Blaxter et al. (1996), quantitative research investigates large-scale and representative data by numerical data analysis. This is the nature of the research.

On the other hand, qualitative research focuses primarily on non-numerical forms of data collection and analysis (Blaxter et al., 1996). According to Patton (1980), qualitative research allows for a more in-depth and comprehensive topic investigation. In contrast, deductive reasoning characterises the process of quantitative research. In this method, theory directs observation, and specific facts are collected and analysed to test a predetermined hypothesis (Draper, 2004).

When these presumptions are considered, it is easy to assert that quantitative methods typically reflect a positivist point of view. They want to acquire data that is both dependable and valid so that they can use it to support generalisations. However, rather than depending solely on a single category or category of procedure, researchers can blend the two following the study's aims. Johnson et al. (2007) defined mixed methods research as the form of research in which a researcher or team of researchers mixes qualitative and quantitative research approaches for the broad aims of breadth and depth, comprehension and corroboration. This combination was "the research style in which a researcher or research team mixes qualitative and quantitative research methods" (p. 123).

Mixed research methodologies are being considered by some researchers who are taking a more holistic approach. They believe that the theory of mixed methods research provides a solution to the so-called "paradigm wars," presuming that mixed methods research mixes diverse paradigms in its data collection and analysis procedures (i.e., Cameron & Miller, 2007; Bryman, 2008; Denzin, 2010; Terrell, 2012). This study acknowledges the validity of mixed methods research as a blend of approaches to data collection.

3.6 Meeting the purpose of research

This study's primary goal is to examine how flipped classrooms model affects L2 learners' speaking skills at one Indonesian higher institution. This study's key independent variable is teaching speaking. Teaching methods include a virtual classroom with comprehensive theoretical explanations, but students must do practical work or assignments outside of class without teacher supervision. This method involves students using computers to learn. The dependent variable in the General English course is speaking ability.

The researcher compared pre-and post-test scores and the results of the questionnaires to assess the flipped classroom model's effect. Throughout the study, statistical analysis was included in tables and figures to depict the research findings with student replies to interview questions. Morgan (2007) claims that quantitative research's inductive results can support qualitative research's deductive goals. While there is much information regarding flipped classrooms, actual evidence is limited. Speaking achievement for L2 learners in the EFL environment is even lesser, especially in higher education institutions. Thus, research on student views of the flipped classroom paradigm and its consequences on student speaking achievement is sparse.

3.7 Action research as a way of improving practice

In education, action research is systemic enquiry undertaken by teachers directly involved in the teaching-learning process to collect data about how their school performs, how they teach, and how their students learn. Action research focuses on resolving specific classroom or school issues, enhancing practice, and assisting with decision-making, which also shares the same characteristics as the current study. Action research was conceptualised by Kurt Lewin, a social psychologist who was active in the group dynamics movement of the 1940s. Its purpose was to develop a research approach founded on people's actual-world experiences and could manage situations that experimental methods could not. He was the first person to propose an action research theory, which ultimately led to the social science field respecting it. This theory presents action research as a circular sequence of procedures that involve planning, carrying out the study, and reflecting on the findings (Kemmis & McTaggart, 2014). Lewin believed that social scientists should include practitioners from the real social world at all levels of the enquiry process to understand and alter social practices (McKernan, 2013).

The need to find solutions to societal problems gave rise to the concept of action research. In the later part of the 1940s, numerous research on intra-organizational and work-life issues made substantial use of it. In the latter half of the 20th century, much empirical investigation was devoted to studying

job satisfaction and its connection to various working conditions (Kock, McQueen, & Scott, 1997). Lewin discovered that people alter their behaviour (act) when they need to modify it (reflect). They will adopt new behaviours based on their beliefs (actions). The social and work-life balance issues are prioritised in this research approach. His top priorities are improving the organisation and acquiring new knowledge (Kock et al., 1997).

3.7.1 Definition of action research

The concept of action research can be described in various approaches, each of which highlights aspects that are similar to and distinct from one another (Beaulieu, 2013). According to Crookes (1993), these concepts can be placed into either the conservative or the progressive camp, depending on the stance one takes. The progressive viewpoint emphasises action research as an emancipatory activity, in contrast to the conservative viewpoint, which focuses on the teacher-researcher part of action research. It is essential to portray two different definitions of action research. Although it is not appropriate to classify such an improvement-based concept using the term "conservative," doing so is helpful.

The first point of view examines the nature of action research as practice-based, intending to better classroom practice. In light of these definitions, the importance of action research to advance clinical practice cannot be overstated. According to this point of view, action research is a methodical inquiry by persons to comprehend, assess, and enhance their educational practices (Bassey, 1999; Somekh & Zeichner, 2009).

According to the definition provided by Somekh and Zeichner (2009), action research is a human social attempt that takes form and is played out differently depending on the social, political, and cultural contexts. This shows that the action research philosophy is not exclusive to the classroom but instead seeks to improve society because "as the extensive body of literature describing action research illustrates, changing practises communities as well as individuals" (Edward-Groves et al., 2016, p.323). Bringing about changes in social conditions as the consequence of group problem-solving and collaboration is one of the original purposes of action research, according to Burns (2010), who takes a similar viewpoint when considering the original goals of action research (p.12).

The classroom-based action research approach is at the heart of this study, designed with these action research concepts in mind. The current study endeavours to enhance classroom speaking practice by implementing a flipped classroom model and developing classroom procedures that maximise students' time engaging in classroom speaking practice. Action research allows participants to

critically evaluate a stimulus's effects and adjust subsequent interventions in response to their findings.

3.7.2 Types of action research

Action research requires the use of a philosophical framework as a result of its qualitative technique. The roots of action research may be traced back to progressive education in the United States, British curriculum reform, and improved levels of professionalism in the teaching profession. Action research in Australia began with collaborative curriculum creation (Lothian, 2010). Action Research was defined by Carr and Kemmis (1986) as being either technical or practical or even emancipatory.

These three action research methodologies were defined by Lothian (2010) as follows: Emancipatory Action Study derives from critical theory and postmodernism, whereas Practical Action Research focuses on how-to and how-do-I research topics that are not explicitly expressed theoretically. Both types of action research borrow from postmodernism and critical theory. It breaches bureaucratic traditions in the interest of reform and social development and shares a democratic dedication to the pursuit of knowledge.

Carr and Kemmis (1986) argue that emancipatory action research is the only type of study that can be considered genuine. As Zuber-Skerrit (2003) describes them, the three forms correspond to different stages of development. Therefore, conducting action research that begins with technical enquiry and progresses from practical to emancipatory levels is acceptable. In the end, the objective must be to improve practises, as well as to advise on and implement enhancements to the environment, the setting, or the variables that limit improvement and future development.

The participants, the goals, the role of the facilitator, and the interaction between the facilitator and the participants all have a role in determining the type of action research conducted. A research plan may call for an individual teacher to investigate a problem in their classroom, a group of teachers to investigate a problem they share, or a team of teachers and other individuals to investigate a problem in their classroom, school, or district.

Despite the variances in action research methodology, four common themes emerge; participant empowerment, cooperation through participation, knowledge gain, and societal transformation. Despite their differences, these action research methods follow repeating cyclical phases: Problem identification, data collection and organisation, data interpretation, data-driven action, and reflection (Ferrance, 2000).

Action research changes and allows practitioners to reflect on and improve their practice. After that, proposed ethical solutions are evaluated for validity and trustworthiness in the field, subjected to further action reflection, and adjusted or changed to answer the study question correctly (Lothian, 2010). Action research has been widely employed since its inception in the 1940s, particularly in education (Carr & Kemmis, 1986; Stringer, 2007; Whitehead & McNiff, 2006).

3.7.3 Characteristics of action research

Concerning the earlier definitions of action research, Nunan et al. (1992:17) proposed three essential characteristics: 'carried out by practitioners,' 'collaborative,' and 'aimed at changing things.' These three characteristics are 'carried out by practitioners,' 'collaborative,' and 'aimed at changing things.' The role of the educator as a researcher is the primary emphasis of the first attribute. Several researchers have expressed their support for this feature of action research (i.e., Berg, 2001; Burns, 2010; Denzin, Lincoln, & Guba, 2005; Newton & Burgess, 2016). Newton and Burgess emphasised the significance of the school as an actual location for action research to be carried out by the faculty rather than by outside parties (2016). Therefore, issues and concerns raised by educators should serve as the starting point for in-action studies (Crookes, 1993). Action research is essential in boosting educators' morale because it allows them to come to their conclusions and answers rather than imposing the views of others (Burns, 2010). "Teachers become producers and consumers of information" (Ronnerman, 2003, p.11) when they participate in action research, leading to classroom practice changes.

3.7.4 Action research in education

Corey (1953) was an early adopter of action research in education. Corey thought studying one's teaching leads to better teaching than reading about someone else's findings. Instead of generality, Corey believes the significance of action research lies in the change in everyday practice. This means that action research emphasizes teachers' involvement in their classroom difficulties in an EFL classroom. Its primary goal is to provide in-service training and development for teachers rather than general education knowledge. Action research changes teachers' reflection because it leads to informed reflection. Affirmative action positively impacts students, affecting teacher/researcher morale. Teachers can create knowledge by engaging in or doing research, especially action research (Johnson & Golombek, 2002). Teachers will be expected to interpret, socially negotiate, and continually reconstruct information within their classrooms and schools rather than forcing training and resources on their students. In terms of research on strategy training, according to Johnson and Golombek (2002), it is necessary to establish the credibility of teachers' experiences and the relevance of reflecting on an investigation into those experiences as a means for transformation in classroom

practises. They also believe that establishing the legitimacy of students' experiences is necessary.

3.7.4 Action research in TESOL and flipped learning

According to Rainey (2000), TESOL academics in the late 1980s were interested in action research since it aimed to improve practice. Several action research studies have been conducted on the most recent flipped learning approaches. Lee and Wallace (2018) researched how flipped learning influences students' learning outcomes, perspectives, and engagement in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms. They used data collection methods such as surveys and students' achievements to investigate the effects that flipped learning had on college students in South Korea who were studying English. Through action research, they could better understand the situation over time and apply that knowledge to develop their professional practice within their setting.

Wikispaces was utilised as an online learning platform in flipped English writing classes taught at the university level as part of another action research study carried out by Ha (2016) in the setting of Korean higher education. The participants consisted of twenty-seven Korean university students at the low intermediate level. The information was gathered by administering background surveys at the beginning of the semester, questionnaires about learning experiences at the end of the semester and conducting semi-structured interviews with six key participants. The researcher was able to fulfil a dual function as a teacher and researcher thanks to the application of an action research technique, which also enabled the researcher to enhance the quality of teaching by engaging in self-reflective analysis of classroom practices.

Güvenç's action research (2018) suggested that an action research project in a flipped college classroom can result in positive student attitudes and learning outcomes. This study's general objective was to evaluate the students' perceptions and attitudes toward a partially-flipped classroom approach by creating awareness with an action research project in an English preparatory class at TOBB University of Economics and Technology in Ankara, Türkiye. The study was conducted in an intensive English course for 23 students aged 18-20. Both quantitative and qualitative instruments were used, such as surveys, students' regular self-reflection (open-ended questions), and teachers' observational field notes.

Adnan (2017) conducted an action research study to understand senior-level course students' perceptions about flipped classroom model integration at the higher education level in Türkiye. The study was conducted at a Turkish public university in the English Language Teaching Department, with seventy students enrolled. This qualitative study used an action research design because it is user-

friendly, accessible, and practical.

These research studies on TESOL and flipped learning illustrate the efficacy of action research as a methodology. When it comes to the goals of these studies, it is evident that the fundamental objective of the researchers is to explore ways to improve classroom practice, regardless of the breadth of the research. In every one of the experiments, the researchers had an active part in the procedures that were carried out. They encouraged their students to voice their ideas by investigating and utilising various approaches to identify the problem's source.

Based on action research, the current study intends to improve the speaking abilities of Indonesian students of English as a foreign language by attempting to design interventions within a flipped classroom model and creating an appropriate classroom environment. Therefore, action research is the most suitable strategy for this situation. It offers a versatile research approach that enables the researcher to identify the problem, develop relevant interventions, and reflect on the solution. This will result in the modification of the following process cycle.

3.8 Drawing on the strength of quantitative and qualitative approaches

Many researchers still consider quantitative and qualitative methodologies incompatible, according to Teddlie and Tashakkori (2003). The quantitative approach has different strengths and drawbacks than the qualitative approach (Polit & Beck, 2004). Unlike the quantitative technique, the qualitative approach is better at generating hypotheses (Sofaer, 1999). Quantitative methods provide more objectivity and generalisation than qualitative methods (Francisco, Butterfoss & Capwell, 2001). Thus, researchers can benefit from both methods' strengths and flaws (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998).

This current study utilised action research with a mixed-methods approach to investigate the effects of the flipped classroom model on students' learning outcomes in a first-semester General English course. When quantitative or qualitative research alone cannot achieve the research goals, mixed methods research is selected (Creswell & Clark, 2007). The current study compares the mean of students' learning outcomes from pre-and post-tests and questionnaires. However, qualitative methodologies will be applied to gain a deeper understanding of participants' perspectives of the learning environment and its intricacies (Marshall & Rossman, 2014). This study used student interviews based on quantitative data from the quantitative phase.

The main reason for combining data-gathering methods is to build on or complement the outcomes of one method (Flick, 2018; Almedingen et al., 2021). It can also create a richer image and more

profound knowledge of the study problem by combining quantitative and qualitative data to gain deeper insights into participants' thoughts and desires (Mertens, 2019; McCrudden et al., 2019).

3.9 Combining action research with a mixed-methods approach

In addition to expanding participants' conceptual understanding, action research investigates new knowledge avenues (Coghlan, 2019). Research that employs mixed methods combines quantitative and qualitative approaches to generate innovative and more effective ways of comprehending interrelationships. To address a real-world problem in a methodical and dialectical manner by utilising various approaches, drawing on the experiences of various stakeholders, and ultimately delivering reliable and credible results (Ivankova, 2020). The complementary pairing of action research and mixed research methods is beneficial in more ways than one (Ivankova et al., 2018). The use of mixed methods procedures offers a way that is both practical and supported by robust scientific research for planning, implementing, and monitoring interventions (Ivankova, 2018). When conducting the pilot study, combining research approaches enables a comprehensive analysis of the issue from various perspectives. This helps in the development of a feasible action plan that is tailored to meet the requirements of the intervention participants.

Using a variety of methods to assess the effectiveness of the intervention comprehensively raises the probability of producing accurate and credible findings regarding the intervention's effects, paves the way for methodical evaluation of the intervention, and makes it more likely that it will be viable over the long term (Ivankova, 2018). Mixed methods action research puts the findings of previous research into practice by merging the qualitative perspectives of stakeholders with the quantitative findings that are evidence-based and data-driven. Increasing the likelihood that a successful intervention can be transferred to other settings, practices, and communities can be accomplished by designing, developing, and implementing data-driven interventions that take into account the specifics of the context (Ivankova, 2018). Furthermore, its pragmatic approach assists in illuminating and evaluating changes through time, all while satisfying standards for credibility and validity (Perry, 2009). Stakeholders now have the opportunity to participate in all stages of action research, such as data collection, analysis, and interpretation, which enables critical perspectives held by stakeholders to be heard and considered (Banyard & Miller, 1998). This active participation in the study process encourages stakeholder ownership and empowerment and maximises intervention effectiveness (Ivankova, 2018).

Researchers can more easily conceptualise a problem and articulate a justification for investigating it using mixed methods during the diagnostic phase. This is accomplished by combining the advantages

of quantitative and qualitative research approaches (Ivankova, 2018). A preliminary analysis of the problem that has been identified will be carried out using numerous data sources and the perspectives of various stakeholders during the reconnaissance phase. Mixed method conclusions from the problem assessment help design the intervention implemented during the planning stage. The plan for the intervention using mixed approaches is put into action when the acting phase begins. Researchers utilise various methods to collect quantitative and qualitative data in the assessment phase. Then they analyse the combined quantitative and qualitative results to determine whether or not the intervention achieved the expected objectives. The following steps will be determined based on a fresh set of mixed-methods inferences developed as a result of the evaluation of the intervention. The researcher can proceed with the planned intervention based on the assessment outcomes; they can also refine the intervention plan, return to the reconnaissance phase, and amend the intervention plan based on the new inferences drawn from mixed investigation techniques.

3.10 Mixed-methods design

Mixed-method research (Hunter & Brewer, 2003; Morse, 1991) is a more common name for the third methodological movement, after quantitative and qualitative (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). The mixed-methods approach has established a dependable and unique foundation of ideas and activities for alternative quantitative and qualitative paradigms (Denscombe, 2008).

Prominent experts in the field characterise mixed methods in a variety of ways. Creswell (2002) defines mixed methods research as collecting, analysing, and combining qualitative and quantitative data within a single study or multiphase programme. Morse (1991) defines mixed methods research as a plan for a rigorous scientific process comprising a qualitative or quantitative core component that leads the theoretical drive, with qualitative data constituting a subset of quantitative data. Additionally, Morse (1991) describes mixed methods research as a study design that concurrently and sequentially integrates qualitative and quantitative methodologies.

According to Greene, Caracelli, and Graham (1989), mixed methods research can be used for various reasons. These include (1) determining whether or not the findings obtained from various instruments are consistent with one another, (2) elucidating and expanding upon the result of one method with the help of another method, and (3) demonstrating how the results of one method shape following methods or decisions regarding research. The design should match the research challenges and goals one paradigm cannot accomplish alone. According to Smith, Denzin, and Lincoln (2008), a research methodology is solid if the research goals guide the data collection and analysis methodologies. Research must examine participants' learning outcomes and perceptions of a particular speaking

teaching strategy in seeking the efficacy of a flipped classroom for speaking classes. The primary hypothesis to direct this study is that L2 students' speaking performance will improve after the flipped classroom intervention.

This research design also affects three decisions: using acquired data, balancing quantitative and qualitative methodologies, and combining the two datasets. In other words, according to Creswell et al. (2003), the three essential factors in mixed methods design are priority, implementation, and integration.

3.10.1 Priority

Researchers may concentrate on quantitative or qualitative research during the data-collecting and analysis phase (Azorn & Cameron, 2010). The focus is on "research topics, practical restrictions for data collecting, and the need to understand one form of data before proceeding to audience preference" (p.98). Thus, researchers may combine quantitative and qualitative processes to appreciate a study problem better or achieve a research target, or they may apply a "single prevailing paradigm" and a restricted number of qualitative or quantitative procedures to achieve their objectives.

This study will use both quantitative and qualitative methodologies in three stages. Quantitative and qualitative data will be collected concurrently. Before collecting qualitative data to assess the personal experiences of L2 learners, the quantitative method will be given priority over the qualitative method (Wisdom & Creswell, 2013). That is, quantitative methods will be emphasised over qualitative methods in the study. This weighting is influenced by the study's mixed methods research design and goals. Both types of data can validate each other and conclude the intervention.

3.10.2 Implementation

Azorn and Cameron (2010) describe implementation as the sequence in which quantitative and qualitative data are acquired concurrently (concurrent, simultaneous, or parallel design) or sequentially (sequential or two-phrase design). In a concurrent design, data collection occurs simultaneously. During the same phase, qualitative and quantitative data will be collected. The concurrent embedded model is guided by a primary method and supported by a secondary database. In this study, the secondary method (qualitative) is integrated within the primary approach (quantitative) and addresses distinct topics.

The current study will use a QUAN qual concurrent embedded design. The concurrent embedded design will first focus on the learning outcomes of L2 students in a flipped classroom for speaking classes to predict favourable outcomes for L2 learners in an Indonesian university. The students will give their insights into the intervention through questionnaires and semi-structured interviews during the intervention. After the study intervention, qualitative data such as interviews will be collected to evaluate the students' impressions. The secondary database is collected to support the quantitative data and achieve various objectives.

The study's quantitative component is a one-group pre-test/post-test design. This study will use purposive sampling with one group of students from a private university in Indonesia. The efficacy of the learning model will be evaluated by comparing pre-and post-test speaking scores. A qualitative survey of students' views on flipped classroom model will be conducted at the end of the course to supplement the quantitative data.

3.10.3 Integration

Ivankova, Creswell, and Stick (2006) define integration as "the step or phases in the research process where quantitative and qualitative methodologies are mixed or integrated" (p.11). The concurrent embedded design will be utilised in this study to achieve the primary goal of an experimental design and a secondary question connected to the experiment. The merging of quantitative and qualitative data occurs at multiple stages: data collection, processing, and interpretation.

The pre-and post-test data will be analysed to identify participants for subsequent qualitative data gathering. Consequently, combining quantitative and qualitative research will depend on the gathering and processing of data. Quantitative and qualitative data will comprise two-thirds of the continuum. In this concurrent embedded design, students are interviewed following the pre-and post-test. Qualitative data will support quantitative results.

3.11 Concluding remarks

This chapter has outlined the research design and the methods employed for the current study. The purpose of this study is to assess the effect that using a flipped classroom model has on the language skills of Indonesian L2 learners by analysing both the positive and negative aspects of using such a model. This study intends to provide insights into how the flipped speaking approach can be effectively utilised in the L2 classroom at the higher education level. Based on the findings, this study plans to develop a flipped learning model appropriate for speaking classes for university-level L2 students.

The current study utilised action research with a mixed methods design. Constructivism was chosen as the primary theoretical underpinning for this study's research design and selection process. The use of constructivism enables the researcher to incorporate both quantitative and qualitative methods. Thus, it ensures that the purpose of the research and the benefits of both approaches contribute to answering the research questions. This can be accomplished by ensuring that the researcher takes into account both the purpose of the research as well as the strengths of both

As was covered in this chapter, there are various ways to acquire knowledge, and relying on either quantitative or qualitative research methods would not be enough to satisfy the descriptive requirements of this study. The action research and the mixed methods design were chosen because both forms of data could be used to better understand the relationship between learners' perceptions and provide an opportunity to see if the intervention affects students' speaking performance in a flipped classroom model. The following chapter will expand the outline of the study’s research design and hypotheses in greater detail.

Chapter Four: The current study

4.1 Overview of the current study

This chapter outlines the study's research design, hypothesis, and ethical considerations. The intervention design includes a flipped speaking classroom, instruments, and participants.

4.2 Research methods

There are two types of scientific research: quantitative and qualitative (Mackey & Gass, 2015). Quantitative research refers to empirical research that collects numerical data. Then they plan and execute experiments to test the theories. Experiment-based numerical data analysis concludes the investigation. Qualitative research obtains nonnumerical data in words and images through interviews and field observations. The current study employs a mixed-methods design, with quantitative data collection taking primacy and qualitative data collection as a complementary method to assist the quantitative method effectively.

4.2.1 Quantitative

This study used quantitative methods to evaluate two hypotheses based on literature and past research findings (Abdullah, 2019; Aburezeq, 2019; Bezzazi, 2019; Lee & Wallace, 2018; Li & Suwanthep, 2017; Quyen & Loi, 2018). This research's data is all numerical. This study included 14 sessions: 4 for Stage One, 8 for Stage Two, and 2 for Stage Three (see Table 4.1). Participants were requested to complete an initial, post-session, and final questionnaire. Pre-test, post-test, and questionnaires yielded quantitative data. Every week for 14 weeks, students received all fourteen sessions. Each session lasted about two and a half hours, and there was one session per week. Data analysis was done using statistical software SPSS v26.0 and Microsoft Excel 2019. Analyses of means (ANOM) and general linear model (GLM) were utilised. A general linear model was employed to discover inter-stage interactions (pre-test and post-test). Pre- and post-test speaking findings were compared using paired sample t-tests. An analysis of means (ANOM) was utilised to display pre-and post-test speaking performance means and standard deviations.

4.2.2 Qualitative

The semi-structured interviews with students who participated in the flipped classroom intervention for speaking classes were designed to help interpret questionnaire results. An individual interview was employed for this study to gain a more profound knowledge of the participants' viewpoints and their reasons (Carruthers, 1990). The researcher might ask additional questions to enrich the data, but the interview's goal remained unaltered. The interview data were coded and analysed using the

content analysis approach (Mayring, 2004) (see Appendix H and K for interview questions).

Table 4.1

Data collection procedure of the current study

Stage	Week	Date	Instrument(s)	Content
Stage 1	1	September 3, 2020		Introduction and Student Consent
	2	September 10, 2020	Student Initial Questionnaire	
			Pre-Test	
	3	September 17, 2020	Teacher Initial Interview	Selecting Interviewees
			Pre-Test	
	4	September 24, 2020	Student Initial Interviews	
Stage 2	5	October 1, 2020	Post-session Questionnaire and Interviews 1	Intervention 1
	6	October 8, 2020	Post-session Questionnaire and Interviews 2	Intervention 2
	7	October 22, 2020	Post-session Questionnaire and Interviews 3	Intervention 3
	8	November 5, 2020	Post-session Questionnaire and Interviews 4	Intervention 4
	9	November 12, 2020	Post-session Questionnaire and Interviews 5	Intervention 5
	10	November 19, 2020	Post-session Questionnaire and Interviews 6	Intervention 6
	11	November 26, 2020	Post-session Questionnaire and Interviews 7	Intervention 7
	12	December 3, 2020	Post-session Questionnaire and Interviews 8	Intervention 8
Stage 3	13	December 10, 2020	Student Final Questionnaire	
			Post-Test	
	14	December 17, 2020	Student Final Interviews	
			Teacher Final Interview	
			Post-Test	

4.2.3 Hypothesis

The current study's hypothesis is stated in Table 4.2 below.

Table 4.2

The hypothesis of the current study

Hypothesis	Statistical Hypotheses	Tests
Hypothesis: It is hypothesised that the speaking performance of L2 students will improve	H0: It is anticipated that the flipped classroom intervention will not affect the speaking performance of L2 students.	• Paired sample t-test • General linear model

following a flipped classroom intervention.	H1: It is anticipated that flipped classroom intervention will affect the speaking performance of L2 students.	• Analysis of means (ANOM)

It was hypothesised that the flipped classroom intervention would increase the speaking skills of L2 students. Previous research has demonstrated that flipped classrooms for speaking courses can improve students' speaking abilities (Riza & Setyarini, 2020; Sudarmaji et al., 2021; Alkhoudary & AlKhoudary, 2019). However, this research focused on flipped classroom instruction's impact on the speaking performance of secondary school students as opposed to L2 tertiary students from non-English speaking backgrounds.

4.2.4 Researcher's role

In this study, the researcher's role involves being a passive observer in the English language classroom, working in collaboration with the teacher to create the materials for the flipped classroom model. The researcher is not involved in teaching the class and instead is only observing the implementation of the model and collecting data for analysis (Savenye & Robinson, 2005). Access to the class and participants was obtained through collaboration with the teacher and the institution where the study occurs.

To address the ethical considerations related to the researcher's positionality as an outsider, the study has taken several measures to ensure informed and voluntary consent from participants. This includes providing participants with a clear explanation of the purpose and process of the study, their rights as participants, and how their data will be used. Anonymity and confidentiality are also protected, with all collected data being stored securely and only accessible to the researcher. The researcher has also taken appropriate steps to handle the data by ethical guidelines, including securely storing and disposing sensitive information.

In conclusion, the researcher's role as a passive observer in the classroom, in collaboration with the teacher, will help provide a comprehensive view of the implementation and effectiveness of the flipped classroom model in English language teaching and learning.

4.3 Stages of the study

4.3.1 Participants

Forty L2 students participated in the three stages of the study. All participants undertook a General English course, a compulsory subject in the first semester at the study site. The General English course is a subject that aims at improving students' academic English skills, primarily spoken language use. The participants of the study came from various regions in Indonesia. All of them are bilingual, with Bahasa Indonesia as their mother tongue and vernacular as their second language. All participants must enrol in this course as it is required by the Ministry of Education and Culture to improve their English proficiency. Before the study, the students had their placement test at the start of their admission into the university. They were assigned to classes based on the results of the admission officers. Therefore, all the students who participated in the study were at the same level, Level A2 of CEFR. This proficiency level indicates that students can comprehend sentences and frequently used expressions with immediate significance (e.g., basic personal and family information, shopping, local geography, and employment). In addition, students can communicate in easy, everyday tasks requiring a direct exchange of information on familiar and routine topics. Students can also communicate parts of their background, immediate environment and needs in basic terms. The General English course runs for 14 weeks covering six topics, two weeks each. Students who do not pass the course will have to retake the course next semester.

A total of 40 students from the first semester in the 2019/2020 academic year participated in this study. In the final section of the initial questionnaire, 15 students indicated their readiness to engage in the semi-structured interviews during the initial phase. In the post-session questionnaires, the number of students who voluntarily participated in the semi-structured interviews varied in each intervention session. Only 15 students could participate in the final interview because of their scheduling conflicts and personal reasons.

In this study, the participants were students from a single class who received the flipped classroom model instruction. After each class, each student received a questionnaire, and the following day, based on the results of the questionnaire analysis, students were invited to participate in semi-structured interviews. The number of students who volunteered to participate in the intervention sessions varied, but all students were allowed to participate.

In terms of the recruitment process, informed and voluntary consent was obtained from each student before their participation in the intervention sessions and the handling of data was done with ethical considerations (4.7). This included ensuring the anonymity and confidentiality of the participants and

their data. Additionally, the recruitment process was managed with the institution's approval and by ethical guidelines for research involving human subjects. The student's willingness to participate was, and they were informed that their participation was voluntary and that they could opt out at any time without consequences. The researcher also took measures to ensure that the recruitment process was transparent and fair, giving equal opportunity for all students to participate.

4.3.2 Stage one

The objective of Stage One is to obtain a basic overview of the learners' perceived English-speaking skills, their speaking challenges, and their pre-test speaking performance. During Stage One, classes were observed to gain context, emphasising classroom procedure and student responses to activities. It gave an awareness of the involvement levels of students in the classroom and the potential causes of ineffective classroom activities. The initial questionnaire and interviews will focus on the educational backgrounds, perspectives on various areas of English, and perceptions of English competence and speaking skills required to comprehend these concerns of the participants. The initial interview with the instructor is to collect demographic information and comprehend the phenomenon from the teacher's perspective.

In the first session in Stage One, an introduction to the study and student consent was conducted. The pre-test was also administered during the first session of the flipped-speaking classroom. The teacher did the speaking test for all 40 participants for 15 minutes, and the participants were given eight questions related to personal description and their dream job. Students were expected to be able to respond to the questions. Each response was graded on comprehension, fluency, accuracy, and complexity. The initial questionnaire for the students was conducted in the second session, followed by the teacher's initial interview and the student's initial interview in the third and fourth sessions, respectively.

4.3.3 Stage two

In Stage Two, weekly cycle interventions with eight interventions were implemented. In this procedure, the researcher engaged with the instructor during the week and adjusted based on the instructor's comments. Eight intervention sessions were specifically prepared for this research endeavour. Students have been instructed to access all course materials using Moodle. There were three activities: before, during, and after class.

The intervention session designs were identical. In before-class activities, the students were expected to watch three teacher-made videos on the topic and learn new vocabulary and grammar

points in Edpuzzle (https://edpuzzle.com). They were also expected to do the vocabulary quiz in Moodle (the university's Learning Management System – https://belajar.usd.ac.id) and participate in classroom discussions. In during-class activities, they joined the virtual meeting in Zoom (https://zoom.us), which is a video conference software, and followed the eight steps of the Synchronous Online Flipped Learning Approach (SOFLA) (see Section 2.4.6). In the after-class activities, the students reviewed additional materials in Moodle, made Flipgrid (https://my.flipgrid.com) students' response video assignments, and participated in the classroom discussion in Moodle.

4.3.4 Stage three

Stage Three involved collecting data about the whole semester and the students' speaking improvement after the intervention. The student's final questionnaire and post-test were administered, and student and teacher interviews were conducted to understand their opinions about their action research experience. In Week 13, the students participated in the final questionnaires and their post-test. The post-test was identical in structure and time, but the students were given different questions. After administering the post-test and final questionnaire, the students who left their contact details in the final section were invited to do the final semi-structured interviews the following week. The teacher's final interview was also administered the same week as the students.

4.3.5 Marking system

The students' speaking proficiency was assessed by measuring their pre-test and post-test scores, utilising a carefully crafted marking rubric. This rubric was developed based on the criteria for effective speaking performance, comprising comprehension, fluency, accuracy, and complexity. The score for each criterion was assigned on a 6-point scale, with equal weightage assigned to each criterion.

The Rubric used in this study was adapted and modified from existing marking systems used in language education research (Long et al., 2016; Musdi et al., 2019). The adaptation was made to align the rubric with the current study's specific learning objectives and outcomes.

Development of the Speaking Test The speaking test was developed specifically for this study and aimed to evaluate the participants' speaking proficiency in comprehension, fluency, accuracy, and complexity. The test assessed the participants' speaking skills before and after implementing the flipped classroom intervention (see Appendix O).

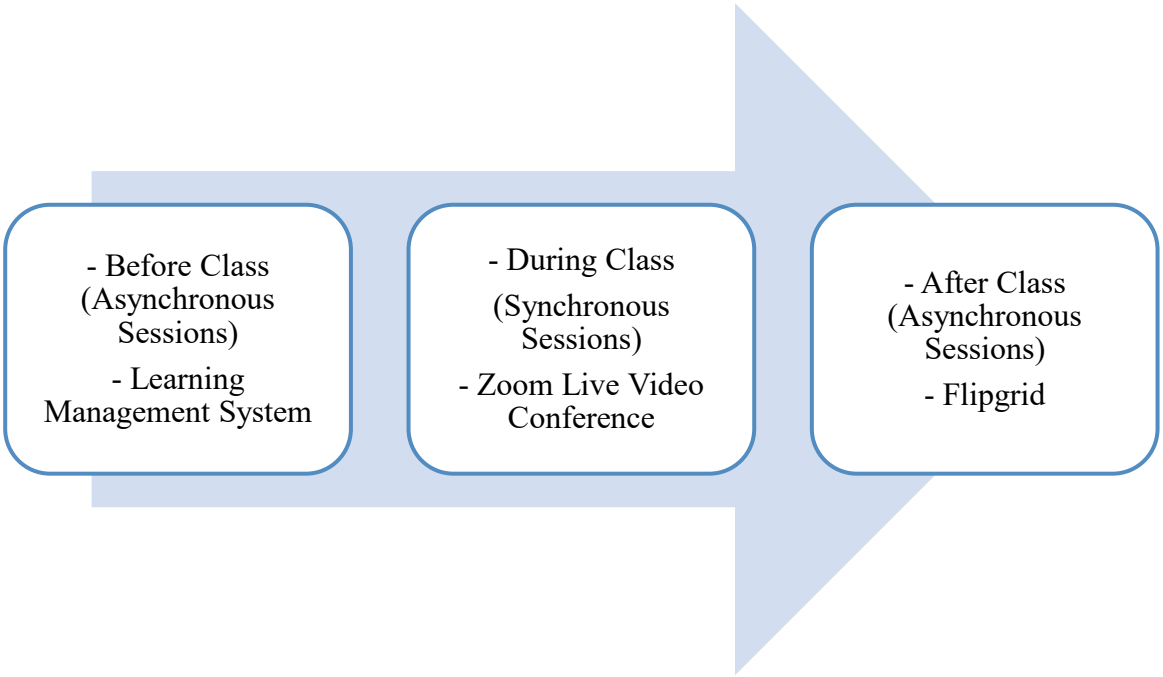
4.4 Procedures of the flipped classroom model

In this section, an explanation of the procedures of the flipped classroom model is given. All materials and activities were stored in Moodle, a Learning Management System (LMS). During the eight-week intervention, the students were required to follow the procedures of the flipped classroom model. Each week, there were three sections: before, during, and after class (see Table 3.3).

The model followed the flipped learning approach's principles, consisting of out-class and in-class activities, as presented in Figure 4.1. Out-class activities were conducted asynchronously and made into two sections; before and after class. In-class activities were conducted synchronously in a live video conference with the students. The course structure was built in Moodle, in which all the course content was stored online and accessible to the students.

Figure 4.1

The Summary of the Flipped Classroom Model



In this model, the students would do the comprehension groundwork before the class in the asynchronous session by watching pre-recorded lectures and pre-learning lexical resources and grammar points. The live session utilized the Synchronous Online Flipped Learning Approach (SOFLA). During the live session, the students could exploit task-based learning and free production, with the teacher focusing on the more complex language production and assessment task.

Table 4.3

Time Arrangements and Instructional Methods in the Flipped Classroom Model

Before class			During Class			After Class		
Activities	Time*	Method	Activities	Time*	Method	Activities	Time*	Method
Video and embedded quiz	30	Edpuzzle	Pre-work	5	Kahoot	Students' response videos)	10	Flipgrid
Discussion forum	10	Moodle	Sign-in activity	10	Padlet			
Quiz	10	Moodle	Whole class discussion	10	Zoom (Main Room)			
			Breakout Group Activities	30	Zoom (Breakout Room)			
			Share-out Time	10	Zoom (Main Room)			
			Preview and Discovery	10	Zoom (Main Room)			
			Assignment/ Follow Up	10	Zoom (Main Room)			
			Reflections	5	Padlet			

*Unit: Minutes

4.4.1 Before-class activities

This is the first time students would experience studying the materials alone in this model, and the materials were structured to be familiar to avoid or lessen panic. Therefore, the three-step process resembles the traditional class approach: watching videos, discussions, and quizzes. This structure also aimed to present the materials organised in an easy-to-follow fashion. Students watch short video lectures at home before class, while in-class time is allocated to exercises, projects, or discussions (Educause Learning Initiative, 2012).

The first step is watching the videos. First, the student would be introduced to the topic, activated their schemata, and readied to the materials. For each topic in the course, the teacher created the course's pre-recorded lectures. This resulted in 8 videos lesson for eight meetings (one video for each meeting) with an average run-time of 10 minutes. Recent research suggests that students' attention spans during online video streaming may be less than during in-person lectures, despite the lack of studies on student interactions with video lectures (Szpunar, Moulton, & Schacter, 2013; Kim et al., 2014; Guo et al., 2014). Guo et al. (2014) confirm student interest decreased significantly when videos were longer than 9 to 12 minutes. The videos were created using OBS Studio (screen casting software – https://obsproject.com) and a webcam, and audio was captured with a USB microphone. OBS Studio was chosen because it is freely available, easy to use, and uses a dual-screen setup to create live composite recordings on their computers, which is a significant benefit (Witton, 2017).

Students watched the videos while answering questions embedded in the video. There is a benefit to the students, including having the instructor's face in the video, where students may not see their instructor in real-time. This feature can boost teachers' social presence, often associated with increased retention rates, motivation, and learning levels in online courses (Belt & Lowenthal, 2021; Minor & Swanson, 2014). Bergman and Sams (2012) added that educators should carefully consider videos. Thus, Edpuzzle was utilised to embed the question in the video to be more interactive. Edpuzzle enables teachers to edit videos and add audio tracks, voice notes, and questionnaires (Baker, 2016). The advantages of this tool are its lack of cost, the speed of video uploading, the quality of videos imported after processing on the platform, the absence of restrictions on the number of videos hosted on the platform, and the simplicity of editing and viewing videos, and the fact that it facilitates formative assessment of students (Navarro, 2015). On the EdPuzzle platform, it is also a personalised lesson that students can view and answer as a homework assignment (Navarro, 2015). Furthermore, frequent opportunities for self-testing can enhance metacognition and foster self-assessment, reflective thinking, and adjustments to feedback, all of which are crucial elements of self-regulated learning (Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006).

After watching the videos, students were required to join the Moodle discussion thread. They utilised active-learning strategies within videos or as a supplement allowing students to engage with video lecture material actively. It may help students establish skills for self-regulated learning and good academic habits (Inman & Myers, 2018). Students are assigned homework or discussion questions to answer while viewing a video lecture (Kim et al., 2014). The students would next be required to complete the quiz in Moodle. The majority of the assignment's concepts and vocabulary are questioned. The benefit of retrieval practice (commonly referred to as the testing effect) has been

demonstrated by employing a wide range of instructional materials (e.g., prose, word lists, and paired associates) in several research (Kang, Gollan, & Pashler, 2013).

Numerous retrieval practice experiments (i.e., testing effect experiments) have demonstrated the memory benefits of retrieval practice using foreign words and their English translations, such as Eskimo (Carrier & Pashler, 1992), Swahili (e.g., Karpicke & Roedl, 2008), and Lithuanian (Carpicke & Roedl, 2008). (e.g., Vaughn, Rawson, & Pyc, 2013). Retrieval practice is superior to restudying and repeated studying with elaboration (e.g., Karpicke, 2009). (Karpicke & Smith, 2012). Even when individuals are highly motivated by financial incentives, retrieval practice outperforms restudying (Kang & Pashler, 2014). The students completed the quiz after seeing the films, participating in the discussion forum, and joining the virtual meeting.

4.4.2 During class activities

After completing the three procedures, the students joined a Zoom meeting to participate in a virtual class and meet their other students and teacher. Zoom is an easy-to-use application that offers a free base subscription and permits limitless audio and video recording sessions for pairs and up to 40 minutes for three or more participants (Bohinski & Mule, 2016). The students could construct a virtual co-presence and meet face-to-face to talk about their speech materials thanks to a service called Zoom videoconferencing, which served as a mediator (de Fornel, 1996). The students had completed practice activities before starting the eight-week intervention period. These activities included creating a Zoom account, recording a practice Zoom video, and then uploading it to Moodle, the Learning Management System (LMS) utilised at the students' university. These were done to ensure the students knew how to use Zoom for the research.

During the Zoom virtual meeting, the Synchronous Online Flipped Learning Approach (SOFLA) (Marshall, 2017) was utilised to replicate the teaching and learning processes and provide students with dynamic and interactive spaces. This was done to ensure that the meeting was as realistic as possible. The model consists of eight steps, which are as follows: pre-work, a sign-in activity; whole group discussion; breakout group activities; share-out time; preview and discovery, assignment and follow-up, and reflections. The first part of the pre-work required the students to conduct a comprehension check on the content they had acquired in the preceding segment. Before participating in the virtual class, they finished the lower levels of Bloom's revised taxonomy (Marshall, 2020). Then, the teacher assessed students' understanding using Kahoot (https://kahoot.it), a game-based polling software. The sign-in activity asked the students to apply the materials or relate them to their immediate needs (Marshall, 2020). The students did a collaborative activity in Padlet

(https://id.padlet.com). This website allowed students to post their ideas on virtual bulletin boards using a simple drag-and-drop system (Dewitt, Alias, & Siraj, 2015). This relevant communicative work provided practice with lexical and grammatical points. It assisted in activating the students' understanding of the issue following retrieval practice pedagogy (Schell & Martin, 2020).

In the following step, the students would participate in a group discussion in Zoom's Main Room. During this discussion, they would be engaged in a collaborative activity that either reinforces what they have learned from the asynchronous work, clarifies what they may have missed in the pre-work, or allows them to apply what they have learned from the asynchronous work (Marshall, 2020). The students would be questioned regarding the materials and allowed to discuss their thoughts in Zoom's Main Room. As the students finished their discussion, the teacher would listen in, observe, and offer guidance only when necessary.

The following step involves activities for smaller groups that will take place in Zoom's breakout room. The students would have the chance to collaborate synchronously in a small group or pair work during this process stage. As the students collaborated to complete activities based on the content supplied by the teacher, the teacher had the opportunity to stimulate discussion naturally (Marshall, 2020). The students were required to practise their speaking abilities in the breakout area by discussing the activities assigned by the teacher with their classmates. The students in the class were given the assignment to record 20 to 30 minutes of their conversation in the breakout area. Additionally, the students were tasked with uploading a Zoom breakout room session recording to Moodle for the instructor to examine. The students were not advised or forced to re-evaluate their performance while in the breakout area; they could do so.

After the breakout room session, in Step 5, share-out, the students would have to go back to Zoom's main room with their peers, where they had to present what they worked on and learned about their groups (Marshall, 2020). Each group's representatives would be invited to share their discussion. Other students from other groups were invited to give peer feedback. They would comment on the material shared. The teacher guided the students in these steps as they continuously retrieved prior learning to apply it to the new contexts. However, it would differ in Step 6, preview and discovery (Marshall, 2020). This step primarily prepares students for the upcoming materials in the next meeting, which addresses a significant problem in flipped learning: students might not complete out-of-class activities (Talbert, 2017). In this step, the teacher would explain the following meeting procedures to lead the students to explore the materials and identify gaps in their understanding.

In the next step, assignment/follow-up, the teacher would introduce the assignments, explain what the students were expected to do in the before-class activities for the next meeting and remind them where the resources they needed to access were located in Moodle. Explicit instruction was included to ensure the students were on track during the class. The last step in SOFLA was a reflection, in which the students would be asked to write a short testament, reflecting on what resonated with them the most (Marshall, 2020). This step utilised Padlet as an interactive whiteboard to post their responses and see each other's replies. This step provided an insight into what each student found most meaningful during their learning processes (Marshall, 2020).

4.4.3 After-class activities

The third phase of the flipped classroom model was the after-class activities. In this section, the students would have an opportunity to have a more concrete example and explanation through Flipgrid ((https://my.flipgrid.com). Flipgrid is an asynchronous online video discussion platform that allows sharing user-generated videos in a social learning community (Stoszkowski, Hodgkinson, & Collins, 2020). Flipgrid was chosen because of its recording and sharing features and cross-device compatibility. The task included reflection questions where the students were asked to post their response videos by replying to the teacher's video. This task facilitated collaborative online reflection on teaching and learning processes in the class. It supported the students' speaking skill development by providing an opportunity to showcase their skills through their videos on Flipgrid. It is supported by Petersen, Townsend, and Onak (2020). They suggested that Flipgrid has provided ways for teachers to set up activities to promote communication with each other inside and outside the classroom.

4.4.4. Instructional videos

Eight instructional videos were explicitly designed for the current project. The researcher and the teacher collaborated to design the materials for the videos. The students were asked to access the videos from Edpuzzle, where they watched the videos and answered the embedded questions. Two key video characteristics were presented to aid with creating videos for flipped instruction: multimedia design and interactivity.

Clark and Mayer's (2008) digital design principles were utilised to assess the design quality. They are the multimedia principle (judiciously select and add graphics to text), the contiguity principle (the place relevant text near graphics), the modality principle (explain graphics with audio), the redundancy principle (include audio that does more than read-aloud written text) and the personalisation principle (use a conversational tone when possible).

These principles have been linked consistently to students' learning from videos. In order to illustrate the principles in the current project context, the videos' overall design is presented. The videos presented relevant graphs and analysed them with spoken and written text (multimedia), and all the contents were relevant to the idea of the lesson (coherence). The relevant text was placed next to the graphics, helping the students understand the videos' ideas (contiguity). The videos also had a conversational tone, using personal pronouns and avoiding overly technical phrasing, and it was simply a narration from the text. The visual components from the videos were also highlighted to reinforce what had been said by the teacher in the videos.

The other criteria used in creating the videos for flipped instruction is whether they engage students in more than passive watching. Digital interactive features (e.g., quizzes and discussion boards) were utilised in the videos. The instructional videos included time and space for the students to participate in the video by asking the students to pause and providing a wait time for them to solve the questions before proceeding. Edpuzzle was utilised for this activity.

Edpuzzle is an application accessed through the web to produce interactive videos or lessons. This video platform allows the teacher to effortlessly include the principles of explicit instructions in the video classes they create (Cesare, Kaczorowski & Hashey, 2021). Teachers can monitor their students' engagement with video lessons because of Edpuzzle's in-built accountability capabilities, which are incorporated into the platform. Teachers can see how long each video a student has viewed and which parts of the video the student may have watched multiple times, indicating that the student may require further assistance. The ability for students to fast-forward or skip movies can be disabled by teachers, requiring them to watch the videos in their entirety before moving on.

The other feature utilised has been Discussion Boards located in the Learning Management System (LMS). After the students watched the videos and answered the questions in Edpuzzle, they were directed to discuss the open-ended questions provided in Moodle. Discussion boards were utilised because they could indicate students' performance. They could create a virtual network where they can ask questions, share their ideas and knowledge, and create a synergy between virtual members through interactions.

The details for each instructional video are as follows:

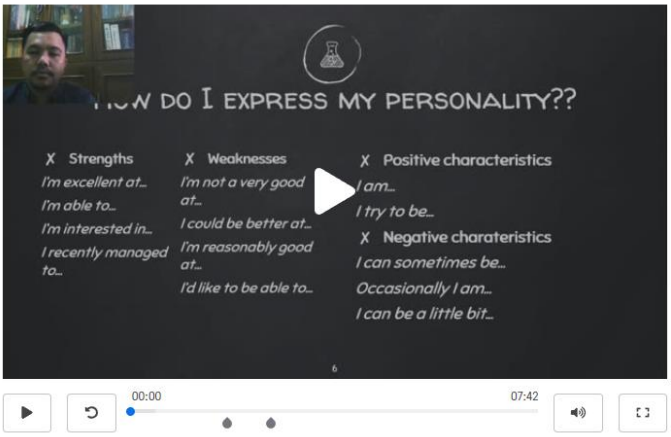
Instructional video 1 (07:42 minutes): Personal Description Part 1.

This video included the analysis of aspects when describing someone's description. In the video, the teacher explained that the description should cover three aspects (see Figure 4.2): strengths,

weaknesses, and positive characteristics. In the video, the teacher presented examples of expressions the students can use to answer questions about their personal information, including strengths and weaknesses.

Figure 4.2

An outline for personal description part 1

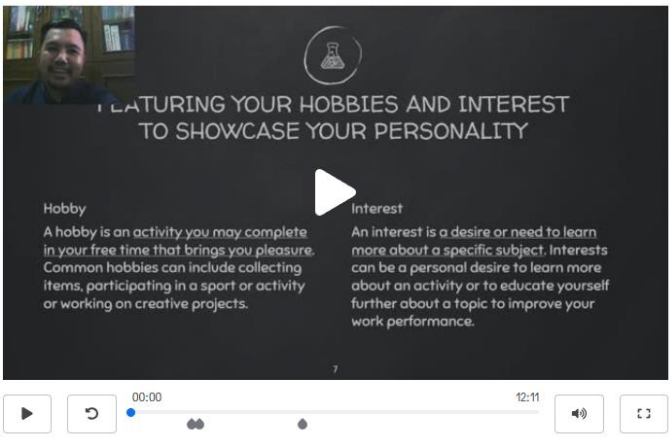


Note. From video assignment for personal description in Edpuzzle (https://edpuzzle.com/assignments/5f4731662358603f8cd68984/students). Copyright 2020 by Edpuzzle.

Instructional video 2 (12:11 minute): Personal Description Part 2.

Figure 4.3

An outline for personal description part 2



Note. From video assignment for personal description in Edpuzzle (https://edpuzzle.com/assignments/5f4731fb0dccfb3fa9a451eb/students). Copyright 2020 by Edpuzzle.

The video was the second part of the previous topic (see Figure 4.3). It presented information about hobbies and interests. The teacher explained the difference between the two terms and how to use them correctly in speaking. The teacher also discussed some simple phrases the students could use

when describing their hobbies and interests.

Instructional video 3 (11:09 minute): Describing Family.

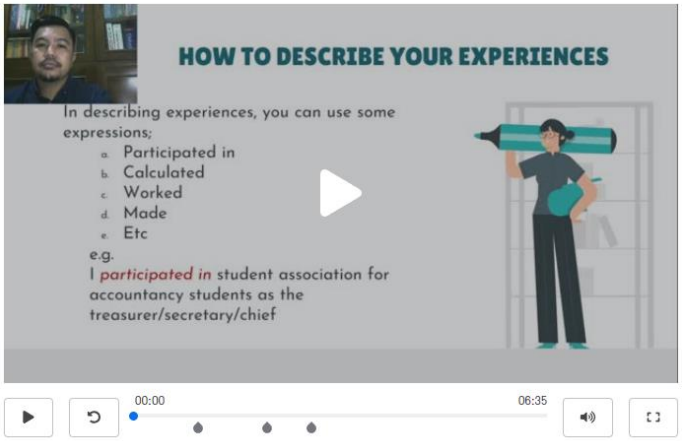
The video provided information about how to describe a family (see Figure 4.4). The teacher explained that the students could describe each family member individually. The teacher also provided some vocabulary that the students could use. The teacher also explained the use of adjectives and prepositions.

Figure 4.4
An outline for describing family

Note. From video assignment for describing family in Edpuzzle (https://edpuzzle.com/assignments/5f5c972a25c96040b257c916/students). Copyright 2020 by Edpuzzle.

Instructional video 4 (11:19 minute): How to Describe Your Experience.

Figure 4.5
An outline for how to describe your experience



Note. From video assignment for describing experiences in Edpuzzle (https://edpuzzle.com/assignments/5f66c54038b14740e9c92cbf/students). Copyright 2020 by Edpuzzle.

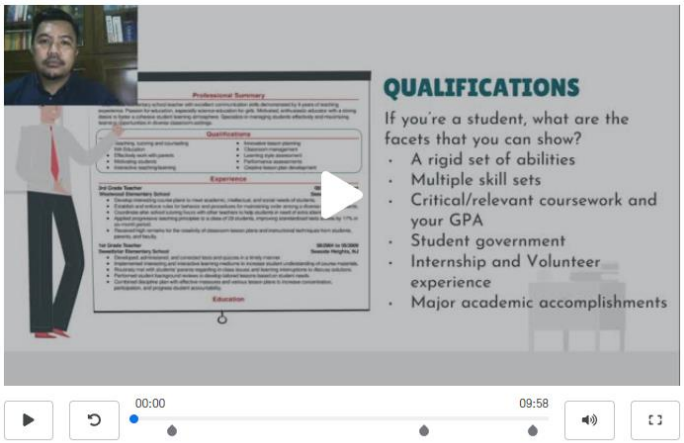
The video focused on the students' expressions when describing their experiences (see Figure 4.5). The teacher started by asking wh- questions, and the answers to the questions would provide the students with descriptions.

Instructional video 5 (09:58 minute): How to Describe Your Qualifications.

The video looked at how to describe qualifications (see Figure 4.6). The teachers explained that when answering about qualifications, students should provide examples. This shows students' qualifications and capabilities in action. When discussing a job description, the teacher also asked the students to focus on how their talent or ability helped the organisation.

Figure 4.6

An outline for how to describe your qualifications



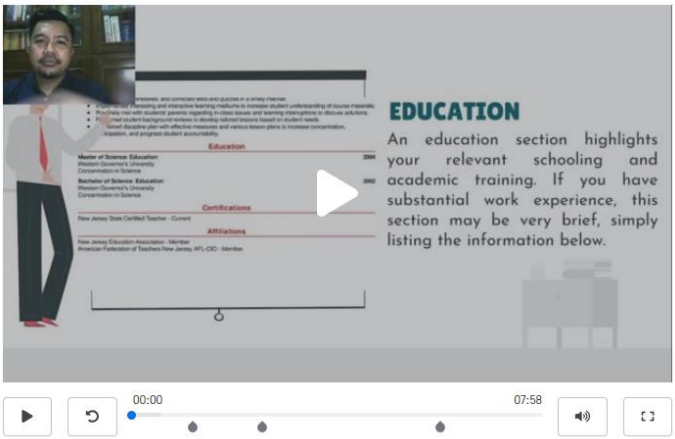
Note. From video assignment for describing qualifications in Edpuzzle (https://edpuzzle.com/assignments/5f7188967e624d40660b6ed6/students). Copyright 2020 by Edpuzzle.

Instructional video 6 (07:58 minute): How to Describe Your Educational Background.

The video provided information about students' educational backgrounds (see Figure 4.7). The teacher started by giving some English expressions that the students could use. The teacher explained that the students should start with their most recent formal education. The teacher also asked the students to elaborate on the information already provided by discussing a subject that benefited them the most. The last part of the video focused on finishing the description by discussing what the students want to do to continue their education, including education courses or certification programs.

Figure 4.7

An outline for how to describe your educational background



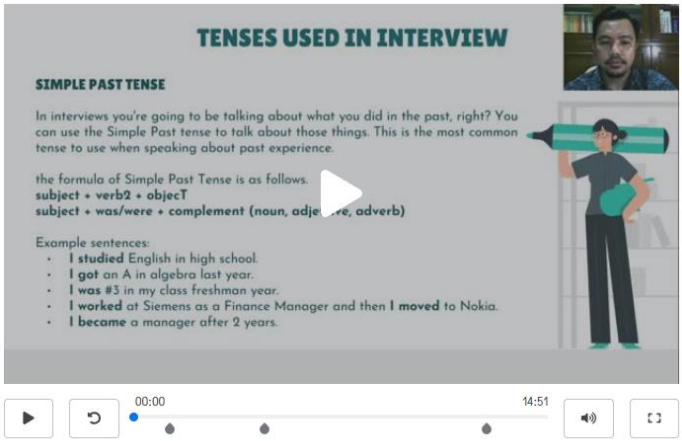
Note. From video assignment for describing educational background in Edpuzzle (https://edpuzzle.com/assignments/5f7188ba9c710340ae249525/students). Copyright 2020 by Edpuzzle.

Instructional videos (14:51 minute): Tenses Used in Interview.

The video provided information about the tenses utilised in the interview (see Figure 4.8). The teacher explained several tenses they could use: past tense, present simple or present continuous, and future simple.

Figure 4.7

An outline for tenses used in an interview.



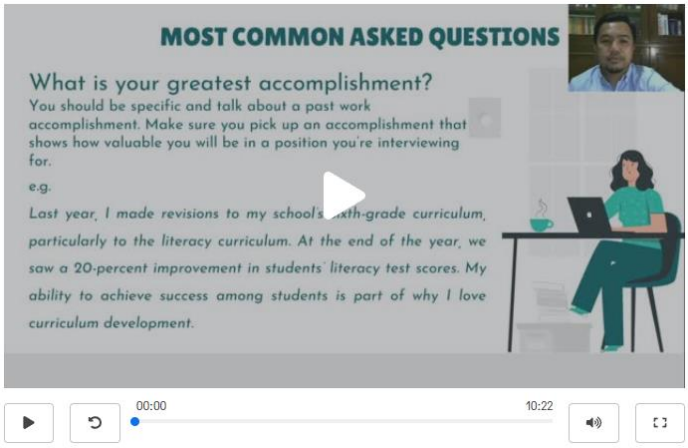
Note. From video assignment for tenses used in an interview in Edpuzzle (https://edpuzzle.com/assignments/5f849aee3cb34a40d70fcd81/students). Copyright 2020 by Edpuzzle.

Instructional videos 8 (19:47 minute): Most Commonly Asked Questions.

The video provided information about some of an interview's most asked questions (see Figure 4.9). The teacher also explained possible answers to the questions and some necessary expressions the students could utilise during their interview session.

Figure 4.9

An outline for most commonly asked questions.



Note. From video assignment for most commonly asked questions in an interview in Edpuzzle (https://edpuzzle.com/assignments/5f8dc0157cc75740b81b7511/students). Copyright 2020 by Edpuzzle.

4.5 Questionnaire

Online anonymous open-ended questionnaires were used to observe patterns and make comparisons. Students were provided with the opportunity to add comments to support their responses. The questionnaires can be found in Appendix F, G and J.

The second step of this study was the delivery of a survey questionnaire. According to Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2017), the final step of a study can be "confirmatory, in which a model, causal relationship, or hypothesis is tested" (p.335).

The questionnaire's objective in Stage One was to find participants' background, English language learning experiences and proficiency, factors affecting speaking class, and perception of speaking class. In Stage Two, the purpose of the questionnaire is to understand the participants' views about the effectiveness of the intervention. In Stage Three, the questionnaire aims to determine participants' perceptions of the flipped classroom and their level of improvement in speaking skills and achievement of learning outcomes. Students who consented to participate in the study were given 30 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

4.5.1 Development and design of the questionnaire

In the second step of the study, a survey questionnaire was administered. Before administering the final version of the questionnaire, a pilot study was conducted on a small sample to assess its clarity and understandability. Based on the pilot results, necessary modifications were made to improve the questionnaire's validity and reliability. As indicated by Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2013), the ultimate goal of the study is to test a model, hypothesis, or causal relationship. Thus, the questionnaire is a confirmatory tool in examining the research question.

Several methods were employed to establish the reliability of the questionnaire used in this study. One of the methods used was calculating coefficient alpha, a commonly used statistical measure to determine the internal consistency of a set of questionnaire items. The results indicated a high coefficient alpha ($\alpha = 0.87$), demonstrating the consistency of the questionnaire's items in measuring the construct of interest. In addition, the questionnaire was pilot-tested on a small sample to assess its clarity and understandability, and necessary modifications were made based on the pilot results to improve the questionnaire's content validity. Test-retest reliability was also assessed by administering the questionnaire to the same group of participants two weeks apart, resulting in a high correlation coefficient of $r = 0.89$. These results demonstrate that the questionnaire used in this study can be considered reliable and valid for measuring the construct of interest.

The development of the questionnaire began in August 2019. The questionnaire was adapted and modified from previous research (Amiryousefi, 2017; Li & Suwanthep, 2017; Yesilnicar, 2019). There were three types of questionnaires in the current study. There was an initial questionnaire in Stage One. In Stage Two, post-session questionnaires were administered to the participants. Then, a final questionnaire was conducted in Stage Three.

The questionnaire responses were graded using a 4-point Likert scale, with one representing strong agreement and four representing strong disagreement. Because neither agreeing nor disagreeing was an option on the scale, the researchers used the Likert method instead. Moreover, the participant's responses were more likely to convey their perspective of the flipped classroom. Both positive and negative statements were intended to be included in the items included in the surveys. The articles drew on the essential concepts from the research done on the flipped classroom.

After that, the preliminary trial version of the questionnaire was administered to eighty students enrolled in a General English course at a private institution in Indonesia. Cronbach alpha values were computed for each scale to investigate the reliability of the questionnaire. These values were

compared to the actual values on the questionnaire. In addition, a factor analysis was carried out to determine whether the components contributed to the planned scales.

It was anticipated that the results of the preliminary test would give the justification for the development of a questionnaire that included scales. After the first test was completed, the questionnaire was modified by adding new questions and removing those that did not appear to correspond to the scales' developing identity and the ones that had been removed. This process of testing and adjusting has been performed a total of two times. The reliability of the scales was tested at each level, and confirmatory factor analysis was also performed. Items that did not contribute to a scale were either adjusted or eliminated, depending on which was most appropriate. They were changed with new components that were more in line with the developing identity of the scales, which was mirrored in the components that were kept.

It is not unusual for questionnaires to require a development procedure that includes numerous steps of trial and review. In this scenario, the most significant challenge was that the scales evaluated characteristics that may complement each other, be present in the same students, or even be applied to the same tasks. Since this was not the case, the researcher did not gain the benefits of the discrimination that may be found in questionnaires that includes similar traits.

4.5.2 Pilot for questionnaire

It was essential to conduct a pilot of the questionnaire, which took fewer than 20 minutes because it was possible that students with a lower level of proficiency would be unfamiliar with some words and phrases. On July 28, 2020, between 3:00 and 4:30 pm, the questionnaires were piloted with ten students in preparation for the data collecting that would take place in the second part of the project. All students taking the General English course during the previous semester were eligible for pilot research participation. Participants in the pilot project were given a sheet of information, a participation consent form, and a confidentiality agreement (see Appendix B).

The ethics application was sent to the Swinburne University Human Research Ethics Committee (SUHREC), and on July 14, 2020, it was approved to proceed (SHR Project Reference 20202998-4725). The time and location for the pilot experiment were determined, and the pilot method of providing the students with an explanation of the research and information regarding their rights was carried out. It took them, on average, twenty minutes to finish filling out the questionnaires. After completing the questionnaires, a discussion was conducted to assist the researcher in refining the questionnaire.

Seven out of ten students expressed satisfaction with using the 4-point Likert scale during the discussion. Only one student offered a different possibility that may be considered neutral or uncertain. As he explained, he was unclear about his position on a few questions in the questionnaire and would prefer to take a neutral position. On the other hand, they all concluded that they needed to engage in significantly more difficult thought to arrive at a conclusion in which there was no neutral position. As a result, the answers on a 4-point Likert scale were maintained for each enquiry throughout each stage.

4.5.3 Administering the questionnaire

The initial questionnaire was administered to the student at the beginning of Stage One before the flipped classroom intervention was implemented to gain data about participants' previous learning experiences and perceptions of speaking skills. The post-session questionnaire was administered right after each intervention session finished to explore the effectiveness of each intervention session. The final questionnaire was conducted at the end of a flipped classroom intervention to investigate the participants' experiences, explore their achievements, and determine their learning outcomes.

4.5.4 Quantitative data analysis

Quantitative data analysis was performed to analyse the speaking test results and the questionnaire. The data collected from the speaking test was analysed by scoring the students' responses based on the speaking rubrics. The scores were then tabulated and calculated for each student in each session to compare their pre-test and post-test results. The questionnaire data were analysed using descriptive statistics such as frequency, percentage, and mean. The Likert scale responses were transformed into numerical values to enable the calculation of the mean and standard deviation.

4.5.4.1 Statistical software

IBM SPSS version 25 was used for the data analysis. IBM SPSS is widely used for statistical analysis in education and is suitable for analysing data collected from a large sample size (Pallant, 2020). The software was used to perform descriptive statistics, independent t-tests, and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to determine the differences between the students' pre-test and post-test scores and to determine the effectiveness of the flipped classroom intervention.

4.5.4.2 Hypothesis testing

Hypothesis testing was performed to determine if there was a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the students who participated in the flipped classroom intervention. The null hypothesis was that there was no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the students who participated in the flipped classroom intervention. The alternative hypothesis was that there was a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the students who participated in the flipped classroom intervention.

4.5.4.3 Significance level

The significance level used in this study was set at 0.05. This means the results were considered statistically significant if the p-value was less than 0.05. The p-value was calculated using IBM SPSS version 25 to determine the significance of the results.

4.5.4.4 Data interpretation

The results of the data analysis were interpreted based on the hypothesis testing and the significance level. If the results were statistically significant, the hypothesis was accepted, and the null hypothesis was rejected. If the results were not statistically significant, the hypothesis was rejected, and the null hypothesis was accepted. The results were presented clearly and concisely in the study's Results section.

4.6 Semi-structured interviews

As a social activity (Talmy, 2010), interviews included action and reflection. They are methodical. Interviews are used to collect and deliver information. Participants can reflect on what they understood and did in flipped classroom model for speaking classes. By using interviews to obtain and present participants' values, beliefs, perceptions, attitudes, and experiences will be theorised.

4.6.1 Rationale for interviews

Interviews were chosen for this study because they can add depth to an issue. DiCicco-Bloom and Crabtree (2006) indicate that qualitative interviewing is required to encourage the interviewee to offer comprehensive accounts of occurrences while leaving interpretation or analysis to the investigators to comprehend better and develop hypotheses. A qualitative research interview contributes to a conceptual and theoretical body of knowledge, depending on the meanings that respondents' life experiences carry for them (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006). Interviews allowed this study to

collect extensive data about students' perceptions and achievements in a flipped classroom for speaking classes. According to Bogdan and Biklen (2007), good interviews can provide rich data containing words that indicate the respondents' ideas. This is critical to the study since each L2 learner's perception and learning experience in a flipped classroom is individual.

Unstructured, semi-structured, and structured interviews are all types of qualitative interviews. According to DiCicco-Bloom and Crabtree (2006), semi-structured interviews are the most often utilised interviewing format in qualitative research. Semi-structured interviews were chosen for the current study because they "include a set of essential questions followed by more open-ended inquiries" (Mutch, 2005, p.126). By providing flexibility and comparable data among participants (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007), semi-structured interviews help researchers better understand flipped classrooms and their impact on students' speaking performance. Without the researcher's prior knowledge, a semi-structured interview with open-ended questions allows "the analysis to emerge" (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007, p.79). Participants' scope and depth of information are limited in structured interviews, whereas a semi-structured interview promises depth by clarifying topics presented in the interview and questionnaire. In this study, two semi-structured interviews were conducted in Stage One, eight were conducted in Stage Two, and two were conducted in Stage Three. Participants were chosen for interviews depending on their willingness to participate.

4.6.2 Development and design of the interviews

In September 2019, semi-structured interviews were designed and developed to gather insights into the participants' experiences and perceptions of the flipped classroom. The interview questions were adapted from previous studies that investigated the impact of flipped learning on language skills (Musdi et al., 2019; Rachmawati et al., 2019; Long et al., 2016).

Five types of semi-structured interviews were employed in this study to understand the experiences of both students and teachers. In Stage One, student and teacher initial interviews were conducted. In Stage Two, post-session interviews were administered to participants to assess their experience after using the flipped classroom model. In Stage Three, final student and teacher interviews were conducted to gather further insights and reflections on using the flipped classroom.

The interviews were divided into three parts:

Part 1: Engagement questions were designed to introduce the participants to the topic and make them comfortable with the interview process. These questions aimed to build rapport and establish a positive atmosphere for the rest of the interview.

Part 2: Exploration questions were central to the interviews and aimed to get to the core of the participants' experiences and perceptions of the flipped classroom. These questions were designed to gather in-depth insights into how the flipped classroom impacted the students' speaking skills.

Part 3: Exit questions elicited participants' thoughts on improvement areas and whether they had any further questions. These questions aimed to comprehensively understand the participants' experiences and offer recommendations for future research.

Incorporating previous research on the impact of flipped learning on language skills allowed for a comprehensive exploration of the experiences and perceptions of both students and teachers in this study. The semi-structured format allowed the participants to express their thoughts and experiences in their own words while still allowing the researcher to gather meaningful and relevant data.

4.6.3 Pilot of interviews

The interview questions at each stage, including the pilot stage, were tested on a sample of the target demographic. Using this method, the researcher could determine whether the respondents comprehended the questions and instructions and shared a common understanding of the meaning of the questions.

Five students from an Indonesian private university in Yogyakarta, Indonesia, participated in the pilot for the semi-structured interviews. This was performed for two reasons: (a) to check that the interview guide was adequate and (b) for administrative concerns, to guarantee that the interview procedure was practical and feasible. Both goals were accomplished.

4.6.4 Procedures

The researcher emailed all potential participants for the initial interview phase in August 2020. The information sheet was emailed to the students and the teacher, and by mid-August 2020, a schedule was finalised. The interviews were conducted via virtual meetings between August 2020 and September 2020. This was due to the worldwide Corona Virus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic. For the post-session questionnaires, the researcher contacted the possible participant by email after they left the contact in the post-session questionnaire. The interview was conducted one day after each intervention session through virtual meetings. The researcher emailed all potential interview participants for the initial interview in December 2020. A schedule was finalised by mid-December 2020 after the post-test was administered through virtual meetings. All the interviews were conducted in English.

The students were briefed verbally about the study prior to the interview. Students were advised of their rights as participants and asked to sign a consent form. The participants were also notified that the transcription would be emailed for review and clarification. When students agreed that the transcription accurately captured the interview, they were asked to sign and return the transcript authorization form to the researcher. Each student's interview lasted at least 30 minutes and was digitally recorded.

4.6.5 Semi-structured interview analysis

This qualitative research study has three primary components. The first component is the semi-structured interview data. The second component is the researcher's methods for interpreting and organising data. Coding is the process of conceptualising, reducing, elaborating, and relating. The third component is written and oral reports (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Transcription, coding, analysis, and interpretation are phases in qualitative data analysis from semi-structured interviews. It comprises "systematically searching and arranging interview transcripts, field notes, and other resources that the researcher acquires to come up with findings," according to Bogdan and Biklen (2007, p.159).

4.6.6. Transcription

After digitally capturing the semi-structured interviews, the data were transcribed using the denaturalised technique, which argues that the meanings and perceptions within speech construct our environment (Cameron, 2001). This literal portrayal of speech focuses on informational content (MacLean, Meyer & Estable, 2004). Participants double-checked the transcriptions' translations before giving informed consent to avoid inaccuracies. Field notes were recorded and typed for later analysis (Edhlund & McDougall, 2016).

4.6.7 Coding

After the transcription, the "core process" of whole-text analysis commenced (Holton, 2007). Smith et al. (2010) stated that "coding is a strategy to structure the data so that the researcher may better understand the underlying messages." Charmaz (2014) defines coding as the link between data gathering and interpretation. Saldaa (2021) mentions two coding cycles. The first cycle involves segmenting the data using N-Vivo v12 and initial coding. Researchers use focused axial and theoretical coding techniques to compare codes, identify patterns, and reorganise data into groups.

The specific word or phrase of the participants serves as a code (Saldana, 2021). In N-Vivo, coding allows participants to record crucial phrases in their original form, ensuring correctness and helping to clarify their experiences. The participant's thoughts were summarised into brief sentences to be

evaluated later. After the initial coding cycle, the data were verified to guarantee accuracy. Saldaa (2015) suggests opening coding to highlight significant points in the second coding cycle. In order to conduct axial coding, the focus was on emergent patterns centred on similar themes identified through opening coding. The final level of coding is "dynamic and fluid" (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p.101). To refine codes and eliminate redundant coding categories, the researcher must read the transcription multiple times. The researcher performed all transcribing and coding to verify the findings' consistency and trustworthiness. The following section discusses several ways to ensure trustworthiness and credibility.

4.6.8 Analysis and interpretation

According to Bogdan and Biklen (2007), the analysis includes "working with data, organising them, reducing them to manageable components, coding, synthesising, and searching for patterns" (p.147). Interpretation entails "explaining and contextualising your opinions regarding theory, other studies, and behaviour" (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007, p.147). The qualitative data interpretation employed inductive analysis, which "permits the fundamental analysis dimensions to emerge from patterns identified in the case under investigation without presuming what those dimensions would be" (Quinn, 2002, p.56). The raw data from participants' descriptions of flipped classroom experiences in speaking classes indicated repeating themes. The study's nature influences the analysis and the researcher's personality, interests, and experience as an L2 English teacher.

4.6.9 Trustworthiness of qualitative findings

Credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability are all aspects of trustworthiness in qualitative findings (Shenton, 2004). Internal validity refers to a study's reliability, rigour, and quality (Malterud, 2001). In addition to digitally recording student interviews, clarifying participant meanings in the interview, having respondents review and confirm the interview transcripts, and providing a 'thick' description of the phenomenon under study, Shenton (2004) believes a strong familiarity with participants' cultures can help build credibility. Shenton (2004) also recommended member checks to confirm participant replies and ensure the researcher reads them accurately. This study's trustworthiness increased by using targeted participant selection procedures and interviewing specific classroom cultures based on relevant research. Participants were also kept anonymous during private interviews. All email interaction was kept private, questions were designed to allow respondents to express their experiences, and critical stakeholders were regularly debriefed, allowing for greater accountability and fidelity of research. The data was collected throughout three phases and from various sources to ensure credibility.

It applies a study's findings to different settings (Merriam, 1998). A good understanding of the topic enables readers to "compare the events described in the study report with those they have observed in their situation" (Shenton, 2004, p.70). This study addressed dependability (rather than reliability) by offering a full methodological description to assure "the stability of findings and confirmability of data's internal coherence in terms of findings, interpretations, and recommendations" (Hartnett, 2010, p.45). Despite the study's focus on perception, the nature of flipped classrooms may differ based on local culture, demography, and resources. A clear explanation of the study and its findings would make replication possible.

Objectivity and confirmability are associated with qualitative studies (Schwandt, Lincoln & Guba, 2007). This study included triangulation, numerous data sources, and coding to ensure that the conclusions are "the outcome of the informants' experiences and thoughts, not the researcher's qualities and preferences" (Shenton, 2004, p.72). The detailed methodology description lets readers "judge the extent to which its findings and conclusions may be accepted" (Shenton, 2004, p.72).

4.7 Ethical considerations

The study followed Swinburne University's Human Ethics Committee guidelines, which emphasise avoiding harm to students and the university. Ethical approval from the Swinburne University of Technology was applied for and received (see Appendix E). All precautions were made to ensure the institution's and participants' ethical requirements were met. Students were asked to consent to be part of this study and were assured that their participation (or non-participation) in the project would not impact their learning.

On the first day of class, enrolled students received a welcome email from the teacher via Moodle. After the welcome email, students were provided with the consent information and informed that they could not be individually identified. Also, only the project's primary researcher could access the coded data. By the end of the semester, it was anticipated that the students would have improved their speaking correctness and fluency. The following section elaborates on informed and voluntary permission, anonymity and secrecy, cultural concerns, and the researcher's position.

4.7.1 Informed and voluntary consent

Informed consent is required in human subjects research. Informed consent has long been since "research participants must assess the risks and advantages of participating in a research endeavour before deciding whether to participate" (Howe & Moses, 1999, p.24). Participants were given an information sheet (see Appendix A, B, C, and D) on the researcher's background, the project's

objectives, participant identification and recruitment procedure, data management, and participants' rights (see Appendix A1, C1, and D1). Moreover, before each data collection phase, the researcher verbally informed participants of the study's goals and rights, allowing them to ask questions.

4.7.2 Anonymity and confidentiality

Wiles et al. (2006) assert that confidentiality and privacy are frequently associated. This signifies that "what has been said will not be repeated or will not be repeated without authorisation" (p.3). Cohen et al. (2017) stated that researchers must maintain the confidentiality of information and informant identities. The consent forms were kept separate from the data, and the findings did not identify the respondents or divulge their information.

This anonymity keeps the author's name and identity hidden from the public. In the pilot study, the researcher was the only one who knew the participants' names. This ensured that the participant's responses were unrelated. The participants also signed a confidentiality agreement stating that the researcher would not divulge the material shared in the interview and not be identified as participants in the pilot project—each participant's interview assigned non-identifying variables (a letter and a number). We could identify this number's transcription and other papers associated with the participant. Participants' names and numbers were kept separate from the data (Stuckey, 2014).

While confidentiality and privacy are essential components of research ethics, it is also crucial to address the role of the researcher in the study setting. In this study, the researcher's role as a passive observer is clarified, and the process of obtaining access to the class and participants is explained. The researcher collaborated with the teacher and the institution to gain access to the participants. As discussed in the ethical considerations section, the researcher did not have any pre-existing relationships with the participants or the institution. The ethical considerations section considers the researcher's positionality as an outsider to ensure informed and voluntary participant consent, protect anonymity and confidentiality, and handle data appropriately. The ethical considerations highlight the importance of maintaining the participants' trust and ensuring their well-being throughout the study.

4.7.3 Handling of data

Swinburne University of Technology advised implementing rigorous security measures for storing hard and soft data. The National Health and Medical Research Council (NHMRC), the Australian Research Council (ARC), and Universities in Australia produced and published the Australian Code for the Responsible Conduct of Research in collaboration (Karick, 2014). The researcher and

supervisors were the only individuals accessing the study's data. The researcher's filing cabinet housed both hard copies and audio data. The researcher's password-protected computer was used to store electronic data. The information will be maintained securely for five years before being deleted. Additionally, consent documents were kept separate from data in the researcher's university filing cabinet.

4.8 Concluding remarks

This chapter has first stated the hypothesis of the current study. The hypothesis was that L2 students speaking would improve after the flipped classroom intervention. Secondly, it reviewed the intervention materials delivered throughout the eight sessions and discussed how the study was implemented. It described the pre-test, initial questionnaires, and semi-structured interview procedures in Stage One, post-session questionnaires and semi-structured interviews in Stage Two, and pre-test, final questionnaires, and semi-structured interviews in Stage Three. Also described were practical concerns such as processes for identifying research participants, pilot studies, data collection, and data analysis. Finally, the ethical principles (as specified in the Swinburne University of Technology Code of Ethical Conduct for Research) that guided the conduct of this study are described. Each stage's quantitative and qualitative findings are presented in the following chapter.

Chapter Five: Results

5.1 Overview

This chapter presents the results of the data analysis, addressing the four research questions (see Section 1.5). This chapter is organised into five sections. Section 5.1 gives an overview of the chapter. Section 5.2 presents the findings of Stage One of the study, indicating participants' initial questionnaire and interview results for both teacher and student. Statistical analyses of the questionnaires and findings from the semi-structured interviews related to the current study's first and second research questions are discussed. Section 5.3 presents the student's perception of the flipped classroom model related to their speaking performance based on the data collected from the post-session questionnaires and interviews, exploring the flipped-classroom participants' perceptions and giving insights into the intervention design in Stage Two. Section 5.4 presents the participants' perceptions after the interventions they experienced during the study. Section 5.5, which is Stage Three, presents the findings on the speaking performance of the participants, indicating their speaking scores, both before and after they received the flipped classroom intervention. The qualitative data collected during the study were analysed using thematic analysis. The process involved transcribing and organising the data into meaningful units, categorising these units into codes, and finally grouping the codes into themes. The themes that emerged from the data were then analysed and interpreted to provide insights into the effectiveness of the flipped classroom model for improving the speaking skills of ESL/EFL learners. This section is connected to the current study's fourth research question, which explores the effects of flipped classrooms effects after the intervention. Section 5.6 concludes the quantitative and qualitative results presented in this chapter and explains how the data complement each other.

5.2 Stage one

This stage of the study aimed to establish a positive research environment for implementing interventions in a non-changing class group. A rapport with the students was needed to familiarise them with the researcher's presence. During this four-week phase, 40 students and one teacher were interviewed about their characteristics, English learning background, opinions about various linguistic areas, speaking ability, and ideal speaking class.

This section reports the initial data collected from student and teacher questionnaires and interviews. The data were analysed thematically, and the themes that emerged from the data were used to provide insights into the students' and teachers' perceptions of speaking skills and the challenges associated with teaching and learning speaking skills.

5.2.1 Student initial questionnaire

The initial student questionnaire included a section where participants could check off as many sections as they wanted to indicate the primary focus of English education in elementary, middle, and high school. There was broad agreement on ranking seven areas at various educational levels (see Table 5.1).

Table 5.1

The focus of English teaching in primary, secondary, and high school

	Areas	Primary School		Secondary School		High School	
		N	Sum	N	Sum	N	Sum
1.	Grammar	40	20	40	37	40	38
2.	Vocabulary	40	38	40	32	40	27
3.	Reading	40	33	40	33	40	36
4.	Speaking	40	21	40	35	40	38
5.	Speaking	40	12	40	30	40	30
6.	Pronunciation	40	16	40	29	40	30
7.	Listening	40	18	40	32	40	36

Table 5.1 displays the results ranked in order of importance. In primary school, reading and vocabulary were reported to be the most covered areas, while in secondary and high school, grammar and vocabulary were the areas that the students ticked. Speaking and grammar were covered the most in secondary and high school. In contrast, pronunciation and speaking were the subjects that received the least emphasis in each level of education. On the other hand, reports indicate that English classes taught in secondary and high schools cover a wider variety of linguistic elements than those taught in primary schools. When it came to university, the classes were handled differently.

Students were asked to complete items of the Likert scale to gain insight into the primary objectives of the English classes they are now enrolled in at their universities; 1 was assigned for ‘strongly agree,’ and 4 for ‘strongly disagree’ (see Table 5.2).

Table 5.2

The focus of English teaching in university education

Areas	Mean	Std. Deviation
Speaking	3.83	.385
Listening	3.57	.501
Speaking	3.53	.506
Pronunciation	2.03	.158
Grammar	1.50	.506
Reading	1.50	.506
Vocabulary	1.72	.452
Valid N (listwise)		

As seen in Table 5.2, most participants agreed that the skill of 'speaking' was the primary emphasis of their present university study. It was reported that "listening" and "speaking" were the areas that were addressed the most. A smaller percentage of respondents stated that "reading," "grammar," and "vocabulary" were the primary focuses of their present university education.

Regarding the scope of this study to address individuals' affective states, it was essential to understand their perceived ability to speak. Participants were asked to rate 4-point Likert-type items, 1 being strongly agree and 4 strongly disagree. The descriptive statistics are given in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3

Perceived areas of proficiency

Areas	Mean	Std. Deviation
Listening	3.63	.490
Reading	3.55	.504
Vocabulary	3.50	.506
Speaking	2.53	.506
Grammar	1.55	.504
Speaking	1.53	.506
Pronunciation	1.35	.483
Valid N (listwise)		

As seen in Table 5.3, 50% of the participants who participated in the study believed that, compared to the other areas, "listening" was the one in which they felt they had the most understanding. 40% were satisfied with their 'reading' and 'vocabulary' skills. On the other hand, just 20% of those who participated in the survey reported feeling competent in 'speaking' and 'pronunciation.'

Different items were included in the student's initial questionnaire concerning the sub-skills of speaking: accuracy, fluency, interaction, and lexical range. Students were given three proficiency levels (1=low, 2=medium, 3=high) and were asked to indicate the one which applied to them (see Appendix F). Before indicating sub-skills, the participants were given examples of each item. The mean scores of each area show that most students confirmed their level as medium and low: students seemed more optimistic in 'interaction' and lexical but more negative in accuracy and fluency.

Table 5.4

Sub-skill of speaking

Aspects	Mean	Std. Deviation
Accuracy	1.33	3.45
Fluency	1.40	4.56
Interaction	2.83	6.77
Lexical	2.42	3.45

In addition to asking participants about their educational experiences and perceptions of their language abilities, the questionnaire explored their feelings about speaking classes by including several 4-point Likert-type items concerning their affective states, with 1 being 'strongly agree' and 4 being 'strongly disagree.'

This section's quantitative analysis revealed inconsistent outcomes. It was discovered that most respondents agreed with the statement, "When I speak English in English class, I feel secure." However, they also agreed with the statement, "I become anxious when I must speak without preparation in English-speaking classrooms." This may suggest that increased preparation helped students develop confidence when speaking.

The last section of the initial student questionnaire focused on eliciting participants' responses regarding the characteristics that make for a practical speaking class. The findings contributed to a better understanding of the participants' overarching goals and expectations for their speaking lessons

and affected the first intervention's development. The data were analysed descriptively, and the results showed that most participants wanted their teachers to "discuss vocabulary items" in class. Most participants believed they should be "active" in the classroom.

The participants said "working in pairs and groups" was their favourite activity. Most of the students wanted to talk about "current affairs" and "interests" regarding the topics addressed in the speaking class. Students' most favoured exercises for the speaking class were those that focused on common phrases and terminology.

5.2.2 Student initial interview

The interviewees were asked to elaborate on this matter to validate and gain a deeper understanding of the reasons behind the emphasis on grammar, vocabulary, and reading in their previous English class experiences. The consensus was that *"No speaking and speaking. It is all about grammar"* (R3), and *"The teacher usually gives us lectures. Then, we fill in the blanks to see if it is grammatically correct"* (R1).

The interview protocols further expand on the English language learning experiences of the participants. Typical student feedback suggested that they had dealt with "*grammar and vocabulary for over nine years without any emphasis on speaking*" (R11). This failure to address speaking as a language talent led to a feeling of speaking incompetence and a conception of language as limited to grammar and vocabulary.

> Our first encounter with speaking was in university classes. So, we lack confidence in speaking. (R3)

> I had no idea how vital speaking and listening were until I started university. In high school, I felt confident in my English skills. I had no idea how bad my speaking was. But when going to the university, I realized other skills are equally important. (R1)

Because the primary focus of this study is on speaking skills, exposing the importance that participants assign to each language skill could provide significant insight into their perspectives of the appropriate weight to be addressed to speaking skills in English language programs. In order to address this, open-ended questions elicited the participants' opinions regarding the important linguistic domains. Commentary revealed that some participants highlighted the significance of multiple language areas.

18 of 40 participants identified speaking and listening as the most prevalent topic. Nine out of forty participants emphasized "speaking" exclusively, whereas five highlighted that "all areas are vital." In this regard, it is important to note that all participants agreed that speaking is one of the essential components of language domains. The open-ended question offered insight into the reasons for emphasizing specific topics.

First, the communicative aspect of language was a recurring motif for highlighting the significance of speaking and listening. As one participant said:

> To communicate with native speakers, you need to speak and listen. (R12)

Another agreed:

> To talk to people in everyday life, we need to be able to listen, understand, and speak fluently. (R15)

Second, the participants who viewed 'speaking' as an essential language skill concurred with the preceding and emphasized communication: "*Since our everyday task is to interact with native speakers effectively, we should talk fluently*" (R8). Conversely, some participants viewed speaking as a measure of language proficiency, arguing that "it is meaningless if we are not proficient in speaking, regardless of our proficiency in grammar, vocabulary, and listening" (R1).

Third, the participants who supported the idea that all skills are significantly emphasised the interconnected nature of language areas in their arguments:

> Each element is important. Everything is connected. Language is a living thing that changes over time. Language is how people talk to each other. As a result, each area is very important to get to this goal.
> (R15)

Participants provided varied explanations for their levels of satisfaction. Most participants cited lack of practice as the primary cause of dissatisfaction with their speaking skills. One participant indicated that they had only been involved with public speaking for one year (R6). Simultaneously, another thought this was "very late" (R9), and one expressed dissatisfaction since "there was no appropriate opportunity to speak" (R7). Sampson's study identified a lack of student participation in language classes as one of the most demotivating characteristics of speaking sessions (2010).

Furthermore, some respondents cited the ‘inability to express what I think’ as the explanation for their reduced satisfaction when speaking:

> We can't speak very well, no matter how hard we try. I guess we can talk

> to each other, but it's hard. We know that sometimes we can put words together but not speak.
> (R3)

As stated by R6, this was because *"When I see an English word, I think of the word in Bahasa Indonesia that means the same thing. But when I talk, I can't think of the right word in English."* Participants also mentioned this issue and claimed that their most significant challenge while speaking was a "lack of lexical knowledge":

> When it comes to expressing myself, I struggle since I do not have the essential vocabulary skills. Because I am constructing sentences in my head using Bahasa Indonesia, I cannot immediately recollect the English terms.
> (R4)

In addition to these factors, some participants claimed that their dissatisfaction was hindered by their inability to speak fluently. One participant stated, "*Although I can explain myself, I do not believe I speak with sufficient fluency*" (R1). Another recurrent theme was "feeling nervous." Several participants agreed, " *When I speak English, I feel uneasy. I can't focus on my words and can't say what I want to say.*" (R2). Participants were also invited to reflect on their strengths and weaknesses when speaking in English. Regarding weak areas, "lexical knowledge" was the most frequently occurring theme.

Additionally, five respondents cited 'making extended pauses' and 'anxious' as additional popular responses. Concerning a lack of lexical knowledge, participants reported having trouble "identifying the correct word when speaking" (R5), which they attributed to having "limited vocabulary concerning various issues" (R7). The second point, 'making extended pauses,' was cited by some participants as an impediment to speaking fluency and was associated with "*first in Bahasa Indonesia, then in English*" (R15). This was because the students did not acquire the ability to talk spontaneously, and they struggled to " *think, create, and talk in phrases at the same time*" (R11). Anxiety was the second prominent topic. In this regard, individuals detailed their emotions in their speech:

> I do not feel relaxed when speaking. Although I am confident, I am shy.
> (R10)

Various factors were mentioned for the speaking's strengths. Some participants acknowledged that they were proficient enough in grammar to assess their speaking accuracy. Most participants felt confident communicating fluently on fundamental topics relating to common interests. Others argued that communication could be established through gestures, mime, and body language.

The respondents agreed with the class that their vocabulary was their weakest speaking skill, which mirrored the sentiments of R2: "*I cannot find the right word when I talk*." R12 concurred with other students regarding pausing while searching for the proper word.

> When I'm talking, I think of a word, but I can't remember the exact word. This makes me hesitate a lot, which makes it hard for me to speak smoothly. (R12)

In addition to 'lack of vocabulary' and 'making long pauses,' the class as a whole and the respondents also mentioned 'anxiety' as a contributing factor:

> We are very afraid to talk. We don't want to make a mistake. We're afraid that our friends will make fun of us. (R2)

> We always wonder if my friends will find me funny. Will this make sense if I say it this way? If you think that way, you can't say anything. (R3)

The interviewees agreed with the rest of the class regarding their strengths in speaking: *"I can't even say what I think in a very simple way"* (R1). On the other hand, in comparison to the other interviewees, R3 had a more positive outlook on her strengths in speaking:

> If I feel at ease, I can speak fluently, use my voice well, and keep an eye on my grammar.

Furthermore, few students agreed with the statements, '*When I know I'm going to be called on in English class, I get very nervous*,' '*It makes me feel bad to answer questions in English*,' and '*I don't feel good about myself when I don't understand things other students do*.' According to these findings, anxiety was not the primary issue faced by the individuals in the study. In contrast, the interview procedures revealed that some people struggle with anxiety. R1 insisted that the main challenge he needed to overcome was a "lack of confidence" in himself and his abilities. R11 had the same reaction as R1 when she was called on in class and became quite anxious:

> I want to leave the class when I know I'm going to be called on. My voice gets worse. My hands are shaking.

As it was the beginning of the semester, R2 and R4 attributed their uneasiness to the fact that they had not yet become accustomed to the presence of their other classmates; Because of this, they experienced anxiety when it came time to speak in front of the class "*because we don't really know our classmates*" (R2). R3 and R10 were more confident in their responses, and both agreed that they experienced a sense of confidence when speaking. However, R3's success depended on the classroom's ambience, which should have been lively and cheerful. The prerequisite for the success of R10 in speaking lessons was his background understanding of the subject.

The interviewers also emphasised how important it was to choose an appropriate topic, noting that "*Students should be interested in the subject*" (R1) since "*if it is boring, students won't talk*" (R2) (F2). Moreover, R1 emphasized that students' background knowledge should be considered while selecting topics so that "*Everyone has something to say about the topic*." Additionally, all concurred on the significance of a positive teaching atmosphere. They agreed with the statement, "*The classroom should be a nice place to be. Everyone who speaks should feel at ease*" (R3) and " *This is very important for a good speaking class*" (R2).

5.2.3 Teacher initial interview

This study's teacher participant was called Simon (participant's pseudonym). Simon, a native speaker of Bahasa Indonesia, played a vital part in the research and contributed at each level in various capacities. Throughout the study, Simon delivered lectures. During the first stage, Simon was questioned about his teaching experience, language beliefs, classroom participation, and performance assessments. In addition, Simon provided essential details about the course's objectives and content. Simon and the researcher co-designed the interventions in the second phase, updating Simon weekly on the students' responses and negotiating the design or modification of activities to fulfil the expectations. Simon and the researcher collaborated to create instructional videos for before-class exercises. They exchanged ideas through virtual meetings throughout the semester and finished the course material. During the last segment of the study, Simon was interviewed about the success of the flipped classroom model for speaking classes.

In the initial interview with the teacher, Simon revealed to the researcher that he had taught English in Indonesian private institutions and schools since 2015. Since 2019, Simon has taught at this university and has taught speaking classes for nearly five years. When asked about his thoughts on the various language skills, Simon emphasised the importance of speaking when asked, claiming that learners require grammatical and lexical understanding to speak the language well.

According to Simon, the course sought to increase student's fluency and accuracy in everyday and intellectual discourse. The number of students in each class significantly impacts speaking class performance. To overcome this, Simon encourages various tasks requiring all students' participation, such as pair and group work. According to Simon, students perform better in these tasks because they feel reluctant to speak in front of the entire class.

> I see that the students speak more in the breakout room when they have smaller group discussions rather than in main room when they can see all of their friends. Thus, I try to provide more speaking exercises for them to do in the breakout rooms.

According to Simon, student participation varied since each group's dynamic differs. In certain classes, students are tremendously engaged and willing to participate, whereas, in others, he has used great effort to get some students to say a sentence. He believes this is because, in some classrooms, their classmates laugh at them when they make mistakes. However, students support their classmates, providing a welcoming classroom atmosphere. Simon emphasised the significance of a positive classroom environment, stating that it directly impacted students' confidence and learning ability. When questioned about the students' speaking ability, he responded that they were "not competent":

> They do not even get advanced after the semester. Students' speaking levels vary greatly. It varies from student to student. Nevertheless, some students cannot even say a word. It varies greatly.

Simon underlined the lack of practice as the primary cause of students' poor performance:

> They hadn't practised English before. Their education has taught them how to pick out the right answer. The answer should be correct. There's nothing else to do. It's hard to change people's minds about this. They think that their listeners won't understand them if they don't say exactly what is expected.

> They had never taken English classes. Prior learning experiences needed them to provide a particular, appropriate answer. There is no alternative. This concept is difficult to find. Perhaps they will not be understood unless they say precisely what is expected.

He confirmed students' proficiency in reading and listening. They recognised the language but struggled to produce both written and spoken language. "*Because a person can say what he wants to say with simple words*," he did not consider vocabulary as the significant factor. Consequently, he expected students to communicate using basic sentences.

By providing in-depth data on various topics, Stage One contributed considerably to the existing body of knowledge regarding the study setting. To summarise, even though the participants were aware of the significance of speaking as a language skill, most of their previous language learning experiences focused on the English language's structural aspects. Consequently, they felt competent in reading comprehension and grammatical items but less in speaking. This feeling was because they had primarily dealt with the structural aspects of English. Furthermore, most participants were dissatisfied with their speaking performances and struggled with issues caused by a lack of preparation and an inability to use vocabulary items while speaking effectively. Although this was not the case for the entirety of the class, a few interviewed cited elevated anxiousness as a significant problem. Moreover, Stage One also provided information regarding the participants'

basic expectations for the speaking classes they would be attending. The participants preferred vocabulary-related activities and desired to be active in class through group work and pair work.

Before implementing any interventions, it was crucial to identify the issues mentioned earlier and fully comprehend the research setting. As a result, the data collected at this stage influenced the design of the interventions by identifying the challenges associated with the student's speaking abilities. The results of this stage will be discussed in the following section.

5.3 Stage two

Stage Two of the flipped classroom for speaking was implementation. It comprised eight weekly classroom interventions developed based on the results of post-session instruments. Although this stage did not explicitly address specific research topics, it was essential to understand the speaking experience of the flipped classroom model.

This section reports the data collected from student post-session questionnaires and interviews. The data were analysed thematically, and the themes that emerged from it were used to provide insights into the students' perceptions of the flipped classroom model and its impact on their speaking skills.

After each class, each student received a questionnaire. The following day, after analysing the questionnaire results, the students were interviewed; there was a wide range in the number of students that volunteered to participate in the several intervention sessions. The objectives of these instruments were important for two reasons: to discover the students' perspectives on the efficacy of each instruction and to comprehend their suggestions for a future lesson.

Various data sets collected during the study were utilized to guide the design of the treatments. As previously discussed, the data collected in Stage One provided a profile of the participants' overall expectations for speaking courses. This provided insight into their thoughts on the appropriate features of speaking classes. During the stage in which the study was conducted, these aspects were analysed, and efforts were made to provide appropriate activities. The data collected during Stage Two provided insight into the interventions' benefits and drawbacks. It made it possible to reflect on previous interventions, which was essential to improve the effectiveness of the intervention after it. The teachers' comments and classroom observations also affected the design of the interventions. The teacher and the researcher developed some interventions considering the students' actual needs, as contrasted to the students' reported desires.

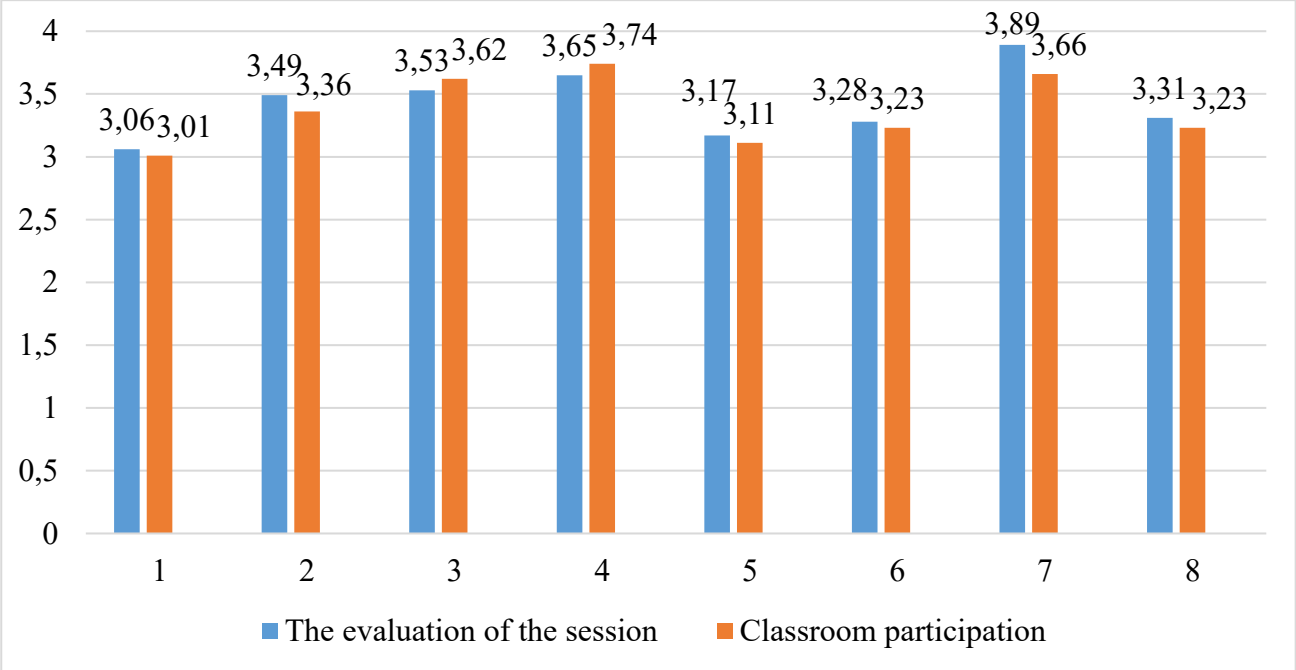
5.3.1 Student post-session questionnaire

In order to collect quantitative data to evaluate the different interventions, the post-session student questionnaire was divided into two sections, each containing items with a single correct answer. In the first part of the activity, students were asked to evaluate the session's effectiveness using a scale ranging from 1 to 4, with 1 indicating very unsuccessful and 4 indicating very successful. This item intended to get an overall sense of how the participants felt about the successful interventions. Results are illustrated in Figure 5.1.

The lowest score obtained in this study was 3.06, which indicates that while students generally had a positive attitude towards the efficiency of the interventions, there was room for improvement. As demonstrated in Figure 5.1, intervention 7 was considered the most successful by the students, while interventions 4 and 3 were ranked second and third, respectively. On the other hand, intervention 8 was reported to be the least successful. This data provides valuable insights into the strengths and weaknesses of the various interventions and highlights the need for further improvement to enhance the effectiveness of the flipped classroom model.

Figure 5.1

Students' evaluation of the session and classroom participation



Using a 4-point Likert scale, the second series of questions focuses on three aspects: the session's characteristics, effectiveness, and before-class activities. The first addressed the session's usefulness, appropriateness, and complexity. The second one provided a more detailed assessment of the instructor, classroom environment, activities, session topic, and classroom response. The last aspect addressed the students' activities before the class, including watching the video and quizzes and their

opinion about the activities. The result for the first aspect is displayed in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5

Ranking of intervention for each item related to characteristics of the session

(1=highest mean score, 8=the lowest mean score)

The characteristics of the session								
Questionnaire items	Intervention session							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Appropriate to my needs	4	5	3	2	7	8	1	6
Useful	7	4	3	2	5	8	1	6
Enjoyable	7	5	1	2	6	8	3	4
Difficult	3	5	8	7	1	4	2	6

Table 5.5 shows the findings ranked by mean scores. The most successful classrooms with the lowest scores were those utilising Interventions 7, 4, and 3. Furthermore, Intervention 7 was ranked among the top three for effectiveness. The least successful classes were interventions 6, 1, and 5. Interestingly, despite being the least appropriate and entertaining, the fourth intervention was the most helpful. This finding was further elaborated on and complemented by students' post-session interviews.

The mean scores of difficulties were low. This suggests that students did not find the interventions difficult and that there was a slight variation in the difficulty level among the interventions. The analysis of the 'difficulty' item revealed surprising and conflicting results: It was reported that the fifth and seventh interventions were the most challenging lessons. Intervention 7 was among the most effective classes, whilst intervention 5 was among the least effective. In contrast to being 'enjoyable, 'relevant to needs,' and 'useful,' it does not appear that the difficulty of a lesson affects its effectiveness.

Table 5.6

Ranking of intervention for each item related to the effectiveness of the session (1=highest mean score, 8=the lowest mean score)

The effectiveness of the session								
Questionnaire items	Intervention session							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
The topic was interesting	6	2	7	1	8	5	3	4
The activities provided lots of opportunities to speak in English	7	4	1	3	6	8	2	5
The classroom atmosphere was positive	7	4	3	2	6	8	1	5
The instructions were clear	6	4	3	2	7	8	1	5
The speaking activities were good	7	5	1	2	6	8	3	4
I felt relaxed	8	4	2	3	5	7	1	6
I received useful feedback about my speaking performance	8	4	1	3	6	7	2	5
I had enough opportunities to speak	8	5	2	4	6	7	1	3

Despite slight variances in ranking, Table 5.6 indicates that classes 3, 4, and 7 were given the highest ratings, while classes 6, 1, and 5 received the lowest ratings. The situation was identical in classrooms rated highly for speaking opportunities. Intervention 8 was one of the three lowest-ranked interventions, whereas intervention 5 was considered more effective. The other overall intervention, Intervention 3, ranked second regarding receiving helpful feedback. Interestingly, although intervention 4 was among the highest-rated interventions, it was not evaluated well for providing helpful feedback.

Table 5.7

Ranking of intervention for each item related to the evaluation of out-class activities (1=highest mean score, 8=the lowest mean score)

The evaluation of before-class activities								
Questionnaire items	Intervention session							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
I found the videos interesting	6	5	1	3	7	8	2	4
The videos were well-organised and easy to follow	7	3	4	2	6	8	1	5
The activities were easy to complete	4	5	6	7	1	3	2	8
I watched the videos more than one time	5	6	2	4	3	7	1	8
The exercises and other activities helped me to understand the materials	5	8	3	1	4	6	2	7

better.								
I enjoy studying English at home	4	7	1	2	6	8	3	5
I feel confident studying English at home	5	7	2	2	6	8	2	4
I can study English at my own pace/speed at home	6	4	3	2	7	8	1	5

From Table 5.7, despite the minor differences in ranks, the most highly rated classes were interventions 3, 4, and 7, and the least highly rated classes were interventions 5, 6, and 8. The outcome was the same for classes rated positively using instructional videos before the class. Intervention three was ranked first regarding studying at home, while interventions 4 and 7 followed.

5.3.2 Student post-session interview

The open-ended post-session questionnaire items analysis for the first intervention identified several unfavourable responses. Most participants appeared unsatisfied with the activities and considered them "useless" (R5) because "there were questions and activities repeatedly" (R6). Some students found the session uninteresting and disliked practising familiar topics. R3 was consistent with the class regarding being dissatisfied with familiar concerns. He stated the following:

> I might have spoken more, but I chose not to because they were well-known facts. (R3)

Even though the teacher described achieving his goals and being satisfied with student engagement, he acknowledged, "*Some exercises could have been more beneficial if they had been tailored to students' skill levels*." R1 claimed he was still experiencing difficulties due to anxiety: "*As usual, I couldn't talk this week because talking makes me nervous. So, the lesson did not teach me much.*" Other interviewers noted several positive aspects of the session and appeared pleased with its content:

> The activity was simple and gave people a lot of chances to talk. Everyone could talk with ease. Even though I'm very nervous, I can still take part in the lessons this week. (R11)

> This was the most interesting and fun speaking class I've ever taken. Before that, there wasn't much to talk about. We couldn't talk before this week because there was nothing to talk about. We are in a different place now. (R2)

R2 also considered pair work beneficial: "*Even though my friend didn't want to join in, I tried to get him to because I needed to finish the assignment.*" He acknowledged that pair work activities provide each student with speaking opportunities.

Most students expressed appreciation for the lesson, such as *"I liked the subject"* (R6), *"it was good and fun lesson"* (R13), and *"it was a lot of fun"* (R6). Participants highlighted the relevance of the topic and the group work activity:

> We all have opinions about family because it is a common topic. So, it was easy for me to speak English. (R6)

> I got the chance to talk because of the group work activity. (R8)

The teacher was confident about accomplishing his objectives and believed the students that the issue was acceptable because "m*ost students had opinions on the issue, but many appeared eager to quit the habit and were not very concerned about their privileges*."

Although all interviewers acknowledged that the topic helped them find something to say, they also provided additional comments on unrelated issues. R11 and R13 enjoyed the group work assignment since it allowed them to interact with their classmates rather than the instructor. Both students reported experiencing anxiety during group work assignments:

> I don't get nervous when I work with a group. I think I'll be able to get over my anxiety when talking to the teacher if I can speak well in group work. (R11)

> The lesson was great because I get nervous when I speak in front of the class, but not when I work with a group. (R13)

R2 and R3 were equally enthusiastic about the lesson's strategy. They acknowledged the topic's significance, which allowed for several student contributions. However, R2 stated she was not in a good mood because of personal concerns that day. Thus, she did not participate actively. Intriguingly, R3 assumed that participation in the classroom was limited to whole-class work and was hesitant about her participation in the lesson, despite admitting that she was much more engaged in the group work session.

R2 and R3 exhibited less enthusiasm than in the other interviews. Although they agreed that the topic was engaging, each had criticisms regarding various areas of the class. R2 stated that he disliked discussing general things because they "*had been talking about this kind of general subject since they were in high school.*" Because of this, he experienced a sense of limitation when applying arguments. In addition, he was unhappy because he did not learn any new abilities linked to speaking:

> No new words were taught to us. Because of this, we could only use words we already knew. So, we did not progress. (R2)

The only thing R3 had a problem with was the exercise that required them to work in groups. He insisted that the class would be far more beneficial if it did not involve group work because he was more productive while working independently. He offered the following explanation in support of this position:

> When the teacher asks our group what we think, we try to come to agreement. We don't have much else to say. Since everyone has to do their part, it doesn't matter if you do or not. So, I avoid group discussion. Also, we don't pay as much attention to what our friends say as we do to what our teachers say. Our friends don't even listen to us.
> (R3)

He advised that these exercises be conducted in front of the class with the teacher's participation to address this.

In Intervention 4, the instructor was delighted that the activity was engaging and that all students engaged voluntarily and successfully. He highlighted several reasons, including that the activity was completed in small groups and not in front of the entire class and that the competitive element contributed to the student's satisfaction. They enjoyed playing games and generally understood the vocabulary, allowing them to concentrate on offering oral responses. In addition, he noted that Bahasa Indonesia did not appear to be utilized frequently and that students advised one another when it was spoken.

All the student participants who joined the interview commented positively about this intervention. The main issue with the whole class was the positive classroom environment. R1 and R11 noted that they were at ease while speaking during the class:

> It's hard for me to talk in front of the class, and I couldn't get over that. But when I work in pairs or groups, like we did this week, I talk a lot more. (R1)

> This week was great. We weren't connected to the teacher in any way. We were always talking to our friends. (R11)

R2, who had low perceptions of her speaking ability, was pleased with the classroom environment. She insisted that this negatively impacted her performance because *"the class was lively, and so was I. It was wonderful. I was happy as I tried to define the word because I wanted to win the game."*

R2 had a different point of view and offered comments similar to those he had made for intervention 1, highlighting the beneficial effects of working in pairs:

> The things I learned from my friend during pair work were very helpful to me. When my friend talked about the words, I learned new things.

R3 emphasised her performance during the task and gave the impression that she was pleased by saying, "I explained the terms properly, and when I realised that my partner identified them correctly, I got inspired" (R3). The fact that R3 was able to find plenty of opportunities to talk, as well as the fact that the exercise required working with vocabulary, contributed to his satisfaction with the intervention:

> I realised that I like word games where we have to describe words. This is because when you play, your friend gives you feedback right away.

Most participants expressed satisfaction with the session that was conducted as part of Intervention 5, using phrases such as "*very successful*" (R12), "*very entertaining*" (R13), and "*very excellent*" (R1). Considering why this session was favoured so highly, the fact that it provided the opportunity to speak was a primary reason widely agreed upon. Most students agreed with R26, who said they agreed with what he had to say:

> Since the activities were fun, they also gave us a chance to talk.

The teacher expressed confidence that the objectives of the class would be achieved:

> Students enjoyed the activities, and there was a lot of participation because all of the activities were like games. The games also made people more competitive, which can sometimes be a little too much.

Because R10 and R12 enjoyed communicating with their peers rather than the teacher, this method of instruction was very well received by both students. R10 stated that the activity-based nature of the session made it very enjoyable, and as a result, the spending time there seemed to pass by. R12 was also delighted because she could finally communicate with her close friends:

> Before you [the researcher], I couldn't say that much. No one was talking as much as this. You also saw this, right? But when that happens, we all talk a lot more. We talked with the people in our pairs and in our groups. In any case, everyone gets a chance to say something.

R3 agreed with these statements and emphasised the value of having competitive activities in the classroom: *"In a competitive situation, you want to talk a lot and feel at ease. This is a big deal. Also, these activities helped me get to know my classmates better. Also, this is important."*

Various other interviewees displayed a considerable level of caution concerning the relevance of this activity.: *"We didn't have much to say, so we just used a few phrases. It wasn't something that made us feel free to talk"* (R2). R12 concurred and stated that she preferred not to feel constrained when it came to the questions that she may ask. In addition, R3 did not appreciate being able to work independently from the teacher as much, and they maintained that the teacher should have been participating in the class to some extent:

> When students have too much freedom, it can cause problems in the classroom. So, the teacher should be in charge and the main focus of the lesson. (R12)
>
> This kind of activity makes the classroom hard to understand. Instead, we'll work in pairs. One or two people will go to the teacher and talk, and then another pair will go. (R3)

The participants' responses to open-ended questions in Intervention 5 revealed that they considered the lesson engaging because it was the first time they had participated in a jigsaw exercise. Moreover, the participants' responses revealed that they found the lesson enjoyable. Some participants made positive comments such as *"it was a good thing to do, and it felt like a game"* (R15) and *"I had no trouble talking"* (R17). On the other hand, most participants stressed the importance of *"The first activity was a bit hard"* (R12). During the second exercise, there was no opportunity for a practical conversation: *"I didn't like how my group members would rather speak Bahasa Indonesia than English"* (R7).

The teacher remarked that completing the tasks would achieve the objectives, *"the tasks were made to make sure that the goals would be met if they were done."* The use of Bahasa Indonesia in the second activity did not make him pleased, even though he had great expectations for the student's motivation and participation in the first activity: *"some students used Bahasa Indonesia instead of English, which showed that they thought the goal was to get something done, not just to use English to do it."* This was due to *"how different students feel about pair or group work."*

The other interviewees said that when they participated in activities requiring group communication, they primarily communicated in Bahasa Indonesia. This was because *"In any case, when doing group work, one person starts speaking in Bahasa Indonesia, and then everyone else does the same."*

(R2). Therefore, the interviewers concluded that pair work activities are more beneficial because *"when you work with a friend, you have to talk, because no one else can do that task"* (R3).

R2 was pleased with her performance because she engaged in an essential conversation throughout the first exercise. R12, on the other hand, expressed concerns about learning new things compared to those expressed in intervention two:

> Only certain words could be used. I couldn't say anything different. I always said things like "I have a house" or "I have a motorcycle."

R3 advised that the teacher should always supervise groups to address the issue of excessive usage of Bahasa Indonesia during the conversation:

> When doing group activities, we can split the class into smaller groups so that each group can listen to the others. Our teacher moves from group to group and can also hear what they are saying. This time, we'll pay more attention to it.

During the observation in Intervention 6, the students did not talk much, and the majority did not appear comfortable speaking in front of the class. It was challenging for the class to pay attention to the viewpoints of each student individually. However the vast majority of students were pleased to acquire new vocabulary items; however, they did not find the subject matter engaging and did not enjoy giving presentations in front of their peers:

> I'm glad that we're learning more words and using them more often. (R6)

> I didn't have many chances to talk because the subject wasn't interesting. (R11)

> I didn't want to join in the conversation. (R4)

Interestingly, one of the students said they felt obligated to participate because everyone else was supposed to. The teacher remarked favourably on the lesson's usefulness in future semesters, praising its ability to allow students to talk and negotiate. Despite this, he said the program would be more successful with fewer participants. All the interviewed participants thought that the subject matter constrained them because it did not elicit various perspectives. As a result, they concluded that there was no window of opportunity for them to express their views:

> We weren't able to do much this week. We chose the important job and then explained why it was important. We didn't have much to say because everyone was talking about the same things. (R1)

Due to this factor, a few interviewed participants felt the presentation was monotonous. R11 maintained that the socializing activities that provided a comfortable classroom environment were some of his favourites. R3 brought attention to this point concerning the competitive aspects of activities:

> Due to a competition, the classroom had been busy the past few weeks. But there was no competition this week. In speaking lessons, I think competition is very important.

In response to a question on how he felt about presenting in front of the class, R1 shared his thoughts:

> It wasn't hard at all. But I got ready ahead of time. I wrote down what I was going to say in front of the class so I wouldn't get stuck. I was happy because of this.

Only R2 and R13, out of the interviewed group, provided positive feedback. R2 confirmed that he liked the topic because it was up to interpretation, and various people held various points of view regarding it. Consequently, he confirmed that he could find an opportunity to speak. R13, on the other hand, appreciated how the class was organised since he desired to be subject to the teacher's authority:

> Everything was like we discussed in the last meeting. Everything we did, we did in front of the teacher. I think this was more important. We did not use Bahasa Indonesia. This was just what I was looking for.

Intervention 7's classroom atmosphere was lively, and the students had a great time with the first activity. This intervention was quite like Intervention 3. Most students agreed with the observation and gave encouraging remarks: *"it was very fun and helpful"* (R12), *"the activity was very fun and gave us a chance to talk"* (R7), and *"we had a good time and talked a lot"* (R14). One participant found this week beneficial because *"it was hard to play the guessing game"* (R5). Most students agreed that idiomatic expressions are an effective communication method, mainly when they were at a loss for words in the dialogue. Every person who was asked confirmed that the exercise with the idiom was suitable to meet their requirements:

> We can't say what we want to say, and conversations get stuck. I also had that happen. If I can't remember a word from a sentence, I stop what I'm doing and write a new one. So, this was a very helpful activity.
> (R1)

Regarding the second activity, students reported having contradictory opinions. Although some students stated that they enjoyed the role-playing activity, some students stated that they did not find it engaging. The teacher thought that the lesson went very well, that the atmosphere in the classroom was terrific, and that the students demonstrated much enthusiasm during the activity. However, he

noticed that the role-playing exercise was not everyone's preference among the students:

> Some of the students in the second activity might not have liked the topic of the first role play. Due to the nature of the activities and how the students were put into groups, all of the students took part. However, in the second activity, one or two students completed rather fast.

R1 remarked that the role-playing activity was not a very successful endeavour:

> The role-playing game was about average. It wasn't all that good. It made it hard for us to talk because we could only do so in certain situations. We might be able to say three or four sentences.

On the other hand, other interviewees expressed optimism over the role-playing exercise. This, according to R2, was the most beneficial component of the class:

> The second activity we did was great. It gave students a reason to think and act quickly. This helped me a lot because I was very busy. This was the most helpful thing we've done so far.

Interestingly, some students' perspectives on what makes an ideal speaking classroom shifted due to this classroom practice. Because it makes it more difficult for students to focus on the task at hand, some students in the class have always emphasised the importance of the teacher maintaining control over the class. Nevertheless, during this week's class, several students mentioned that this session was more beneficial because it allowed them to speak. As an illustration, R3 mentioned:

> This activity happened all the time. When we did other things, we could say what we thought in one or two sentences, but this was different.

He answered when reminded of his views on the ideal speaking class:

> This week's lesson gave us more chances to talk than last week's. That's why I liked this better. But if we did it in groups, we would start speaking Indonesian. (R3)

The teacher stated in the final Intervention that the session was beneficial because the students were required to practise the skill of questioning, and the class provided that opportunity. In addition, he mentioned that the atmosphere in the classroom was encouraging because the exercise was a competition, and students found it entertaining even though it was a competitive environment.

Several students were pleased with the lesson. R2 insisted he was not constrained: *"we were free to ask questions."* R11 emphasised the lesson's relevance to their interests: *"I've always thought that it's hard for us to ask questions. We haven't done this in class because we always respond to questions."* The element of competition in the activity was something that R13 enjoyed:

> These things help you feel less nervous during class. Most of the people in

> our class don't want to talk. They have opinions, but they won't say what they think. That there's no need to worry because everyone in the class is taking part in these activities. These exercises help semesters change the way people think about them.

However, R12 did not find the learning beneficial because he disliked participating in activities that required group work:

> I didn't learn anything from this lesson. In any case, the size of the group made me feel uncomfortable. We couldn't even ask questions that would have helped us find a solution. This activity is not fun for me because we have done it so many times.

R12 also remarked that he was feeling tired because the semester was almost over, and they needed to prepare for many different things.

At this stage, the flipped classroom model was implemented by designing classes following students' perspectives, which were systematically collected weekly. The participants expressed interest in engaging in a specific kind of activity. Overall, it appeared as though they were pleased with the instructional procedures and the design of the flipped classroom, particularly in terms of finding opportunities to speak English and feeling comfortable while participating in the activities that were being conducted in the classroom. Even though all the students in the class expressed the same opinion regarding whether most interventions were helpful, interviewees expressed varying points of view. Some students, for instance, were delighted when they were relieved from the teacher's supervision and preferred activities that allowed them to communicate with their peers rather than with the teacher. Some students showed more enthusiasm when the atmosphere in the classroom was lively and the activities were not strictly supervised. On the other hand, several students were content when the teacher exercised control over them, provided them with opportunities to expand their knowledge, and provided feedback on their performance.

This chapter will now continue with the results of the final stage of this action research, which involved the participants' perspectives regarding the semester's overall effectiveness. This would give thoughts about the significance of the flipped classroom model for speaking regarding various variables, which will be examined in further detail in the following sections.

5.4 Stage three

This was the final stage of this action research, and participants were asked to evaluate the flipped classroom model for speaking classes they had experienced during the semester. The teacher was

interviewed regarding his thoughts on the semester's effectiveness. Students' quantitative and qualitative data were collected. In general, the quantitative data aimed to accomplish two goals: (a) exploring similarities and differences in participants' opinions about their English proficiency, speaking ability, and affective states before and after the study; and (b) revealing the extent to which participants felt involved in classroom decision-making. On the other hand, the qualitative data intended to comprehend the existing challenges and students' perspectives on experiencing flipped classroom models for speaking classes.

This section reports the data collected from student final questionnaires and interviews and teacher final interviews. The data were analysed thematically, and the themes that emerged from the data were used to provide insights into the students' perceptions of the effectiveness of the flipped classroom model and its impact on their speaking skills. The themes were also used to identify the factors that influenced classroom participation and performance, the usefulness of the flipped classroom activities, and the participants' affective states during the study.

By incorporating thematic analysis into the reporting of the qualitative data, the analysis will provide a more structured and organised way to report the findings from the data collected in the study. This will allow the reader to understand better the insights gained from the data and the impact of the flipped classroom model on the development of speaking skills for ESL/EFL learners.

5.4.1 Student final questionnaire

This section will outline the quantitative and qualitative questions included in the initial and final student surveys. The exact number of participants provided final data as when the initial student survey was administered.

5.4.1.1 Perceptions of proficiency levels before and after the study

Identical questions were included on the initial and final student questionnaires to show differences in participants' perceptions of their language competency in seven different areas. Table 5.8 displays the descriptive statistics for the final questionnaire.

As seen in Table 5.8, most respondents agreed that 'speaking' was where they felt the most proficient. Most of them were also pleased with their vocabulary and grammar skills. Few participants felt proficient in' reading' and 'speaking.'

Compared with the initial questionnaire, descriptive statistics and paired-sample t-test showed significant differences among seven language skills in speaking, grammar, and vocabulary.

Table 5.8

Perceptions of proficiency levels before and after the study

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Speaking	40	3.73	.452
Vocabulary	40	3.57	.501
Grammar	40	3.43	.501
Listening	40	3.00	.751
Pronunciation	40	2.68	.474
Reading	40	2.50	.506
Speaking	40	2.28	.452
Valid N (listwise)	40		

5.4.1.2 Factors affecting speaking class before and after the study

Following is a discussion of differences between initial and final data about the affective states of speaking participants. Most of these answers addressed negative student behaviours and attitudes (for example, "I worry about," "I feel ashamed," and "I get nervous"). Some favourable responses included, "I am happy," "I feel confident," and "I can speak fluently."

The mean scores for most questions addressing negative behaviours and attitudes decreased after the study. Four items whose mean scores decreased referred to positive student behaviours and attitudes: *"I'm glad to be told I'm wrong because it helps me learn*, "*When I speak English in English class, I'm sure of myself*, " "*I can talk if the subject is something I know about*, " and "*I can take the lead in any conversation by asking the right questions*." These data indicate that participants' affective states are more favourable by the semester's conclusion.

The considerable differences between these items suggest that students must thoroughly prepare to feel at ease. Additionally, when students were prepared for the topic of the discussion, they felt a greater sense of confidence and experienced less anxiety while speaking. At the end of the study, they reported having more positive feelings towards their ability to respond to questions raised by their peers and take turns in talks.

5.4.2 Student final interview

This section discusses the qualitative results of the final student survey and interviews. The findings will include comments from participants on the following four themes: (a) their classroom participation and performance during the semester, (b) the role of the flipped classroom model in their participation and performance, (c) the usefulness of the activities, and (d) their affective states during the study and the areas in which these have improved.

5.4.2.1 Classroom participation and performance in the semester

Only three people commented negatively on their participation and performance in class: *"it was not really satisfied"* (R3) "*I don't think I took enough part"* (R13). Others expressed satisfaction with their classroom participation and performance during the semester. They concurred that their participation and performance in the classroom were more significant than in high school: *"I can speak with more ease and fluency than I could when I was still in high school last year"* (R14).

Another participant provided more information about their semester progress than the previous academic year:

> I've made a lot of progress this semester. Before, I could only say short sentences and made simple mistakes with grammar. But now I can make complex sentences and don't make those simple mistakes anymore. (R2)

Most participants indicated that they advanced because they had sufficient opportunities to interact with the teacher and other students during the semester: *"I feel like I can say what I want better. I like the topics and things we did"* (R15) because they *"allowed people to speak up willingly and without feeling shy in every lesson"* (R1). Another participant described how their emotions changed due to the current study's interventions:

> When the semester started, I thought I would only have a short amount of time to talk. It turned out that the teacher gave us more chances to speak in class. It made me feel better about expressing myself.

Other interviewees made similar comments about the grammar and vocabulary from the session. Regarding her semester progress, R2 highlighted the usefulness of grammar and vocabulary. He verified that now he was not *"trying to send the message in a certain way. Instead, he tried to say it in different ways*." In addition, he reported being able to speak spontaneously without long pauses and emphasised the value of classroom practice time in speaking classes. He gave an illustration of this:

> We can learn how to say words in class, but we can only say them correctly if we have a chance to do it a lot. Since the point of your activities was to

> get us to talk, they directly helped us get better at it.

M2 concurred with F2 regarding his improved use of grammar and vocabulary:

> When I first started the semester, I didn't know a single word, so I stopped talking. But now I'm trying to figure out what else I can do. Now, we get used to making complicated sentences instead of simple ones. This wasn't always the case.

R3 was more pessimistic about his speaking performance; he still required time to think about what he would say and acknowledged having issues with spontaneous communication. Despite this, he maintained a positive outlook. He believed "*fluency is not something that can be gained in just one semester. We need more time to get it done.*"

The preceding quotations demonstrate that participants found public speaking classes beneficial. Due to the focus of the current study on semesters, which provided a flipped classroom model for speaking skills, it was essential to determine if flipped classroom models impacted the effectiveness of speaking classes. These issues will be addressed in the following subsections.

5.4.2.2 The influence of flipped classroom model on participation and performance

Only two students provided negative feedback regarding the impact of the flipped classroom model on their engagement and performance in class: "*I don't think so*" (R13) and "*not very helpful*" (R9). Other students concur with the advantages of the flipped classroom model.

Most students believed that the flipped classroom model gave them adequate communication time:

> When I took lessons in speaking, I had more chances to talk, and I found that I often spoke without planning what to say. (R3)

> I think that what we learned was very helpful. When the activity is fun and we have enough time to try it out, I've learned that my friends and I are not afraid to talk. (R11)

Other participants concurred that the flipped classroom model results in a teaching environment that meets the needs and desires of students. R1 asserted the necessity of the flipped classroom model *"because no one knows our wants and weak points as well as we do."* R3 discussed this topic from the viewpoint of the teacher. It emphasised the value of the flipped classroom model for teachers since, with the help of it, *"you thought about what you could do next week. For instance, if students don't do well, you can change the activities and get more ready for them."*

Regarding elements that result in significant student participation, most students indicated that they *"wanted to take part because the topics and activities were exciting"* (R6), and hence, *"each student was able to take part in the lessons"* (R11). As a result, they appreciated the lessons, which were also cited as a factor influencing their academic performance:

> The activities were fun and the teacher gave me useful feedback. Making a hard lesson fun in the course got me to talk, and I think my performance got better and better as I did so. (R5)

Even reluctant students participated more frequently due to these characteristics, which increased student engagement because *"when everyone else is talking, I ask myself why I'm not, and then I start talking too"* (R7).

According to several participants, participation in classroom activities boosted their self-assurance in speaking:

> I felt better about myself when I spoke English in class. I had enough chances to talk. The activities on the topics are always helpful. I think this semester was very helpful. (R2)

As a result, several class participants expressed highly favourable opinions: *"the most fun and helpful classes in speaking I've had so far"* (R7); *"this was the first class where I didn't want the break"* (R3).

5.4.2.3 The usefulness of flipped classroom activities

Participants elaborated on the reasons for the high level of student participation, with the majority emphasising the importance of group/pair work activities:

> Rather than talking about a topic as a whole class, doing group work made me more involved in the classroom. (R1)

> We have trouble talking to each other in group and pair work, which makes it hard for other students to join in. (R4)

> After doing group work, I realised that I had gotten better at speaking in front of the class. (R3)

Some students also noted performing better when participating in group/pair activities: *"Group work is a great way to get better at talking to people. It makes you not feel shy"* (R11). One participant emphasised that students should speak and connect with their peers throughout these activities; hence, students *"no longer felt shy around them"* (R3).

These positive comments on group work activities may appear to contradict the results discussed in Stage Two, where students were dissatisfied with the large size of their groups. However, one interviewee affirmed that the students did not differentiate between group work and pair work, and they referred to pair work activities as "group work."

R2 agreed with the effectiveness of group/pair work activities and asserted that these activities helped him acquire self-confidence while allowing him to speak English:

> If I don't know what to say about a topic I don't know much about, I can say something to show I don't know what to say or use different phrases to buy time. This is the basic way to talk. I'm glad to get this kind of trust.

He also mentioned that he paid more attention to the performance of his classmates by analysing the lessons, which allowed him "*to know my friends better, and so the classroom atmosphere got better.*" R3 concurred, stating that the classroom environment over the semester was positive. As she describes, the flipped classroom concept played an essential part: "*because the activities were planned based on what we wanted, everyone had a good time and did a lot.*"

5.4.2.4 Participants' affective states during the study

Regarding individuals' affective states during the study, only one respondent indicated they were negative because they "*felt nervous*" (R13). In contrast, most subjects reported favourable affective state changes:

> I thought this semester would not go well for me. I got over my fear of people by talking about and doing things. I got over some of my anxiety and became more comfortable with public speaking. These changes are very important to me. (R3)

They were all in agreement that the anxiety reduction improved their performance when they spoke:

> When you're used to talking, you feel more confident, which makes you a better speaker. (R7)

> I now feel more at ease when I speak, which improves my performance. (R4)

The teacher concurred that students feel less anxious at the end of the semester. He emphasised the significance of activities that do not require students to speak in front of the class:

> I think these activities help students feel less anxious. When I ask my students, they say they feel more at ease when they speak. Whether what they thought was true or not, they are now ready to say something without feeling nervous. This is a pretty important change I want to make.

At the end of the semester, R1 and R10, whose primary concern was feeling anxious while speaking, reported being more optimistic. R1 felt nervous when he *"says something in front of the class, but not as much as before."* He argued that engaging in various activities that afforded her adequate speaking opportunities was crucial to her development:

> We had so many opportunities to talk. We spoke lot. I think we would be much further along now if we had done this last year.

R10 concurred that speaking classes assisted him in recognizing that he should be relaxed and not be frightened of making mistakes when speaking. His anxiety condition is not yet solved, but he has progressed since the beginning of the semester:

> I don't know why, but sometimes I didn't feel anxious. It might have been because I was in a good mood. I don't want the semester to end. I think I am getting better. I can't say I'm sure of myself, but at least I've made progress.

R10 proceeded to assert that this study included a psychological component. He agreed that the study's objective was to promote *"students' personal growth by creating an environment where they can see that they have a say in how lessons are put together and feel good about themselves."*

Most participants confirmed that the sessions helped them enhance their 'fluency' in the language areas where they observed progress.

> The classes gave me chances to speak English, which helped me get better at it. (R10)

> We learned how important it is to speak quickly and with the right tone. We did these because of the activities. Everything we did helped us get better at speaking. (R1)

Some students remarked that these classes were beneficial for learning 'phrases' that can be used when speaking.

> Knowing phrases to use in conversation helped me a lot with how well I could talk.
> (R5)

> I now know how to use different phrases to change the direction of a conversation. (R11)

5.4.3 Teacher final interview

The purpose of the final interview with the teacher was to elicit his thoughts on the effectiveness of the semester, with a focus on course objectives, student participation and performance, and the utility of the flipped classroom format in speaking classes. The participant's teacher was addressed as

Simon (participant's pseudonym).

Simon argued that he accomplished the course's objectives by offering adequate opportunities for students to speak English, which would help them develop their speaking skills. He thought the exercises were beneficial: " *I don't care how well they spoke, but I think it was good that every student took part."* Consequently, students *"liked doing the things. Unless they did, they would not have taken part."* When asked why this satisfaction, he emphasised the game-like nature of the exercises and the fact that they suited the student's abilities. Furthermore, he emphasised the constructive classroom atmosphere, in which students appeared to get along well. Simon verified that the flipped classroom model influences student engagement:

> Flipping the class gives students ownership over the lecture and activities. I asked students in other classrooms what they wanted to study. This class was more systematic. Comparatively, research class students were more involved.

Simon emphasised the classroom dynamics and argued that each class had distinctive characteristics. Consequently, their responses to the same activity may be varied: "*In one class, one activity or topic may be effective, while in another, the opposite may be true."* Although he recognised that the flipped classroom model is beneficial, he questioned if it is effective in all classes. He provided an example of a previous class he taught:

> This class was very reluctant and did not do much. I couldn't get any responses. They didn't do anything. I asked what to do and how to do it, but I didn't get much of an answer.

Moreover, Simon believed that students must be aware of their goals and needs for the flipped classroom model to be effective. Regarding the feasibility of this type of systematic method, he made comments. He mentioned that he had taught five classes with more than twenty-five students each:

> You must always get students involved and ask for feedback often. It's hard for me to do this in all of my classes, though. If I only had one class with fewer students, it would be easy for me to do this.

Concerning the impact of this research on her professional development, he confirmed that he started to be more critical regarding the activity choice:

> I think critically about classroom topics. These include students' needs and methods for addressing them. To accomplish this, I began to analyse the effectiveness of activities critically.

He also agreed that, in the future, he would attempt to engage students more in his classes: *"I will try to get specific information from the students about the things they need, the activities they want, and*

the ones that will help them the most."

5.5 Speaking performances

Before presenting the speaking performance of participants, It is required to conduct the homogeneity test, also known as a normality test, to determine whether or not the data from the pre-test were distributed normally. The results are presented in Table 5.9. Skewness (SES) and kurtosis (SEK) are, as stated by Kim (2013), measurements of the asymmetry and "peaked-ness" of a distribution. The Skewness and Kurtosis will be zero if the population is equally distributed. As a result of the fact that the values of SES and SEK do not always equal zero, this data may take the form of either positive or negative numbers.

Table 5.9

Skewness and Kurtosis of speaking pre-test and post-test

	N	Sum	Mean	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Pretest	40	2842	71.05	-.270	.374	-.311	.733
Posttest	40	3184	79.60	-.007	.374	-.902	.733
Valid N (listwise)	40						

The results of the SES and SEK tests are presented in Table 5.9, and all of the values fall within the normal range (between -2 and 2). As a result, it is possible to conclude that the data obtained from the speaking pre-test and post-test for the participants follow a typical distribution pattern.

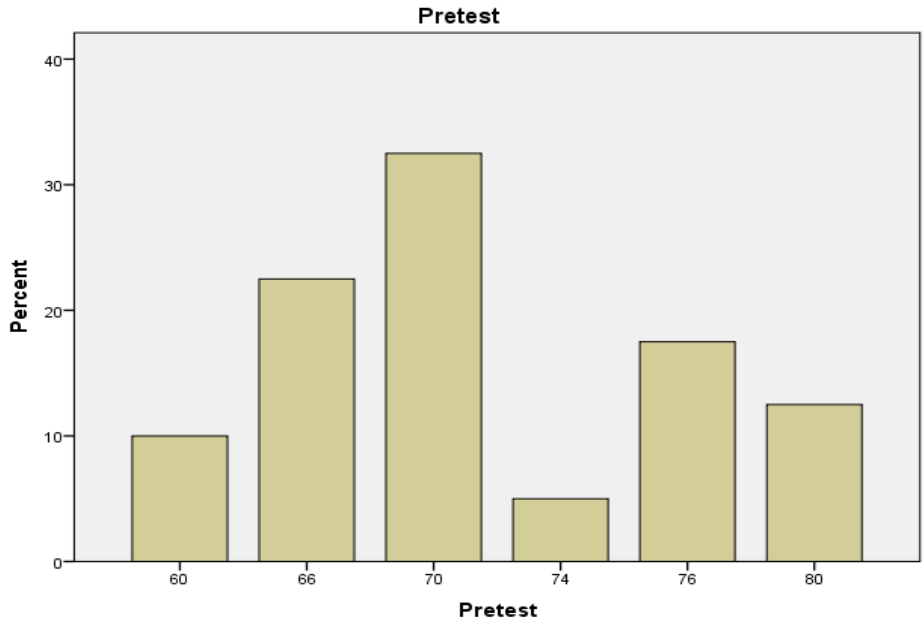
5.5.1 Descriptive statistics of participants speaking performance

Figure 5.2 shows the pre-test results of all the participants. Most obtained 70 marks (22.8%) out of 100 in the speaking pre-test. This was followed by students obtaining 66 marks (15.8%), 76 marks (12.3%), 80 marks (8.8%), 60 marks (7%), and 74 marks (3.5%).

Nevertheless, as illustrated in Figure 5.3, there was a difference in their post-test scores. On the post-test, most of the students in the class scored 84 marks, equivalent to 14%. This was followed by students obtaining 80 marks and 82 marks (10.5%); 86 marks, 78 marks and 76 marks (7%); 90 marks (5.3%); 88 marks and 72 marks (3.5%); and 74 marks (1.8%).

Figure 5.2.

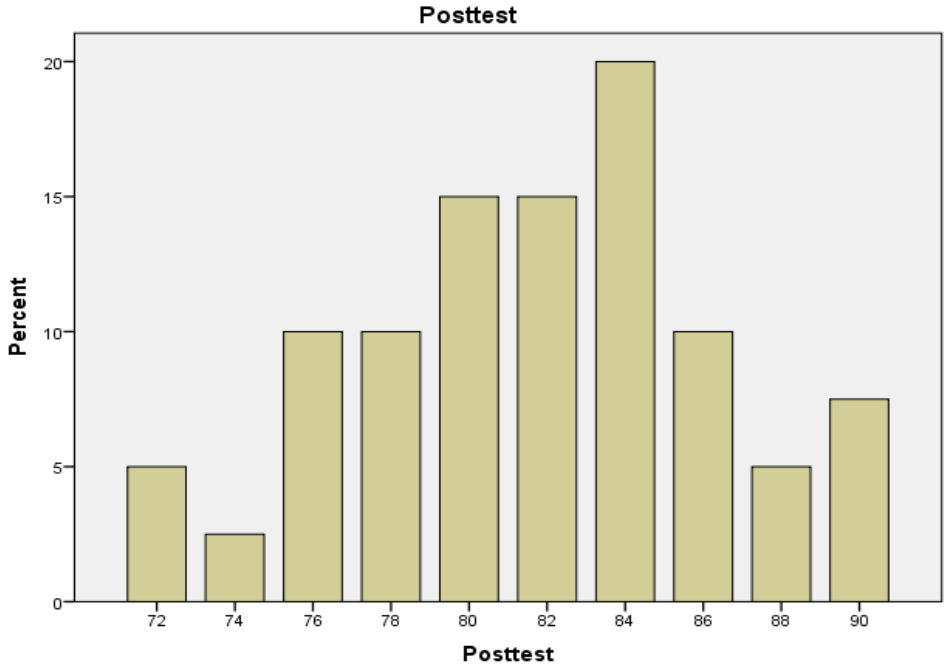
Pre-test results of all participants



In the pre-test and post-test, students were interviewed by the teacher and given a set of questions to which they had to respond. On the pre-and post-test, the maximum possible score was 100. Each test was evaluated using four primary criteria: comprehension, fluency, accuracy, and complexity.

Figure 5.3.

Post-test results of all participants



The comprehension part describes the job's requirements and evaluates whether the spoken solutions to the question contain significant, extended, and supported arguments. Fluency assesses how students articulated themselves when responding to the questions. As for accuracy, it evaluates the flexibility and precision of each sentence's structures. Complexity examines how responses are constructed and presented; whether concepts are clear and well-formed.

5.5.2 The effect of a flipped classroom intervention on speaking performance

This section describes the flipped classroom intervention's effect on the participants' speaking performance as determined by a statistical technique, a paired t-test analysis. Paired t-test analysis is a statistical method for determining any variation in a mean between two related samples (Statistics Solution, 2018). A p-value of less than 0.005 signifies the existence of mean differences between the two related samples. This study determined the average differences between students' pre- and post-test speaking performance scores.

To measure the speaking performance of a flipped classroom intervention, the paired sample t-test was used, and the data were presented in Table 5.10.

Table 5.10

Paired sample statistics for speaking pre-test and post-test

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Pre-test	70.60	40	5.804	.918
	Post-test	81.70	40	4.675	.739

The participants' performance before and after the intervention was measured, and the differences using a paired sample t-test were analysed.

Table 5.11

Paired sample t-test for speaking pre-test and post-test

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences					T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Pre-test – Post-test	-11.100	3.565	.564	-12.240	-9.960	-19.693	39	.000

The result (Table 5.11) shows that there is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test (t (39): -19.693, p<0.05).

Table 5.12, a combination of Tables 5.4 and 5.5, demonstrates an additional significant difference between the pre-test and post-test means for speaking performances (t (39): -19.693, $p < 0.05$). In the table, the student's performance on the post-test (Mean = 81.70, SD = 4.675) was higher than their pre-test (Mean = 70.60, SD = 5.804). In conclusion, students participating in the study had better speaking performances in the post-test when compared to their results in the pre-test.

Table 5.12

Paired sample t-test for speaking pre-test and post-test

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Pre-test	70.60	40	5.804	.918
	Post-test	81.70	40	4.675	.739

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Pre-test – Post-test	-11.100	3.565	.564	-12.240	-9.960	-19.693	39	.000

5.6 Concluding remarks

This chapter investigated students' impressions of the flipped classroom model using pre-and post-test scores, questionnaires, and narratives collected during semi-structured interviews at each study stage. In Stage One, all students completed the questionnaire, and 15 agreed to be interviewed. This stage revealed students' dissatisfaction and lack of confidence in their speaking abilities. Lack of practice was cited as the primary cause. Students were also dissatisfied due to perceived vocabulary gaps and lack of fluency. Students wanted to be actively involved in speaking classes. They intended to engage on relevant topics and to participate without hesitation.

Stage Two was flipped classroom intervention for speaking classes. As a result of the data gathered at this stage, positive and negative aspects of the number of students who accepted to be interviewed and completed the questionnaire varied between sessions. Students preferred guessing activities that created a competitive classroom environment that boosted participation. Controlled activities, public

speaking, and significant group activities reduced class effectiveness.

Students were significantly more satisfied with their speaking skills throughout Stage Three, demonstrating the efficacy of flipped classrooms. All students completed the questionnaire, and 15 students agreed to be interviewed. Before and after the study, their evaluations of their interpersonal abilities varied statistically. Most students enjoyed speaking classes. Most participants believed that the teacher implemented appropriate classroom activities boosted participation.

The quantitative pre-and post-test results validated the questionnaire and semi-structured interview findings. Results confirmed participants' satisfaction with flipped classroom model. The flipped classroom model for speaking skills increased their engagement and communication throughout the course. According to the students, the flipped classroom for speaking skills improved the quality of instruction and the use of classroom time. The post-test showed a significant statistical change in speaking performance compared to the pre-test. This showed that implementing the flipped classroom model to improve speaking skills in the EFL classroom was successful.

The flipped classroom model improved students' and teachers' critical thinking skills in evaluating classroom activities. It will then link these findings to the literature discussed in Chapter 2 and other theoretical issues raised by the study.

Chapter Six: Discussion

6.1 Introduction

The current study examined the impact of the flipped classroom model on the speaking skills of ESL/EFL learners. The findings provide insights into the effectiveness of the flipped classroom model and its implications for the teaching and learning of speaking skills. This chapter synthesizes the existing literature and the previous chapter's findings to systematically explicate the answer to the research questions (see Section 1.5). Thus, this chapter is organised following the arrangement of research questions dan hypotheses. Section 6.2 presents a brief introduction to the current study. Participants' initial perceptions of their speaking skills and reported difficulties when speaking are presented in Section 6.3. Students' perspectives on the ideal objectives of language acquisition are discussed in Section 6.4. In Section 6.5, students' views on designing practical speaking classes will be explored, including structural and affective issues. Section 6.6 presents the changes reported after the intervention, including changes in perceived speaking ability. Section 6.7 explores the influence of flipped classroom intervention. Section 6.8 discusses the flipped classroom model and changes in students' perceptions. Section 6.9 presents the implications of flipped classroom intervention for teachers and students. Section 6.10 concludes the chapter.

6.2 An overview of the research hypothesis and the results of the current study

This section will provide an overview of the study's results, highlighting the key findings related to the effectiveness of the flipped classroom model for improving the speaking skills of ESL/EFL learners. The present study explores the influence of flipped classroom model on EFL students' speaking skills and their perception of the learning model. In order to answer the questions of the study, quantitative data from the questionnaires were collected from the participants. Furthermore, qualitative data, interviews, open-ended items in the questionnaire, and class observations were conducted further to explore the participants' personal experiences during the study. Moreover, it was hypothesised that L2 students' speaking performance would significantly improve after flipped classroom intervention.

To assess the validity of the hypotheses, quantitative data were collected using a pre-and post-test design in the experiment (refer to Section 5.5). Forty participants attended eight sessions of the flipped speaking classroom intervention. The L2 participants were required to take a speaking pre-test without any assistance during the pre-test. A flipped speaking intervention consisting of eight 150-

minute sessions was administered following the pre-test. Both the pre-test and the post-test were administered under identical settings.

The experiment utilised a pre-and post-test design to obtain quantitative data to check the validity of the hypotheses. The L2 participants had to take a speaking pre-test without any specific intervention. After the pre-test, an 8-session flipped classroom intervention was conducted. The participants were pre-and post-tested under the same conditions.

According to data analysis, the flipped classroom intervention significantly enhanced participants' speaking performance. All participants also completed the questionnaire. All participants approved the flipped classroom model since it helped pace their learning and build confidence. Ninety-seven per cent of respondents were also pleased with flipped classroom learning.

Section 6.3 examines the effectiveness of flipped classroom instruction for improving speaking skills.

6.3 The effectiveness of the flipped classroom instruction for improving speaking skills

This study investigates the effect of a flipped classroom intervention on the speaking performance of L2 students. As supported by previous studies, the current study has demonstrated that flipping the classroom for speaking skills can improve student performance (Öztürk & Çakıroğlu, 2021; Santikarn & Wichadee, 2018; Zhang, 2018). Quyen and Loi (2018) used an L2 speaking scenario to examine the impact of adopting a flipped classroom style on the speaking performance of Vietnamese students at Can Thao University. The experimental and control groups received the 5-week speaking curriculum. The experimental group got flipped instruction, while the other got traditional instruction. The results showed that students who got flipped classroom instruction outperformed those in traditional classrooms regarding speaking performance.

In a study with 27 Omani university students in an L2 environment, Abdullah (2019) found that employing a flipped classroom model in Advanced Communication Skills was more effective than using a traditional classroom. The significant development of the flipped group may be attributed to three primary factors: 1) the flexibility of learning that the flipped classroom model provides; 2) the well-designed in-class and out-of-class activities; and 3) the constant speaking practice. In this way, the current study supports Abdullah's (2019) results that flipped classrooms can help L2 students improve their speaking.

However, some differences exist between this study and Abdullah (2019). The instructional methods used in these two experiments were distinct. The current study focuses on a flipped classroom model based on the Community of Inquiry approach and Output-driven/Input-enabled hypotheses employed for L2 learners. These approaches to learning help the students in the classroom because they emphasise creating an active classroom in which the students are hands-on with their speaking materials and learn from the model provided for them. In contrast, Abdullah (2019) focused on flipping the teaching process but did not specify speaking instructions or teaching tactics.

The current study focused on lexical and grammatical knowledge in the classroom. Even though the focus of the class was the same, the pre-test and post-test questions differed. The pre-test and post-test questions were changed to prevent memorization and assess participants' ability to adapt and transfer knowledge to diverse genres and contexts. However, Abdullah's study (2015) did not state what materials the participants were taught and how they were taught to speak in the classroom. The identical speaking test was used for the pre-test and post-tests. It is challenging to assess participants' actual development. Additional classroom time, lexical and grammatical knowledge, and understanding of the study's issue would improve their speaking. They may even recall their initial effort. Nonetheless, Abdullah (2019) found that teaching L2 speaking using a flipped classroom method significantly improved students' speaking skills.

In their experiment, Li and Suwanthep (2017) used a group size of 46 students and obtained comparable results. The in-class and independent study time of L2 students was extended because of the flipped classroom. Lessons in online video format helped L2 students understand grammatical and lexical knowledge better. The strategy "flipping the classroom" helped students enhance their public speaking abilities by participating in constructive role-plays that allowed them to practise speaking skills based on prior knowledge gained through online activities. During the trial, which lasted twelve weeks, the students were expected to learn four units from the Four Corner textbook (Richards & Bohkle, 2011). Four lessons are in a unit, with lessons A and C concentrating on introducing new vocabulary and grammar. The researcher substituted an in-class lecture with a video lesson in a flipped classroom that students saw before class. Each new lesson was accompanied by a 7 to 8-minute video lecture. There were two videos for a lesson, one focused on vocabulary, and the other focused on grammatical knowledge.

Li and Suwanthep supported the result of the current study. The current study and Li and Suwanthep (2017) confirm that the flipped classroom strategy can increase students' learning outcomes in speaking performance. Students could re-watch class recordings at their own pace and receive quick

feedback. In their study, when the outcomes of students in the traditional and flipped classrooms were compared, it was determined that the flipped classroom strategy increased student speaking performance. There were two main reasons why flipped classroom model in this study accounted for the more significant speaking improvement in the experimental group. The first one was the flipped classroom model offered an optimised mode of instruction for speaking class. The second one was utilising constructive role-plays to test out the previous knowledge they got.

The current study found that flipped speaking classes increased students' speaking performance, as Teng (2017) supported. Teng (2017) concluded that flipped classrooms promoted autonomous learning, higher participation levels, active cooperation, and self-assessment. In the current study, the flipped classroom approach successfully boosted L2 students' speaking skills since it accommodated their learning differences and demands. Second, students were shown to be more active learners than passive ones. Third, the students appreciated the chance to collaborate. While discussing together, students could discuss their language-related issues. Students with lower levels of knowledge could transition to a higher order of thinking during class with the assistance of more capable classmates and instruction from their competent teacher.

Even though both studies' overall research design incorporated theories, including Bloom's Revised Taxonomy, to build a flipped speaking classroom, the two studies have a substantial difference. It was intended that the participants in Teng's (2017) study would learn about cross-cultural communication challenges, comprehend how culture influences communication, and recognise potential obstacles to efficient cross-cultural communication. In the current study, the participants were enrolled in a general English course that mainly focused on speaking skills and did not include cross-cultural knowledge in its curriculum.

The participants' speaking performance improved dramatically in the current study for four reasons. First, participants' learning improved due to rich input/output/interaction instruction. Students received pre-class input in the flipped classroom, which provided opportunities to utilise the classroom time to practice speaking. Second, the participants saw the benefit of personalised classroom instruction. The teacher had sufficient time to provide scaffolded and personalised learning to assist the participants in the flipped classroom. Third, the participants favoured flipped classrooms because they allowed them to develop lower skills (e.g., remembering or understanding) at home while doing higher skills (e.g., evaluating and creating) in class. Finally, the instructional videos and classroom materials gave the participants more accessibility so that those who missed the class could have a chance to access the same materials and information. Yesilçinar (2019) used a similar research

design to the current study. Yesilçinar (2019) employed speaking tests and questionnaires to assess 22 participants' (15 males and 7 females) speaking skills and attitudes toward flipped learning. The study recruited 22 non-English faculty members from four departments over 17 weeks. For 17 weeks, participants accessed the weekly materials on Edmodo. Despite the similarities, the current and Yesilçinar's (2019) studies differ significantly. For example, Yesilçinar's (2019) study had 22 faculty members as its participant, while in the current study, the participants were first-semester students in a non-English department.

In addition, collaboration, motivation, engagement, and knowledge development were the themes generated by the participants in the current study. Collaboration was a significant theme because it helped the participants enhance their speaking skills by practising communicating with groups. Some participants performed very well through active engagement, increasing their motivation throughout the course. Knowledge development was another theme for the findings. The participants stated that they could learn the materials from the video and appreciated the repetition through replay provided through the flipped classroom.

The participant in the current study stated that they obtained several advantages from the flipped classroom model. This includes receiving an overview of the material covered in the course, finishing the assigned worksheet before class, engaging in meaningful conversation with classmates and the teacher, and asking for additional feedback. Lee and Wallace (2018) supported this finding from the current study. They studied a semester-long flipped English program in four sections of a South Korean university's same intermediate-level college English class. This study was conducted with the participation of 79 total students. Their qualitative findings supported the current study's conclusions on the benefits of flipped classrooms. Like this study, many participants in Lee and Wallace's (2018) study stated that flipped classrooms had several advantages. The participants in the study, on the other hand, had an average or above-average level of English language skills. In addition to this, they had excellent study skills and a strong work ethic. As in this study, the flipped classroom may not work for non-English department students, especially those with limited English competence.

The current study found a substantial difference in empowerment in the flipped classroom. Students believed they received more individualized attention in the flipped classroom. In the flipped classroom, they reported having a higher level of self-assurance in their capabilities and an increased desire to acquire new knowledge. Because the research focused on the perspectives of both teachers and students, it was impossible to determine whether there was a statistically

significant difference in the final tasks (Lee and Wallace, 2018). However, the current study focused on the students' speaking skills and whether their perceptions matched their learning outcomes. The current study's speaking performance matched the participants' overall perception. Participants' speaking scores improved significantly. The questionnaire and semi-structured interviews indicated that students' learning outcomes improved. The flipped classroom was a helpful learning strategy for boosting L2 speaking skills.

The current study's findings support prior research on the effect of the flipped classroom on L2 learners' speaking skills. In the current study, the students built a solid basis of factual knowledge, related it to the situation, and rationally organized their thoughts. They might also watch the videos at their own pace and time. Teachers might provide students with more individual attention and interactive learning opportunities and address their specific needs and problems in the classroom. The current study fully supports the findings from Bezzazi (2019). Bezzazi (2019) conducted a research study that lasted twelve weeks and involved the participation of seventy-nine second-year students. The students were required to watch videos and read internet resources related to the chosen topics. Following completion of the program, students were assigned a pre- and post-in-class speech and a reflective essay of 250 words on the program itself. Students were assessed on oral presentations, and the presentations were delivered individually. The teacher allowed the students to select an appropriate topic of interest and prepare their presentations before class.

Nevertheless, there are some differences. In Bezzazi's (2019) study, students watched video lectures for 12 weeks to create a good presentation covering planning, preparing, practising, and presenting. The present study's video lectures were similar in length but covered critical lexical knowledge and linguistic features for L2 students. Linking words, sentence structures, and word choice are critical when students' language ability is low. Moreover, the participants were also different. This study's participants were all first-year university students, while Bezzazi's (2019) study focused on sophomore students.

This current study found that the students who reported using flipped classroom model with synchronous and asynchronous sessions also significantly improved their speaking performance after comparing the pre-and post-test. The students also participated in the activities provided by the teacher in the asynchronous sessions, and during the synchronous sessions, they had a virtual meeting with their peers and teacher. They also did exercises to review the materials before they joined the virtual meeting. Prior studies have noted the importance of flipped classrooms using a combination of synchronous and asynchronous sessions in developing L2 students' speaking skills and self-

efficacy. For example, Sudarmaji and Mulyana (2021) investigated the effect of a flipped classroom model on students' speaking abilities through an online flipped classroom. The quantitative research approach was employed in this research. The sample consisted of 34 seniors in high school and was selected purposefully utilising a quasi-experimental research approach that included a before and after format. Because of the logistical challenges associated with hosting in-person sessions at the school, an online version of the flipped classroom concept was developed and implemented. Despite this, the students still have the opportunity to engage in face-to-face communication with the instructor through group chat and video conferencing. During class sessions, students can put these interactions to use by discussing the subject that is being presented and practising their use of spoken English.

In Sudarmaji and Mulyana (2021), the pre-class exercise in the online flipped classroom model was conducted through a group chat, and the students were given the assignment to review the content before the beginning of the class. During the time allotted for the lesson, every group member participated in a face-to-face meeting conducted by video conferencing. A speaking test was administered to the students before and after the flipped classroom model's introduction to evaluate the student's overall performance in the speaking class. The group that participated in the experiment demonstrated that the online flipped classroom model increases students' engagement with the English content and considerably enhances their language communication ability. Additionally, the class session increased the student's confidence level when speaking English.

However, when comparing the results of this study to Sudarmaji and Mulyana (2021), it must be pointed out that in their study, the participants were senior students in high school, while in this study, the participants were first-year students in the university. Sudarmaji and Mulyana (2021) utilised the quasi-experimental research design, while this study utilised action research combined with mixed methods using concurrent embedded design. This present study covered eight intervention sessions in one semester. However, in Sudarmaji and Mulyana (2021), the number of flipped sessions implemented in the design is not presented.

The result of this present study is contrary to Korkmaz and Mirici's (2021) study, which suggested that students did not report significant changes between the traditional face-to-face learning model and online flipped learning. Korkmaz and Mirici (2021) transferred the ideas of the traditional flipped learning model to an online setting. As a result, they collected positive comments from the students who participated in the study. The data on students' perspectives acquired through semi-structured interviews suggested that the flipped learning paradigm made practising speaking easier.

Nevertheless, the results of the questionnaire given to students before and after the intervention indicated that the flipped learning model was inefficient in decreasing the levels of anxiety that students experience when learning a foreign language compared to synchronous learning. The results of the questionnaire were revealed after the intervention. Furthermore, it did not substantially affect students' capacity to self-regulate their behaviours.

The results of the current study further support the flipped learning approach, which provides a diverse, comfortable, and prevalent learning environment. Because of the nature of this environment, both students and teachers can exert a greater degree of control over the English language instruction and learning that takes place here, which, in turn, assists learners in enhancing their level of language competence (Hsieh et al., 2017). The current study assessed students' speaking performance, engagement, and interactive behaviours, as well as their perceptions of the flipped classroom when the proposed methodology was implemented. It found that students' speaking performance improved significantly. The findings emphasised how the flipped method improved the students' learning attitudes and dealt with issues of student engagement with feedback. The findings also highlighted how the flipped method dealt with difficulties of student engagement with feedback. The findings underlined how the flipped approach handled student involvement with feedback difficulties, which was another focus of the discussion. With these findings regarding the students' oral performance, engagement, and interactive activity, classroom teachers who apply the proposed technique can consider more benefits than the standard video-based English-speaking classroom. The findings of this recent study confirm that flipping speaking classes in which students take turns speaking is a practical instruction method. The recommendation that has been made helps teachers connect with students who have various capabilities or levels of learning achievement.

The relevance of the effect of flipped speaking classrooms on L2 learners' proficiency is supported by several previous studies. For example, Lin and Hwang (2018) conducted a study involving two classes of 33 and 16 students over 18 weeks. An 18-week research design was implemented with the online community-based flipped classroom that used Facebook as the platform. This design aimed to facilitate and monitor peer-to-peer interactions during flipped learning. In addition, during the 18 weeks, statistics on the student's learning performance and their perceptions of that performance were collected. An online community-based flipped classroom was designed to gain a deeper understanding of students' English learning processes, speaking performances, levels of participation and interactive patterns through the findings conducted in this study. A learning analytics approach was utilised in the course of the research that was carried out to evaluate the gaps in academic achievement between students with high and low-performance levels.

The online community-based flipped learning strategy that utilised mobile technology was successful in the classroom where English was spoken when all of the data from Lin and Hwang's (2018) study were analysed together. This is the case since the approach was successful. Regarding performance, the flipped speaking technique has a highly favourable effect in increasing students' learning performance compared to the traditional video-based learning strategy. This is because the flipped speaking approach emphasises the speaking component of the learning experience. According to the investigation findings, the students appeared interested in learning English using their mobile devices to access various English input or learning resources. They could use their mobile devices to watch videos before and before the lecture, at which point they would be capable of completing the pre-class assignments and providing a response to any remarks made. By flipping speaking classrooms, students can learn English more time-effectively, and teachers gain a deeper insight into the dynamic between them and their students regarding the feedback they receive and how they learn (Lin & Hwang, 2018). In other words, students and teachers benefit by switching speaking roles. Furthermore, according to the teacher's observations and analysis of the student's participation throughout the 18-week course, the students were motivated to participate in the out-of-class learning activities while taking the course. This was determined by the teacher's observations and student participation analysis (Lin & Hwang, 2018).

Additionally, the flipped classroom model improves classroom management, giving teachers more time to communicate individually with each student (Basal, 2015; Bergmann & Sams, 2015; Sung, 2015). The flipped-speaking classroom also allows teachers to interact more with students and improves their relationships with them (DeLozier & Rhodes, 2017; Han, 2015; Sung, 2015). This encourages students to take a more active role in their learning processes, which DeLozier & Rhodes (2017) and Han (2015) and Sung (2015) have found to be beneficial. In addition to this benefit, the flipped classroom encourages students to take greater ownership of their academic development (Zhang & Wu, 2016).

The current study encouraged students to participate more actively since the classroom activities were inverted. The students watched the videos at home before coming to class, and the effect was that they were more prepared to participate in the activities that were going on in the classroom. Such preparation helped boost student involvement. Lectures were conducted outside of regular classroom hours through instructional videos; thus, more time was spent with the teacher on discussions, which raised students' comprehension levels. This learning model resulted in more participation from students in the lesson. These findings were supported by the study conducted by AlKhoudary and

AlKhoudary (2019).

AlKhoudary and AlKhoudary (2019) conducted a study investigating the feasibility of implementing the flipped classroom model in a secondary school in Oman to determine the model's effect on students' speaking abilities. The study also assesses participants' responses to the potential outcome of using such a procedure to improve students' public speaking abilities. The findings indicate that students are encouraged to put in more effort and pay attention to the contents that are recorded and made available online. The flipped classroom technique encourages student participation and the independent exchange of information. However, it is not well received by novice teachers. In addition, the findings of this study show that the new method has a good effect on the student's attitudes. Because it can be utilised in EFL and ESL classrooms, teachers and students highly regard the blended technique. However, due to many obstacles, some teachers may be discouraged from using flipped classrooms in their lesson plans.

The findings of this study demonstrate that the flipped classroom model assisted students in achieving the learning outcomes they set for themselves in speaking. In addition, the student's performance in speaking increased overall in the flipped classroom. The students also reported increased comfort and confidence in communicating effectively in English. Students' motivation to participate in class activities increased using this learning model. Students took the initiative and became more invested in their learning processes. Students could test their mastery of particular grammar points and vocabulary to apply in their speaking performance by performing asynchronous assignments and engaging in synchronous speaking practice.

Hashemifardnia et al. (2021) supported these findings in the current study. They explored how the flipped classroom will affect the speaking skill of Iranian students learning English as a foreign language in terms of accuracy, complexity, and fluency. In order to achieve this objective, 96 Iranian students of English as a foreign language (EFL) took the Oxford Quick Placement Test (OQPT), which Oxford University developed. Since these sixty students were performing at an intermediate level, they were selected to participate as the target population in the study. The selected participants were randomly assigned to two groups: the experimental group (n = 30 individuals) or the control group (consisting of n = 30 individuals). After that, a speaking pre-test was given to all participants in both groups. Following that, the training for the experimental group was carried out using a strategy referred to as flipped instruction. In contrast, the training for the control group was carried out in the context of a traditional classroom.

The findings of Hashemifardnia et al. (2021) can motivate English teachers to apply flipped education in their classrooms to improve their students' learning outcomes, much like the present study's findings. Additionally, the findings of both studies can contribute to expanding the existing body of knowledge in the field by encouraging additional research to concentrate on how flipped instruction might assist EFL and ESL students in improving their speaking skills. This contribution can be made by encouraging additional research to focus on how flipped instruction might assist EFL and ESL students to improve their speaking skills.

In summary, the current study's findings support previous research showing that flipped learning benefits L2 students in developing their speaking skills. Despite the differences in methodology, teaching and learning framework, and participant competence levels, the impact of flipped learning on L2 learners was clear. In this study, students in the flipped classroom performed better speaking after the intervention. Thus, implementing flipped learning in L2 classes improved students' speaking skills.

6.3.1 The contributions of the flipped classroom intervention to L2 students' speaking performance

The most important key findings from this research were that (1) students who had participated in an intervention based on the flipped classroom had substantially higher scores on the post-test than on the pre-test, and (2) students had positive perceptions of the flipped classroom model.

First, the research results are consistent with the Community of Inquiry theoretical framework. In conjunction with Constructivism, the Community of Inquiry is an example of an effective learning environment because it facilitates the development of a constructively collaborative learning experience (Garrison & Arbaugh, 2007). Three components comprise the enquiry community: teaching, social, and cognitive. The flipped classroom model naturally incorporates these three components in the current study. The term "teaching presence" refers to planning and facilitating instructors' learning opportunities during in-person sessions. The student's level of involvement and cohesiveness in the classroom, which may be observed from the activities meant for pair or group work, is referred to as the student's "social presence." The students can generate meaning through continuous conversation, which constitutes cognitive presence.

Preece and Bularafa (2015) also supported the result of the current study with their findings that showed the community of inquiry approach has great potential to benefit learners' English language skills, especially listening and speaking, by creating an opportunity to practice their skills through

sharing their views in the classroom. Moreover, Preece and Bularafa (2015) also stated that the approach could enhance learners' confidence to speak more effectively in the classroom.

The flipped classroom model in this current study also aligns with three hypotheses with the output-driven, input-enabled hypothesis. According to Qiufang (2008), the output-driven hypothesis proposes that output, rather than input, may be more beneficial to acquire a second language. She also stated that the output-driven hypothesis proposes that cultivating learners' productive skills has a more social function than receptive skills (Qiufang, 2008). In the flipped classroom, the classroom time is freed from lectures so that the students can have more time to communicate with their peers. However, Qiufang (2008) changed the hypothesis and emphasised input, indicating that output is the driving force and input is the strategy that enables language learners to complete the task. Putting an equal weight between instructional videos provided outside the class and the speaking activities designed in in-class sessions, flipped classroom ensures that the students will get enough input to perform the spoken language tasks in the class.

Third, this study's findings mirrored earlier research on autonomy in flipped classes. According to Zainuddin and Perera (2019), flipped classes improved student-peer interaction and self-directed learning skills. Learners in flipped classrooms reported higher self-assurance and motivation for engaging in activities that promoted self-directed learning, unlike students in traditional classrooms. Students could prepare themselves for the class using flipped learning by watching online lectures at their own pace before discussing them in the classroom.

The findings of Zainuddin and Perera's (2019) study are consistent with those of Bergmann and Sams (2014), who found that students in the flipped group felt more confident and in control of their learning since they were able to prepare for class ahead of time. In Zainuddin and Perera's (2019) study, the researchers analysed the performance of 238 students in both regular and flipped versions of the courses Philippine Literature, Nursing Informatics, and Field Study 1. Students performed better in every field of study when their classes were flipped. They could study the materials at their own pace, time, and location, so they were very motivated and immersed in their sessions. The use of lecture videos and in-class interactive activities scaffolded information delivery across three courses and programs.

Han (2015) claims that the study's theoretical paradigm of flipped learning in second language acquisition facilitated successful learning and increased learner autonomy. In 2013, he launched a flipped classroom format for an adult community English language program in the US. The course

combines Nation's (2007) four-strand approach and Strayer's flipped learning framework (2007). The results demonstrated significant growth in learner autonomy, resulting in student achievement.

The current study's findings support this section's numerous flipped learning theories. Aside from the theoretical framework of the Community of Inquiry, output-driven, input-enabled hypotheses and learner autonomy significantly impacted L2 proficiency students' speaking performance. In a flipped-speaking classroom, students were more emotionally, cognitively, and behaviourally engaged and more confident in their speaking skills if they had strong relationships with their teacher and classmates. These elements all contributed to their improved speaking skills in this study.

6.4 Students' perceptions of their speaking ability before and after the intervention

This section will provide a more in-depth analysis of the participants' initial perceptions of speaking ability and reported problems experienced while speaking. These findings to past studies and theories related to speaking skills will be discussed, highlighting the implications of these findings for the teaching and learning speaking skills.

First, it is crucial to explore students' assessments of their speaking skills and the causes behind negative perceptions. Data collected before implementing the flipped classroom model are covered here. The data gathered at this stage is critical to understanding the situation before the interventions and tracking changes in perceptions throughout the study. Students believed they could not speak successfully due to a lack of practice, inability to articulate themselves, lack of lexical knowledge, inability to communicate coherently, and anxiousness. In the section about the students' ideal language learning goals, more emphasis will be addressed on a review of the significance of the practice. The phrase "inability to express what I think" applies to students' performances that include speaking. During the fifth intervention, students were given two images and instructed to describe the visuals to their partners. Due to a lack of vocabulary items, not a single student could describe it adequately. During their conversation, this was the primary topic they addressed. Students are routinely given multiple-choice examinations in which they are expected to identify the appropriate response or the fact being discussed. After mentally constructing a word or sentence in Bahasa Indonesia, they begin speaking in the target language. In this scenario, individuals cannot talk "fluently," and the process of coping with these challenges triggers anxious feelings.

Students interpreted their inability to remember a particular word as a lack of lexical competence. According to Nation (2008), having a vocabulary of 1,200 headwords is sufficient for adequate communication. This section discusses distinguishing between active (receptive) and passive

(productive) vocabulary (Nation, 2001). Words that students can use in their oral production are referred to as active vocabulary.

The participants' perceptions were more critical to this study than the students' actual performance on language exams. As an illustration, there is a tendency to centre one's attention on "how things are" rather than "how individuals think – or perceive – things" (Flutter & Ruddock, 2004, p.6). Consequently, this study focuses on how individuals comprehend difficulties with speech. Students reported higher confidence levels in reading and writing than in listening and speaking. This may have something to do with the importance placed on various aspects of language instruction in elementary, middle, and high school English classrooms, where students reported feeling less competent. It should not surprise that students cannot develop their skills in areas that English classes do not focus on. The following statement attributed to Swain can be found in Nunan (1991), "We learn to read by reading, and we learn to communicate by speaking" (p.51). Hammerly (1991) concisely summarises the unavoidable consequence of teaching structure-based rather than spoken language. Students who were instructed using the grammar-translation method developed a conceptual comprehension of the structure of the language, which may have also helped them with reading.

On the other hand, the students appear to suffer from something that could be defined as selective mutism in a foreign language (Shipon-Blum, 2018). Behaviours like hesitation, resistance, and silence are not typical of students in selective mutism. It is not unusual for students to remain silent, particularly those studying a second language. A "quiet period" is something that students experience when they are in an environment that involves complete immersion (Toppelberg, Tabors, & Burger, 2005). In most cases, students will not start speaking until they reach a point when they are more at ease with their first (L1) or second language (L2.) A student who has difficulty studying remains silent because they are afraid of being teased by their classmates. On the other hand, students who remain speechless for an extended period, typically months, are the ones that experience worry due to selective mutism (Saburi, 2019).

All these aspects are tied to one another in the natural communication setting. The main challenge appears to be an inability to activate previously learnt lexical knowledge for oral communication. If students can overcome this communication barrier, it may increase their fluency and reduce their nervousness when speaking. These problems come from the requirement that students in language classes engage in speaking practice. This issue will be expanded upon in the following section, focusing on students' ideal language class focus.

6.4.1 Students' views about the ideal objectives of language learning

This section will provide a more in-depth analysis of the students' views about the ideal language learning objectives. These findings to past studies and theories related to language learning will be discussed, highlighting the implications of these findings for the teaching and learning of speaking skills.

Students focused on the communicative qualities of language. All agree that English should be the communication language studied. They highlighted how vital speaking was and suggested that anyone learning a language should work towards becoming a competent speaker. There could be several reasons for this. As a result of the fact that this research was conducted in the context of a speaking class, the participants in the study might experience an increase in their confidence level when doing so. For instance, the Hawthorne effect illustrates how people's responses change depending on whether they are in a research setting or their everyday lives (Cook, 1962).

The students' perspectives align with the objectives of communicative language instruction, which emphasise the social elements of language and practical communication (Cook, 2003). By fostering a discussion-based and instructional setting in the classroom, communicative language instruction highlights the significance of oral language practice for students learning a foreign language (Hughes, 2010). The current research emphasises active participation, allowing students to express themselves in language classes. The classroom setting needs to incorporate time for students to get some speaking practice. Students appear to emphasise active participation in speaking classes due to the Indonesian multilingual environment and the fact that most students cannot find someone to speak English with outside the classroom.

Effective speaking classes enable student participation (Ur, 1996), which aligns with the communicative language goals of encouraging student output (Hughes, 2010). When students participate, their exposure to the target language increases and a positive classroom environment is fostered. Williams and Burden put up the concept of "context" as a reason that relates to several other problems investigated by self-interactionism. Students' motivation in the classroom can be affected by several factors, one of which is context (Williams & Burden, 1997). Considering the significance of the classroom environment, it is of the greatest priority to comprehend the expectations of the students. The participants' perspectives on practical classes will be discussed in the following section; these discussions will ideally assist teachers in developing effective speaking classes.

6.4.2 Students' views about the issues to consider in designing effective speaking classes

This section will provide a more in-depth analysis of the students' views about the issues to consider in designing effective speaking classes, both structural and affective. These findings to past studies and theories related to effective teaching and learning of speaking skills will be discussed, highlighting the implications of these findings for the teaching and learning of speaking skills.

Concerns about speaking classes' efficacy are discussed in this section. The data discussed in this section were collected in Stage One and Two. Before and after the interventions, students' perspectives are represented in this section. There are two distinct classifications for the findings: structural and affective. The former refers to organising classes, while the latter focuses on the variables that affect students' attitudes. While most students agreed on affective issues, there were disagreements on lesson design, which necessitated individual language learning differences.

6.4.2.1 Structural issues

Four essential factors contributed to the success of speaking classes: the teacher's involvement, the organisation of the group work, the structure of the speaking activity, and the delivery of fresh input. There was a variety of perspectives regarding the role that the teacher should have in the various speaking activities. Some students, especially the more anxious ones, preferred working with their classmates over the teacher, whilst others anticipated the teacher's participation. Former have reported feeling considerably more anxious whenever their teachers evaluated their performance. This is connected to the idea that those who have trouble communicating verbally may suffer in classes in a foreign language where their performance is evaluated (Horwitz et al., 1986). The term "self-instruction" was first coined by Dickinson (1987), who defined it as "situations in which learners operate without direct teacher control" (p.8). She believes empowering the teacher's role through self-instruction can overcome affective barriers to language learning and improve classroom empathy (p.26).

EFL students rely on their teacher and the curriculum for most of their in-class learning, including determining their learning goals, selecting materials, selecting learning tactics, monitoring their progress, and evaluating their learning (Nguyen & Stracke, 2021). In this context, the activities used for teaching and learning were strongly test-driven and closely connected to the curriculum. Any instances of autonomous behaviour that were seen were reactive. These students appeared to develop into different learners due to their extracurricular learning experiences; they exhibited more remarkable originality and passion in goal-setting, practising, and evaluating their accomplishments

(Jiang & Dewaele, 2019). The students appeared to be detaching themselves from the lessons and avoiding the instructor's presence. The learning activities in this environment emerged not from the needs of the curriculum or the instructor's expectations but rather from each student's motivation to further their English language skills.

However, several students believed the activity was more effective when interacting with the teacher. They stated that they paid closer attention to their performance if the teacher was watching, which enabled the teacher to provide feedback. Williams and Burden (1997) state that teachers can influence students' personal feelings and participation levels by providing both positive and negative feedback. When students can manage their nervousness, they will likely feel more comfortable participating in the activity with the teacher.

According to Dornyei (2005), individual differences are characterized as "characteristics or features by which people may be proven to differ from one another" (p.1). Individual variations are significant in language classrooms because they influence student participation. Providing activities catered to students' different expectations was necessary for this circumstance. If this continues, very few students will get anything from the classes.

Most students favoured activities that required them to work in groups because it allowed them to practise their spoken communication skills. In addition, participation in group projects fosters accountability, independence, motivation, and a sense of community among students in the classroom (Ur, 1996, p.232). There were a significant number of individuals in the group. One of the less successful attempts was the fifth intervention, which required the students to collaborate in groups of six or seven. The fact that most students spoke in Bahasa Indonesia was given as the reason. They responded that the big group size made it difficult for them to exercise self-control, so they communicated in Bahasa Indonesia.

According to Dornyei and Malderez (1999), the behaviour of individuals in groups is distinct from their behaviour outside of groups. According to Dornyei (1994), four different aspects of group dynamics influence L2 motivation. These characteristics include a focus on the group, established norms and rewards, group cohesion, and structured goals for the classroom. When engaging in an activity, it is necessary to establish both a norm and a reward system. The degree to which group members get along well is the group's cohesiveness. Students in large groups often believe that their contributions to activities are insignificant compared to their classmates and would instead not participate. Students cannot build connections with one another and their classmates due to this

barrier. Speaking is considered an "individual" activity because each student's involvement should carry equal weight in the activities carried out in the classroom.

Many pair-work activities were utilised to solve this issue, allowing students to collaborate with their partners. This improved students' self-control, and they avoided speaking Bahasa Indonesia. Cooperative learning is defined as "learning from and scaffolding peers" and "can benefit from being placed in both tutor and tutee roles" (Crandall, 1999, p.226). Pair work activities motivated this study, allowing even reluctant students to participate.

The structure of speaking activities also influenced students' perceptions of their efficacy. Students expressed frustration with less successful interventions and stated that the session would have been more useful without specific structures. Various classifications of speaking activities have been proposed in the literature (e.g., Harmer, 1991; Littlewood, 1981). Activities classified as pre-communicative or non-communicative emphasise various forms and materials. According to Harmer and Littlewood, they include the practice of knowledge or ability that can be applied in communication activities. Students felt that pre-communicative exercises were too restricting and avoided participating. This occurred when they were restricted to only asking questions of the yes/no or list variety.

Interestingly, some activities that allow students much freedom also failed. For example, when they were free to speak, they stopped using English and used Bahasa Indonesia. L2 students with limited linguistic knowledge may have difficulty producing their sentences and may not show smooth turn transitions when responding to the conversation partner. Pauses and other speech errors may not be adequately characterised as speech-production issues in these individuals (Roever & Kasper, 2018). Thus, the students chose to speak in Bahasa Indonesia to make the conversation smoother. These examples demonstrate the importance of balancing communicative and pre-communicative activities to maximize class effectiveness. Understanding the learners' needs and expectations is critical to addressing this.

Another issue with flipped classroom designs is that students are not "learning something new." Since they did not see any progress when merely practising English using the knowledge they already possessed, they claimed that specific interventions did not provide students with fresh material they could utilise while speaking. This is evidence that some participants consider input essential to speaking lessons. Speaking is a challenging skill requiring diverse supplementary abilities or subskills (Tarone, 2005). There is a difference between learning a product and learning how to do something

properly. The communicative language teaching approach emphasises a 'process,' as speaking depends upon participation in a communication process, even though students requested a 'product' (Richards, 2006). This supports Swain's (2005) comprehensible output hypothesis, which focuses on the learner's output in language acquisition. According to Harmer (1991), "exposing students to language input is not enough; we must also provide opportunities for them to activate this knowledge because students can only select from the input they have received when producing language." (p. 40). It is possible that the students who participated in this study were unaware of the importance of output in language acquisition. This may be because their learning strongly emphasises developing receptive skills requiring input. They may have the exact expectations for the speaking class. Concerned students should understand that it is essential to improve their speaking skills and avoid believing that it is worthless to practise general information.

6.4.2.2 Effective speaking classes design

This section discusses how to design classes that promote students' affective states. Students described successful interventions as '*interesting*,' '*comfortable*,' '*competitive*,' and '*useful and appropriate*.' It is essential to consider individual variations and the approaches in which these issues influence the participation of students in classroom activities. After the successful interventions, students who reported they had the pleasure and found the lesson engaging and motivating indicated that they felt this way. Less successful classes were deemed 'boring.' Students' needs must be considered when planning classroom activities.

Effective speaking classes also make students content and engaged with the classroom activities. All students expected activities to provide a comfortable environment for speaking. Game-like and competitive activities help achieve this. Students reported that they did not perceive this activity as class time. Thus, classroom social context influences academic motivation, achievement, student development and well-being (Urdan & Schoenfelder, 2006). Students felt comfortable and motivated in competitive activities because they wanted to win. This tendency confirms that the "learner's effort to complete an activity satisfactorily" is influenced by "curiosity" (Williams & Burden, 1997:126).

The perceived success of the activity was also affected by factors such as its "usefulness" and "appropriateness." The student's responses to the intervention, in which they were asked to participate in discussions in pairs and small groups, were generally positive. The term "perceived value" was coined by Williams and Burden (1997) to describe this aspect of the activity. They said that the value decides whether learners participate in the activities they emphasise completing or participating in and that this value affects the activities themselves (1997). Teachers must place significant weight on

the students' assessments of the activity's significance. Relying on it without considering the requirements of the students presents a risk. They may value activities that do not fulfil their demands. Therefore, students need to be aware of their demands, and it is essential for teachers to justify the designs of the activities they assign, even if those designs are not particularly well received.

6.5 The influence of flipped classroom instruction activities on students' participation and performance

From the current study's findings, students preferred the flipped speaking classroom to the traditional classroom. There were several reasons why students preferred the flipped classroom over the traditional classroom. One of the key reasons is that traditional classroom teachers dominated the classroom, and students felt bored, according to their input in semi-structured interviews. Another factor is that conventional classroom learning was passive, with little interaction between instructors and students. As a result, they felt alone and unmotivated to learn. They were shy and afraid to participate or ask questions in a typical classroom. They claimed that the flipped classroom was more focused on the needs of the students and made learning more engaging and relevant.

Nouri (2016) conducted a study to investigate the students' perspectives on the flipped classroom model of instruction when they were enrolled in their last year of university. According to the research results, most students were pleased with the learning approach utilised in their classes. The most common responses were that the students valued learning from instructional videos, having the freedom to study at their own pace, the flexibility and mobility afforded by easily accessible video lectures, and that learning is made simpler and more efficient in flipped classrooms. This study supported the current study, where students positively perceived the flipped classroom model. In general, the students were motivated by the process of learning that happened in the flipped classroom model. Before the class, some of the students watched the video several times. They appreciated the flexibility of learning the materials to understand the concept better by watching the videos several times. The opportunity to learn at their own pace boosted their interest and self-confidence.

The participant in the current study stated that the video lectures they could see before class helped them prepare better. They had more personalised instruction with the learning model. They felt more driven by the flipped speaking method. As a result of practising their critical thinking abilities and individual speaking in class, individuals grew more interested in speaking and more confident expressing their ideas. These findings were supported by Chen Hsieh et al. (2017), who investigated the acquisition of idioms through written and oral communication. 48 English majors were required to take two English oral training classes. The participants were all allowed to be exposed to English

idioms through flipped learning. Research utilising mixed methodologies was conducted, including pre-and post-exams on idioms, two questionnaires, teacher observations in the classroom, and semi-structured interviews with focus group participants. The results showed that flipped instruction boosted students' motivation and idiomatic knowledge. It claimed that flipped learning met the class's goals.

Moreover, the time spent outside of class is devoted to learning knowledge through the numerous materials made available to students via the Moodle platform of the virtual campus. They focused on a group of university students, and a significant connection with the teaching-learning process was achieved, as in the present study. This enabled the flipped classroom model to achieve autonomy and time optimisation, which were not previously achievable. The flipped classroom model has provided a new opportunity for conducting the teaching and learning processes by emphasising the motivation reflected by the students, promoting independent learning, making it possible to share knowledge, and improving digital competence.

As stated previously, students in this study felt that the flipped speaking classroom helped them achieve better learning outcomes by providing an input/output/interaction rich instruction environment, providing more personalised instruction for the students, giving an increased opportunity to develop speaking skills, and put more flexible accessibility for the learning materials. To summarize, flipped-speaking classrooms boosted student happiness. Satisfaction led to involvement and positive speaking outcomes.

6.5.1 The implications of flipped classroom intervention for teachers and students

The present study's findings show that a flipped speaking classroom benefits the teacher. Because time is restricted in an L2 classroom, teachers can focus on higher-order thinking skills (HOTS) and specific student speaking challenges by extending classroom hours through flipped teaching.

The participants in this study felt that their teacher spent more time with them individually and encouraged them to improve their speaking through class exercises. This implies that teachers can better engage students in class and improve their learning experience. On the surface, a teacher's role in a traditional classroom appears only to teach and disseminate knowledge. As a result, teachers can teach students actively rather than passively. Without the physical constraints of a typical classroom, the teacher can spend more time engaging in learning activities to boost students' content learning. Alsowat's (2016) study supported the present study's qualitative findings. Alsowat (2016) studied 67 female graduate students. Findings from the study suggested significant differences between the two

groups in HOTS. HOTS and students' satisfaction with the flipped classroom model also had a highly significant relationship. The study found that teachers prefer the learning model because students are at the centre of the educational process.

This study demonstrates that the flipped classroom model boosts students' higher-order thinking skills, participation, and satisfaction in an EFL environment. The current study indicates that students desire to be at the centre of the learning process. They are pleased with replacing conventional approaches with more autonomous learning that corresponds to their needs and integrates new technologies into the classroom, as supported by Palinussa et al. (2021). Palinussa et al. (2021) discovered comparable support in an inverted L2 classroom in Ambon, Indonesia. According to the research findings, the flipped classroom model can increase students' higher-order thinking skills. The model draws its strength from instructional videos because students can watch the videos repeatedly at home, and when they do not understand the concept, they can clarify it in class. The research intended to design a flipped classroom learning strategy to improve students' higher-order thinking skills. The learning tools were learning plans, printed and video teaching materials, and student workbooks that led to higher-order thinking skills. According to the research, the flipped classroom format can boost students' higher-order thinking skills. Students could watch the learning videos at home and solve the tasks offered. Class discussions increased students' grasp of vagueness. Higher-order thinking skills increased in 36 students' assessments.

The current study indicates that providing feedback to students in flipped classrooms can benefit their speaking performance, particularly during synchronous sessions. In addition, it appears that students benefit in terms of their perceptions of their levels of self-efficacy and their appreciation of feedback when they get extended teacher feedback during synchronous sessions. Because of this, the flipped classroom concept includes comprehensive feedback to improve student's learning outcomes and cognitions throughout the learning process. It is also supported by Zen and Syamsuar (2019), who did research with 60 students at the State University of Padang, Indonesia. As a result of the findings, one may conclude that the relationship between students' social involvement and their higher thinking performance simultaneously contributes to the creation of a favourable environment in the classroom. This previous research shed light on the qualitative findings of the current study. Due to the accessibility of the learning resources, teachers could provide more personalized attention and feedback to students who need it to improve their speaking skills.

In Riza and Setyarini's (2020) study, flipped classroom learning improves students' communication skills. From the study, one way to learn is to discuss the materials through learning videos and social

media. Through this learning method, the teacher can provide students with e-learning modules, visuals, and connections to learn more about the content (Riza & Setyarini, 2020). Students can raise their higher-order thinking skills level through classroom exercises with learning videos provided by their teachers. The flipped classroom model can foster high-level thinking by reversing the traditional lecture format (Hamdan et al., 2013; Herreid & Schiller, 2013). Students, for instance, can pause learning or interactive videos to analyze and respond to questions on learning objectives.

The results of this study demonstrate that flipped learning has a beneficial impact on EFL students. In contrast to their regular classroom or lecture attendance, students become more engaged in learning. These students were eager to learn using technology and easily motivated to participate in class discussions during the asynchronous sessions. The teacher was not required to wait for the student's responses in the synchronous sessions. Students become more engaged with the topic and responsible for their learning. The three components of 'before class,' 'during class,' and 'after class' activities promoted student-centred learning that developed a more optimistic response and mindset. The flipped classroom model improves students' verbal communication abilities in this study. Because EFL students need more practice to improve their communication abilities, well-designed lesson plans were created to ensure that learning processes may occur at their full potential. Flipped classrooms enhanced EFL students' verbal communication skills using online learning tools and interactivity during synchronous and asynchronous sessions. Zen and Syamsuar (2019) supported the current study by discovering that exercises in flipped classrooms could improve students' communication skills. Teaching and learning are both supported by this type of active communication, which takes the form of group discussions. Students can be more innovative and analytical in each discussion, whether they are working individually or in group sessions. They explained that flipping the classroom enables students to develop higher-level thinking skills through conversations and interactive question-and-answer sessions (2019).

In the current study, implementing flipped classroom model was improved by increasing the level of "flipping" learning assignments during after-class activities, particularly discussion activities, consistent with the flipped classroom strategy in before- and during-class discussions. In this model, the teacher increased the role of flipped classrooms in fostering speaking skills development in two ways: first, by assigning students domain-specific assignments to do prior to class, and second, by requiring students to demonstrate their understanding of the topics during class. Next, during-class activities emphasised that the students could discuss and reflect on domain knowledge and provide students with appropriate answers and guidance in learning tasks to develop critical thinking abilities in after-class assignments. The study's virtual learning platforms and other educational apps

facilitated student resource sharing and peer discussion before and during in-class learning.

Furthermore, Lee and Lai (2017) found that flipped classroom learning helps students build creative and critical thinking skills in and out of the classroom. The survey participants believed there was more free time in class, allowing them to undertake more practical activities like rereading or completing homework. During lessons, they can talk more about their teachers. According to Lee & Lai's research, the flipped classroom model gives teachers additional class time to interact with students and create a dynamic learning environment (2017).

Mas'ud and Surdjono's (2018) learning and research findings demonstrated the formation of a learning environment using a flipped classroom approach. The study revealed that a flipped classroom improves students' knowledge of higher-order thinking skills. They added that learning in the classroom using the flipped classroom concept, assisted by information technology and e-learning, directly benefits students by making the learning materials easier to understand (Mas'ud & Surdjono, 2018). As a learning method, classroom instruction is sufficient. Students can study outside the class using Moodle or another online learning platform. Students are asked to study and comprehend the content, then ask questions not discussed in class. This learning technique can boost students' thinking from low-level to higher order outside the classroom. Flipped classrooms have proved their purpose and essence based on the abovementioned four studies and expert perspectives.

This earlier research supports that the present study's qualitative findings are accurate. The participants in the current study noticed that their teacher could allocate more time to addressing the students' various needs and enhancing their speaking abilities by utilising a wide variety of in-class activities and supplementary resources. This study's flipped classroom model for speaking skills boosted students' higher-order thinking abilities. Since the flipped classroom model is a student-centred method that encourages students to take greater responsibility for their autonomous learning environment, the teacher would not lose their role in the classroom's learning and teaching activities. The teacher became both a guide and an observer, providing students with directions during each session. In before-class activities, the teacher helped students develop lower-order thinking skills (LOTS). The teacher created teaching and learning resources for the asynchronous sessions and distributed them to the students. When doing online homework assignments at home, the students might utilise these instructional resources to recollect and comprehend the essential idea and to apply their knowledge. The teacher assisted students in developing higher-order thinking skills (HOTS) through synchronous sessions. The teacher instructed the students to complete collaborative tasks like game-like or competitive activities like group/pair work and quizzes.

The same support was shown in Aldaka's (2020) study, which took place in Surabaya, Indonesia, and involved a flipped L2 class taught there. This study investigated the efficacy of teaching students using a flipped classroom method in fostering higher-order thinking skills. The study found that flipping the classroom helped boost students' higher-order thinking skills. The role of the teacher in both learning and teaching was not reduced as a result of using the flipped classroom approach, even though it was student-centred and made students more responsible for their learning environment. The teacher-guided and observed the students at each stage. Pre-class activities assist students in developing lower-order thinking (LOTS). The teacher prepares learning tools like learning videos, PowerPoints, or quizzes and shares them with students. Students should use the learning tools to recall, comprehend, and apply critical concepts when doing online tasks at home. In-class exercises assisted students in building higher-order thinking skills (HOTS). The teacher-guided students to undertake collaborative or competitive tasks like group discussion, giving their views in front of the class, or doing quizzes.

Aldaka added that since students only need to focus on HOTS in class and LOTS at home, the flipped classroom approach is utilised for increasing students' HOTS (2020). All students had positive attitudes and impressions of utilising the flipped classroom technique in teaching English. Students enjoy pre-class learning videos and other resources. They did not have to worry about missing their teacher's explanation because they could play the video repeatedly, pause it to take notes and play it whenever they wanted. They also liked the extracurricular activities. These activities boosted their English confidence. They were more competitive and collaborative in class. This method makes teachers more tech-savvy and innovative in the classroom.

The flipped-speaking classroom utilised for this research allowed L2 learners more freedom and control over their education. Because it boosts learners' motivation levels, learner autonomy should be the focus of every learning activity (Cotterall, 2000). If students feel they have ownership and influence over their education, they will feel more empowered and inspired to improve their speaking skills. There were more opportunities for students to prepare before class. They also had more processing time between classes, more contact with classmates, and more direct feedback from the instructor, allowing them to finish class assignments with a higher understanding. Instructors might interact with students in the classroom, structure their learning, practise critical thinking, and engage in extensive conversations. It was no longer a venue for information sharing but for learners to investigate new concepts and ideas beyond the conventional introduction materials. Students have greater control over the scope, direction, and pace of their learning, boosting their sense of self-efficacy, an essential component of academic success. The flipped speaking framework in this study

also applies to current student learning demands and practices. Today's students need a fast-paced learning environment with less traditional classroom time. Thus, teachers should rethink their teaching methods and employ technology to enhance student learning (Compton & Almpanis, 2018; Passey, 2019; Rapanta et al., 2015).

In summary, this study's flipped classroom model for speaking classes has benefited both the teacher and students. It allowed teachers to focus on individual students' needs, strengthen their higher-order thinking skills (HOTS), and provide instant feedback. With more time to connect with students, the instructor could build trust and provide more teachable moments. On the other hand, students learning a second or foreign language had more time before class to watch lecture videos at their own pace, connect with them, and learn from them. Their capacity for working memory increased, allowing them to tackle more challenging speaking assignments in the classroom. This study's flipped classroom, students improved significantly in speaking. The flipped speaking technique likely increased scaffolding, motivation, and autonomy.

6.6 The impact of the flipped classroom instruction on students' affective states

This section will provide a more in-depth analysis of the changes the students reported after the interventions. These findings to past studies and theories related to the flipped classroom model will be discussed, highlighting the implications of these findings for the teaching and learning of speaking skills.

The preceding sections examined students' perceptions of their speaking skills and negative perceptions. Students' feedback on activity effectiveness was also considered when designing speaking activities. That is, how these perceptions changed after the interventions: changes in perceptions of speaking skills, participation in the classroom, anxiety level, communication willingness, and self-esteem.

6.6.1 Students perceived speaking ability

The final perceptions that the students reported will be the focus of the first part of this session. There were significant changes in the students' perceptions of their speaking ability and satisfaction with it before and after the interventions. Following the completion of the interventions, the students demonstrated considerably higher confidence. This is about the students' self-efficacy beliefs, which are the foundation of Bandura's self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1986). Self-efficacy beliefs are beliefs about one's capacity to do a task (Tremblay & Gardner, 1995). Because of this, it is connected to a

student's self-confidence and previous performance: when students believe they can reach a goal and have succeeded, they are more likely to succeed in the future (Urdan & Schoenfelder, 2006).

Because of all these reasons, it should not come as a surprise that the participants in the first stage of this study demonstrated low self-efficacy beliefs when it came to speaking. Because of this, students developed negative attitudes towards their ability as English speakers. They realised that they could succeed in these activities due to the interventions, which caused a change in their perspectives. This demonstrates that establishing appropriate speaking classes can improve students' self-confidence.

At the end of the academic year, most students indicated that they 'can express themselves better and speak more fluently.' The difficulties of "being unable to talk effectively" and "not being able to express what I think" described in Stage One are connected to these issues. This provides credibility to the notion that students' self-perceived inadequacies in their speaking abilities could be addressed and improved upon through participation in term-long public speaking classes. "A higher level of perceived competence will result in a greater level of motivation, which in turn influences the amount of time spent speaking the L2 in the classroom" (Hashimoto, 2002, p.57). According to the research, students participating in many classroom activities are more likely to achieve higher academic success. This is because interaction involves participation, personal engagement, and taking the initiative in some way, all of which are activities hypothesised to trigger cognitive processes conducive to language learning. Consequently, the interaction involves taking the initiative in some way.

In this regard, the findings of a study using a similar methodology are of interest. Zhang et al. (2010) aimed to increase the reluctance of students to participate in speaking classes. After asking students to identify their needs, the teacher designed classroom activities based on their needs. Students cited a desire to boost their self-confidence and the ability to interact and engage in dialogue with native speakers as motivations for learning English. The students also claimed they desired to obtain a decent career, improve their advancement prospects, and impress others. In addition, the students stated a desire to learn English to prepare themselves for future study abroad and to feel personal accomplishment and happiness. The quantitative data revealed significant improvements in students' speaking abilities and classroom participation. An end-of-study speaking test compared student performance in the pre-test. The authors concluded that allowing students to “create their opportunities and activities to practice speaking” is an excellent way to overcome student reticence (p.8).

When speaking, it is crucial to differentiate between accuracy and fluency. While accuracy focuses on language usage, fluency focuses on its use (Brumfit, 1984). Speakers must produce grammatically correct utterances. Conversely, learners focus on the message rather than the language form (Hammerly, 1991; Nation, 1989). The communicative approach promotes student fluency by focusing on fluency rather than accuracy (Brown, 1996; Hammerly, 1991). The interventions fostered a communicative atmosphere in which students participated in activities that helped them become more fluent in the language.

The above topics show the beneficial changes students reported after the study. The role of flipped classrooms in these improvements is not entirely clear. Students' qualitative remarks help comprehend this by linking positive changes to flipped instruction. The sections that follow describe the effects of the flipped classroom model on student participation, anxiety level, readiness to speak, and self-esteem.

6.6.2 Students' classroom participation

There were considerable differences between the student's perceptions of their proficiency levels in 'interaction.' According to the Council of Europe, speaking proficiency is one of two components that comprise spoken interaction (2001). The interactional aspect of speaking refers to the interactional competence hypothesis, centring on how people communicate with one another in their day-to-day lives. Because of this interactional aspect of speaking, oral practises demand knowledge of interactive resources (Hall, 1993). Engaging effectively may be learned via practice with those with more excellent expertise (Young, 1999). It appears that the student's perceptions of their interpersonal abilities improve due to this study. When designing activities, the key focus was addressing the primary needs of the students, which consisted of finding an opportunity to interact. This can be accomplished by including each learner in classroom activities and encouraging them to interact with their peers and the teacher.

The benefits of classroom participation have been studied extensively. Active classroom participation is essential for teaching and students' personal development (Tatar, 2005). Tatar (2005) noted that little research had examined classroom engagement from the student's perspective to determine why students do not participate even when encouraged. Examining classroom involvement from the students' perspective provides a firsthand description of their thoughts and perceptions. Studies have discovered a variety of factors that encourage or discourage student engagement. Factors like age (Howard, James & Taylor 2002), gender (Auster & MacRone, 1994;), students' willingness to talk (Chan & McCroskey, 1987), course level (Fritschner, 2000), student preparation (Howard & Baird,

2000), class size (Howard et al., 2002) and classroom teacher interaction (Fassinger, 2000) have also proven to be significant.

On the other hand, communication apprehension is a person's anxiety related to actual or anticipated communication (McCroskey, 1977). Fear of miscommunication is the primary factor that prevents Chinese students from enrolling in programmes taught in English (Mak, 2011; Zarrinabadi & Tanbakooei, 2016). Some researchers point to traditional Chinese cultural characteristics, particularly education founded on Confucianism, while others believe that East Asian and Chinese students' attitudes regarding class participation do not differ significantly from those of other students (Rao, 2002; Starr, 2012). Littlewood (2001) discovered that East Asian and European students questioned the traditional authoritative transfer teaching style. East Asians and Europeans both wanted to participate in class. Another study supports Littlewood's (2001) claims that teaching styles, classroom dynamics, and participation strategies contribute to communication anxiety (Cheng, 2000; Rao, 2002; Takahashi, 2019).

Flipped classroom aims to encourage numerous amounts of spoken language by enhancing students' classroom participation (Ho, 2020). Ur (1981) views this problem as "encouraging involvement" and assumes that even well-designed events might not improve student engagement. This study suggests that flipped classroom model is an appropriate approach to encourage classroom participation. Classroom participation was also praised. Nearly everyone agreed that the students improved during the semester. The students reported being more willing to participate and communicate in class. High involvement was mentioned as a factor that fostered communication, self-esteem, and lowered anxiety.

In this study, classroom participation included passive (teacher-initiated) and active (student-initiated) contributions to classroom communication. Participation in class increases student motivation, interest, grades, and critical thinking skills (Rocca, 2010). Classroom participation enhances second-language acquisition in learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL) (Morell, 2007). Rocca (2010) conducted an extensive and comprehensive analysis of the existing research to identify the factors influencing university students' classroom participation. These factors include gender (males and females participate variously), classroom experience (non-traditional and older traditional students are more likely to participate than younger traditional students), class size (smaller classrooms have higher participation rates), and questioning (open-ended and leading questions are preferred to closed-ended questions). Those factors support and encourage class atmosphere and promote classroom participation. Recent research has confirmed these factors (e.g.,

Andersson-Bakken & Klette, 2016; Murphy, Eduljee, Parkman, & Croteau, 2018).

Furthermore, flipped classroom model freed up time for other student activities during a virtual meeting. Students enjoyed controlling time, placement, and progress with the flipped classroom model (Christensen et al., 2013). Viewing the lectures and completing the before-class homework provided new opportunities for group activities and pair work as forums for peer and cooperative learning and interaction with other students. The positive aspects were the ability to learn at one's own pace, the opportunity for enhanced student preparation, the reversal of time limitations in the classroom, and increased engagement. Student preparation boosts lesson understanding. Flipped classes boost student participation and knowledge (Bergmann & Sams, 2012). Students watched the videos before the lecture; thus, classroom participation increased. More time is devoted to discussions when lectures occur outside of class hours, enhancing comprehension (Tucker, 2012).

The study also found that teacher characteristics, such as establishing a positive rapport with students, encouraging them to communicate, and nonverbal immediacy, promote student participation, as Fassinger (2000) supported. Also, teacher communication strategies during the flipped classroom model affect classroom interaction. Motivation, empathy, and adaptability are traits highlighted by students in this study. Several studies have demonstrated that students participate more when teachers are acknowledging, motivating, and sympathetic (Dallimore, Hertenstein, & Platt, 2004; Fassinger, 2000). When teachers addressed students by name, presented detailed questions, and smiled to appreciate their answers, students were likelier to participate. Students also cited interactivity as a critical element, which matches a study by Cayanus and Martin (2004). Open-minded teachers encourage student participation. This study supports Fawzia's (2002) finding that class, topic, teacher, and teaching style could influence student participation. Some students were discouraged from participating by anxious peers. They stopped talking when classmates did not want their answers. Tobin and Capie (1982) showed a favourable correlation between "teacher wait time" and student outcome indicators. When instructed to wait "a few seconds," students rarely raised questions or commented to their teachers (p.356). Instructor and classmate wait times affect students' attempts to answer class questions. Negative student attributes, such as limited speaking performance, discourage class participation. Lack of attention and anxiety about making mistakes discouraged student participation. Fassinger (1995) and Gomez, Arai, and Lowe (1995) identified similar traits: preparation, fear of appearing incompetent, and intimidation decrease student participation.

6.6.3 Students' anxiety level

In contrast, the final questionnaires gave varied comments about anxiousness. Some students reported feeling less uncomfortable at the semester's end, while others struggled to communicate. Developing good anxiety takes time, confirming the complexity of anxiety (Dörnyei, 2005). When acquiring or using a second language, a person may experience the uncomfortable feelings associated with anxiety (MacIntyre, 1999), which can hinder learning (Arnold & Brown, 1999). Krashen's emotional filter theory (1982) states that a learner's affective filter should be low to learn; this is one of the major underpinnings of the theory. Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) state that anxious students are less likely to participate in spoken language activities due to the requirement of language production performance (Young, 1990).

A significant positive association between the factors of self-confidence and learning achievement was found to be present, as demonstrated by the present study's findings. The level of achievement in speaking is directly proportional to the speaker's level of self-confidence. The study also concluded that anxiety about speaking performance is associated with speaking achievement, which is insignificant. The outcome also demonstrates that one's self-confidence is a substantially more accurate predictor of successful public speaking than one's level of nervousness.

Horwitz et al. (1986) found that three factors contribute to anxiety towards learning a foreign language: nervousness around communication, exam anxiety, and fear of receiving a negative evaluation. A type of reluctance known as communication apprehension is fear or concern regarding one's ability to communicate with others (p.127). Some people do not enjoy socialising; thus, this may be a personality trait. Even talkative students felt anxious speaking English in this study. Communication apprehension occurs when a person has problems understanding others and being understood (Horwitz et al., 1986). Students with a high sense of their abilities may experience less anxiety when speaking (Williams & Burden, 1997). Horwitz et al. also highlights 'self-perceptions', 'beliefs', 'feelings', and 'classroom language learning behaviours deriving from the distinctiveness of the language learning process as variables impacting foreign language anxiety (p.128). These considerations reveal that anxiety is complicated and multifaceted. Teachers should acknowledge fear's complicated and determining character in speaking lessons and provide a comfortable classroom environment.

Adopting a Community of Inquiry framework in a social learning context may assist social-emotional or individual learning. Based on Vygotsky's (1978) social learning theory, learning happens through individual interactions. This kind of interaction can alleviate students' anxiousness. Evidence showed

a link between student anxiety and academic performance. High-anxiety students perform worse academically (Luigi et al., 2007; McCraty, 2007). Unsympathetic teaching strategies or a challenging topic in the learning materials may create learner anxiety. These situations lead to passive learning, in which students view learning activities as mandatory (Mayya, Rao & Ramnarayan, 2004). Personal or family issues might cause anxiety. This study's flipped classroom model encourages teachers to invest more time in learner-centred tasks and activities, deliver observable and relevant materials, and reduce classroom stress.

The results of this study demonstrated a substantial decrease in students' classroom anxiety. It is considered that the group-based activities conducted during the virtual meeting alleviated the students' classroom anxiety. The students reported being more engaged in class, feeling less anxious, enjoying their classes, and having a greater interest in the subject matter. It is considered that the students' favourable attitude towards the flipped classroom model is attributed to the model's participation-enabling and feedback-providing characteristics. Moreover, group-based activities can effectively improve student engagement, offer a sense of belonging, reduce students' concerns, and foster positive attitudes towards flipped classroom model. This study demonstrates the significance of incorporating group and pair work activities into the flipped classroom model to improve learning outcomes and reduce course anxiety. Furthermore, it demonstrates that group activities and pair work may be easily included in the in-class component of the flipped classroom model.

In order to have a positive impact and achieve a productive level of intensity between stress and performance, it is vital to achieve a state of balance between anxiety levels (Deer et al., 2018). Low-to-moderate anxiety levels may increase students' effort, whereas high anxiety levels may decrease the student's determination and strength (Deer et al., 2018). Thus, fostering students' self-confidence is necessary for engaging in and achieving higher performance levels. Flipped classroom model in this study is aligned with interventions to improve self-efficacy. However, significant levels of anxiety decrease self-efficacy. It is hypothesised that using the flipped classroom within anxiety-inducing activities would increase students' self-efficacy and minimise the harmful effects of anxiety.

The current study has also demonstrated that learners' emotions of low competency or lack of confidence in their overall language abilities worsen their speaking anxiety. Foreign language anxiety (FLA) is a highly complex collection of fears, emotions, and actions associated with learning a foreign language (Woodrow, 2006). Due to the uniqueness of the language learning process, EFL learners are more likely to feel anxious about their inability to communicate in English. As soon as each speaking activity was appropriately anticipated and organised, this preparation became an efficient

method for reducing nervousness and, thus, increasing speaking confidence (Boonkit, 2010). Rafada and Madini (2017) found a correlation between their participants' speaking anxiety coping techniques and language improvement. Implementing flipped classroom model allows for additional time in class for activities such as verbal interaction with language practices in group activities and pair work.

6.6.4. Students' willingness to speak

The results of this study show that student needs and goals benefit communication. According to the current study, in addition to motivation, student needs are essential in assisting students in enhancing their speaking skills. Students must know what they require to take more specific actions towards their goals and increase their chances of success. The teachers considered their students' interests and experiences and linked their knowledge. Léger and Storch (2009) studied students' views of their speaking abilities, classroom contributions, and attitudes toward these activities. They explored the impact of these difficulties on second-language communication. During the semester, students of French who attended an educational institution in Australia were surveyed regarding their learning environment and ability to communicate orally.

According to the study's findings, students' judgments of the speaking competency of their peers and the activities that take place in the classroom affected their readiness to communicate. This problem underlies the term 'willingness to communicate,' defined as "readiness to enter discourse with a specific person or persons using L2" (MacIntyre et al., 1998, p.547). Willingness to communicate is the base of student communication (Fushino, 2010). The more willing students are to speak, the keener they are to participate. The willingness to communicate, which leads to more discussion in the classroom, is increased when students have favourable evaluations of their communication skills.

There was a lack of precision in the definition of anxiety, and respondents provided a wide range of responses. At the end of the semester, some students reported feeling less anxious, while others reported having difficulty communicating. This confirms the complexity of anxiety (Dörnyei, 2005), in which good anxiety demands time. Anxiety is a "concern, and negative emotional reaction elicited when learning or utilizing a second language" (MacIntyre, 1999, p.27) and can impair the learning process (Arnold & Brown, 1999).

The gradual transition from traditional lecturing to the blended learning paradigm has prepared the path for more adaptable instructional strategies. The flipped classroom paradigm reflected the concept of blended learning, in which students are encouraged to contribute to their learning, develop their

knowledge, and improve their communication skills with their teacher and peers actively and cooperatively. The flipped classroom model allows students to study fundamental ideas using technology and to comprehend them in greater depth in class. This method allows students to spend class time discussing topics with their teacher and classmates. Its learning environment combines synchronous and asynchronous classroom instruction, such as the right to information access, efficiency, and authentic classroom interaction with peers and the teacher. The flipped classroom model integrates traditional lectures with online activities and provides students with authentic opportunities for meaningful negotiation and information exchange. The teacher is a facilitator and directs the learning process, which is more engaging. The flipped classroom model allows students to develop their speaking skills without time constraints or classroom pressure.

As a result, students' language learning process would be more durable, productive, and independent. It enables the instructor to develop various speaking exercises in a supportive, engaging, interactive, and secure classroom setting. Spending time in class allows for more discussion, information and shared knowledge, and emotional expression. Students might reduce their learning anxiety by collaborating, interacting, providing feedback, and observing one another's speaking performance.

From the study, respondents' responses suggested that students are aware of the progressive improvement in their speaking abilities over time. This significant outcome is further supported by the observation, which revealed a visible improvement in the student's speaking performance. Due to increased motivation and decreased speaking anxiety, most students performed the different conversational activities efficiently, as evidenced by the qualitative data analysis. Additionally, students were encouraged to participate in the various speaking activities with self-assurance and without anxiety because of the flipped classroom model's flexibility in learning, the well-designed in-class and out-of-class activities, and the constant practice of English speaking. All of these crucial factors were fundamental reasons why students could do so.

Furthermore, the findings of the interview showed that the participants had improved their ability to respond and participate in the activities taking place in the classroom. This supported the findings of Zainuddin and Attaran (2016). They discovered that flipped learning helped shy and introverted students overcome the challenges they faced in their learning by giving them more time to study. This present study confirmed the findings from Zainuddin and Attaran (2016). According to Chen Hsieh and colleagues (2017), flipped learning makes students more active in their oral interaction, which results in a significant increase in the student's knowledge, a boost in the students' enthusiasm, and the achievement of the class's instructional goals. Moreover, Afrilyasanti et al.

(2017) revealed that students believed the activities that were implemented in the flipped classroom method benefited them in achieving outstanding learning results for themselves.

This study's findings are significant for English instructors in universities and other higher education institutions and English instructors who wish to use game-like and competitive activities as an alternative method to lessen learners' speaking anxiety in the online classroom. When speaking anxiety is reduced, individuals gain confidence, and performance improves. The learning process becomes less stressful and more fun. The findings also indicate that the game-like and competitive activities encouraged students to talk after observing the speaking performances of their peers and boosted their confidence during the following game rounds and synchronous session activities. This supported the findings of Halim, Hasim, and Yunus (2020), who examined students' motivation and perceptions towards using Kahoot! And Quizziz in their ESL lessons. They discovered that integrating Kahoot and Quizziz could improve students' motivation and bring a positive perception of learning English. They added that this could happen because students can find greater motivation and interest in learning English if they play games that have components of pleasure, enjoyment, and competition (Halim et al., 2020)

In addition, implementing the flipped classroom model freed up time that would have been spent on lectures, allowing students to engage in more everyday activities to practise speaking English. Participants in the study believed that the flipped classroom model had helped them become more enthusiastic and self-assured while speaking English due to increased opportunities to speak on a variety of topics and participate in various before-, during-, and after-class activities. Bishop et al. (2013) proposed investing class time in various learning activities to increase social interaction, knowledge construction and thought sharing following collaborative and active learning methodologies. Engaging class time in more possibilities will engage students in meaningful negotiation and active participation, allowing them to become more active learners. The analysis of student interview responses revealed their favourable perceptions of the teacher's role. It was said that it considerably increased their enthusiasm and self-assurance and decreased their fear when speaking English. Lightbown and Spada (2017) proposed that EFL teachers should tailor their instruction to the requirements and characteristics of their students. This could encourage EFL students to overcome language-learning difficulties and shortcomings that impede their ability to acquire the target language. This result is partially consistent with the research conducted by Kang (2014) and Webb et al. (2015). They concluded that the flipped classroom model provides the teacher with a substantial and beneficial role that increases in-class student interaction and preserves learning objectives.

The most exciting finding was that the students found the classroom atmosphere engaging. Their classroom was a source of motivation, inspiration, and competition since it was pleasant, pleasant, and encouraging. This can be attributed to the consistency between the characteristics of the flipped classroom model as a teaching method and the underlying concepts of Constructivism and the Community of Inquiry framework in this study. The characteristics of the flipped classroom model strengthened collaborative and social interaction, enabling students to support each other's weaknesses as they collaborated, sharing scaffolding information and knowledge, and enabling quiet students to open more and be more receptive to other perspectives.

6.6.5. Students' self-esteem

This study underlines the importance of supporting students in speaking classes. It suggests that students can develop a healthy sense of self-worth regardless of academic achievement if given a voice and treated as valuable classroom members. Self-esteem affects students' speaking performance, as well as their language and personal development. Oxford (1999) describes self-esteem as a self-evaluation of worth or value based on feelings of efficacy, a perception of engaging effectively with one's environment. Valued students are more likely to acquire self-esteem in the classroom. Students with favourably rated abilities may have higher self-esteem (Covington & Beery, 1976). According to Dornyei (2003), self-worth is a component of the final stage of L2 motivation. Students evaluate how things occurred, which influences their motivation for future activities.

Maintaining good self-esteem is one way for students to succeed in their academic activities. A substantial relationship exists between students' self-esteem and their capacity to learn and behave responsibly in the classroom. There seems to be a relationship between self-esteem and motivation. Even though not all students with low self-esteem experience academic challenges, research indicates that low self-esteem may be associated with lower academic achievement (Daniel & King, 1997). It is critical to research to determine whether self-esteem contributes to effective learning and behaviour. It is equally important to discover a technique, or ways, to boost one's sense of self-worth and drive oneself to learn. Low self-esteem will affect the attitudes and behaviour of students in the classroom. Low self-esteem thus leads to low motivation. Students with poor self-esteem are more likely to be labelled "bad students" in the classroom, even though these labels do not imply that they are less intelligent than their classmates.

The current study discovered a significant positive correlation between self-esteem and speaking performance. The three deficient aspects of self-esteem indicated this correlation: feeling embarrassed, unwilling to speak in group or pair work, and hesitating or experiencing anxiety when

speaking in front of the class. There is a significant and favourable correlation between student learning and self-esteem. Unlike students with lower self-esteem, those with higher self-esteem are likelier to engage in learning and accept responsibility for it. This suggests that students with higher self-esteem are more committed to classroom participation (Phillips, Smith, Modaff, 2004). Compared to students not enrolled in the class, those with a greater overall academic success rate (Turner & Patrick, 2004). In addition to other factors, those with a positive impression of themselves are more likely to participate more actively in the classroom than individuals with a wrong opinion of themselves (Phillips et al., 2004).

A person's self-confidence can be viewed as a trait or a self-construct that enables them to have a positive or rational evaluation of themselves or the situations in which they find themselves (Sieler, 1998). This refers to a person's belief in his or her ability to attain a goal in a particular circumstance, which can be crucial in ensuring that an individual's capacity is realised (Stevens, 2005). Furthermore, highly confident persons have a reasonable perception of themselves and their talents, making them more ambitious in acquiring a second language. In their entirety, self-esteem and self-efficacy are the components that constitute self-confidence. This indicates that self-confidence is a cover phrase encompassing everything under the sun. One way to define self-esteem is an overarching sense of one's value or worth. In other words, a person with low self-esteem believes he or she does not deserve respect or does not measure up, whereas a person with high self-esteem believes the opposite (Neil, 2005).

Following the intervention that utilised the flipped classroom model, the study revealed that the students' levels of optimism and self-esteem had significantly increased. The utilisation of mobile educational applications, the flexibility of study time, and the delivery of material in an engaging video format are some of the aspects that contribute to the effectiveness of the interventions (Roehl et al., 2013; Bishop & Verleger, 2013). On the other hand, this study highlights the significance of adequate preparation in the learning process. To the position presented by Roehl et al. (2013), one of the difficulties associated with the flipped classroom model is the requirement to convert conventional classroom lectures into other types of formats in order to provide content online. Another essential aspect that must be considered is the flipped classroom model's introduction and use of learning platforms or applications. This is accomplished so that students can be familiar with and feel comfortable with them when they are given the material and engaged in the learning process. According to Roehl et al. (2013), students who take part in the flipped classroom model do not adapt to their new learning environment as quickly as students who do not participate in the model. This finding is consistent with Roehl et al. (2013). As the technology used to convey information becomes

more competent, quicker, and affordable, teachers are also driven to learn more about media and access more to implement the flipped classroom model (Prensky, 2010).

Section 6.7 explains the implications for designing effective flipped L2 speaking classes, including the Flipped Speaking Framework comprising four theories: Constructivism, Bloom's Revised Taxonomy, Community of Inquiry and Input-enabled, Output-Driven Hypothesis.

6.7 Implications for designing effective flipped L2 speaking classes

The traditional classroom is inverted in the flipped classroom, where the teacher delivers instruction outside of class. The students actively study in class under the teachers' guidance and with their peers' participation. Flipped classroom involves students watching previously recorded lectures at home and participating in in-class activities that the instructor supervises. The flipped classroom concept allows teachers and other educators to innovate in flipped learning. It is utilised frequently in lecture-based classes to enhance student participation.

In many cases, the additional time available in the classroom was repurposed to engage the students in faster-paced in-class activities. Nevertheless, teaching and learning L2 students have their own distinct set of obstacles. Most students struggle to use their limited working memory in a regular classroom. This gives students more time to memorize and learn the mechanics of speaking and linguistic structures. This allows them to build on higher-level thinking abilities required for academic speaking.

The suggested Flipped Speaking Framework (Figure 6.1) builds on the flipped classroom concept by including Constructivism, Bloom's Revised Taxonomy, Community of Inquiry, and Output-driven, Input-enabled Hypothesis. The proposed Flipped Speaking Framework is designed for L2 students. The current flipped speaking framework's proposed framework reflects the dynamic character of foreign language speaking for students in an L2 context. For L2 students, Output-driven, Input-enabled Hypotheses and Constructivism are critical. L2 students require extra support and scaffolding from the lecturer to get more input before they can do the language task. Students with lower speaking abilities need the lecturer's guidance and the use of scaffolding.

In the model being presented, in addition to making instructional videos that are easy to understand and available outside of the classroom, the model's primary focus is on the interactions between the classroom and between the instructor and the students. It is not enough to engage students in a group discussion or assign them group work to ensure they succeed in their learning. Students with a lower

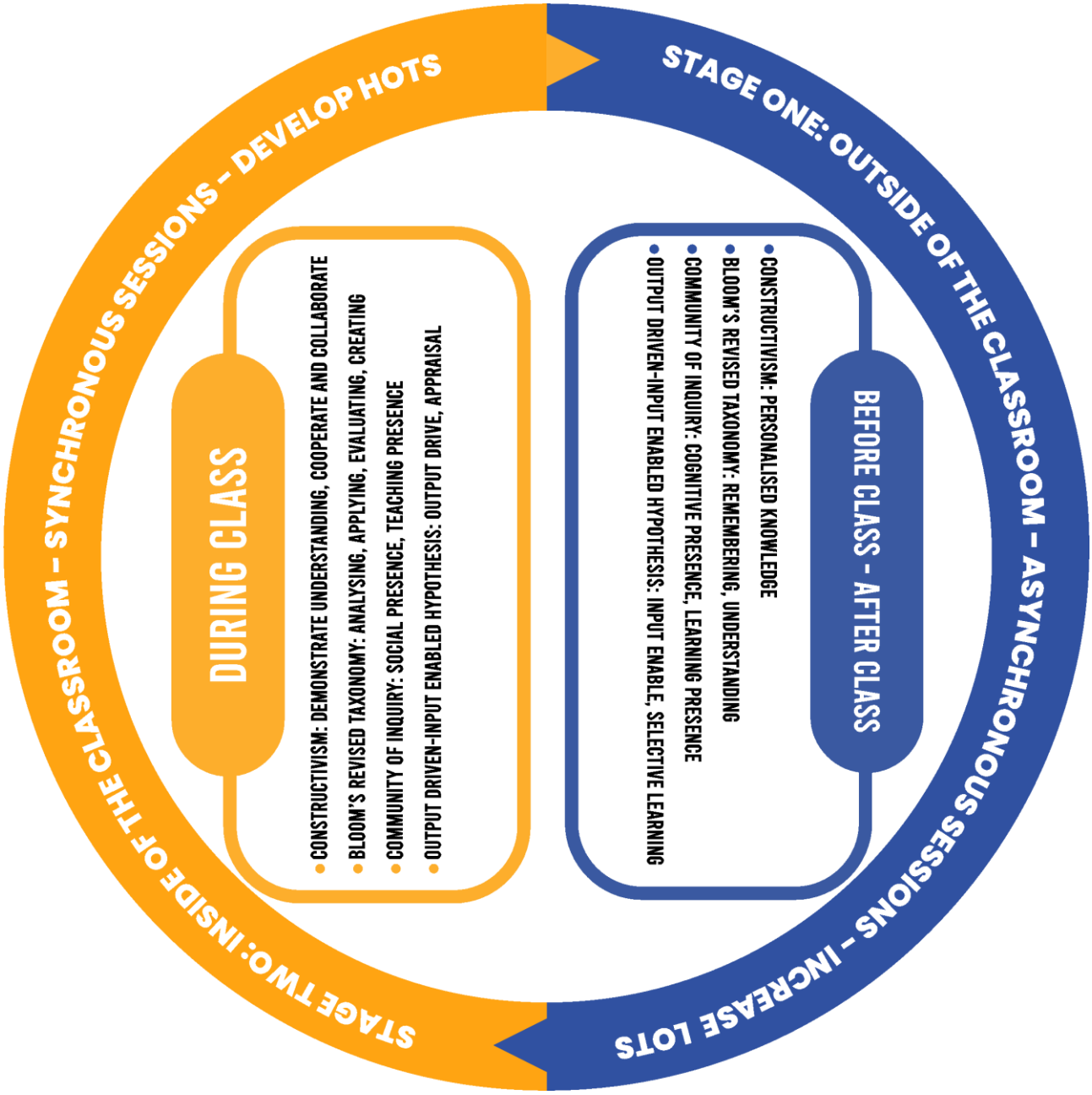
level of skill in the language need a comprehensive "demonstration" from the teacher regarding how to approach a speaking topic. They must "see" how the speaker thinks, how information is processed, how thoughts are organised, and how concepts are developed. If there is no demonstration like this, students with low proficiency levels may become confused or lack the courage to try things on their own later in the course.

Community of Inquiry in which students work together with their classmates are necessary since such teamwork has the potential to boost and even multiply learning significantly. Students will feel motivated and interested in the content they are studying when they are engaged with the lecturer and when they are involved with their peers. This proposed framework focuses on what happens inside the classroom, between the teacher and the students, rather than beyond the classroom. Giving students group discussions or group work does not guarantee their success. The teacher must explicitly set specific scenes to stimulate students' desire for knowledge and drive learning. In addition, the teacher must instruct the students to conduct targeted learning on the course content, supervise, and encourage completion of the output task.

Indeed, interaction with peers is crucial, as it can considerably improve learning processes. Students engaged in their studies are motivated and interested in their learning content. The Flipped Speaking Framework that has been developed can assist teachers in assisting second-language learners in building higher-level thinking skills by expanding lower-level thinking activities outside and generating higher-level thinking activities inside of class. This framework's efficacy is not dependent on videos, teaching methods, or linguistic analysis. Instead, what matters is how both teachers and students interact when they are in the classroom. With the process encouraging interaction in the classroom, the students can learn the course content appropriately outside the class, and they can use what they learn in daily life and teach them to others inside the class.

Figure 6.1

Flipped Speaking Framework



The proposed framework illustrates a cyclical learning process comprising two primary stages: developing lower-order thinking skills (LOTS) outside and higher-order thinking abilities inside the classroom (HOTS). Insufficient LOTS and HOTS proficiency in L2 learners make this Framework particularly useful. Memorization, recall, comprehension, and application of information are all lower-order cognitive processes (Anderson, 2020). Thus, students can focus on higher-order thinking abilities like analysing, synthesizing and evaluating material instead of using their cognitive

processing capacity in the classroom. LOTS and HOTS are interrelated, and Bloom's Revised Taxonomy updated these categories (Anderson, Krathwohl & Bloom, 2001).

A collection of more complicated and advanced thinking skills (HOTS) is required to use LOTS (Analyse, Evaluate and Create). To develop HOTS at the university level, L2 learners must gain LOTS. Higher-order thinking skills go from simple to complicated procedures, observable to abstract dimensions, and from working with known materials to generating or inventing new previously unknown ways or materials.

Due to time and proficiency constraints, L2 students cannot quickly develop their LOTS and HOTS in a traditional classroom. Although contemporary society is information-based, and students can quickly learn whenever they want, this has transformed the educational paradigm, causing professors or instructors to concentrate more on HOTS than LOTS in class. The most significant cause is the lack of time to cover both (Tikhonova & Kudinova, 2015). The current study found that L2 students improved significantly in their speaking performance. They also liked the proposed Flipped Speaking Framework.

In the first stage of the developed framework, the objective was to improve the LOTS outside the classroom by using lecture videos concentrating on understanding lexical elements and grammar. In other words, the prior preparation for class and the instructional video provided students with the opportunity and the necessary time to learn the grammatical and lexical items by analysing the speaking model and listening to detailed explanations of the rules related to the content.

The first stage of the framework consisted of students watching videos and getting comfortable with the course materials. The L2 learners reported that they could better retain and grasp the materials and their grammar and vocabulary before attending class, provided they regularly watched the lecture videos at their own pace and in their own time. Since they could not rewind what the lecturer had covered, this practice could not be conducted in a traditional classroom environment. They reported that they had to pause the lecture videos rather frequently, and it took significant time to comprehend, retain, and get familiar with the vocabulary. For instance, student R10 said in her report that she thought watching the video lectures beforehand allowed her to engage with the course materials more quickly and appropriately. *"We watch the video before class,"* she explained, *"so I have some knowledge when we attend the online lesson the next day. I have planned out what I will do today so that when the instructor begins the lesson, I can assimilate the information more quickly and use it when I speak."* Most of the class reached a consensus. They believed earlier preparation for their

speaking class resulted in better knowledge acquisition and performance than attending classes where lecturing was the primary mode of instruction. R10 continued, *"When I watch the videos multiple times, it helps me understand, and it also helps me learn new things. Therefore, I might consider that a form of preparation for me. I think getting some preparation before class is essential. This is an efficient solution."*

Stage One also incorporates input-enabled, output-driven hypotheses to support the flipped classroom model. This input-enabled and output-driven hypothesis emphasizes that input is the method to accomplish output and that combining input and output integrates learning and use. It improves students' output by providing input. This hypothesis for teaching content requires the input to serve the output nicely, many channels of information input and output, and a communicative output goal (Qiufang, 2014). First, the teacher must supply linguistic materials and knowledge content for output tasks.

The new theory uses the "driver" model as the first instructional phase. Teachers offer communication situations, students complete communicative activities, and teachers describe educational goals and output tasks. The teacher outlines the unit's learning objectives, including communication and language goals and output assignments. The enabling session is the core session in this hypothesis. This hypothesis highlights the teacher's scaffolding role. According to the students' challenging tasks in the driving session, the output tasks are divided into content, language form, and discourse structure of language expression content.

As a result of the increased number of teaching and learning strategies integrated into Stage Two of the proposed Framework for L2 Speaking, a more significant portion of the overall cycle was required. The students who had reached Stage Two of the cycle had a strong foundation in their previous and fundamental speaking knowledge. At this point, the most crucial individuals are the teacher and the students. It is divided into two primary stages: in the first, the instructor makes thinking visible and involves students in joint construction, and in the second, the students are allowed to apply their knowledge through independent construction.

Stage Two in the present model was based on a Community of Inquiry. Astin (1999) defines student engagement as "physical and psychic energy devoted to academics." Marks (2000) explains that student engagement as behavioural participation affects learning quality. Garrison, Anderson, & Archer (2000) identify the three presences in the Community of Inquiry (CoI) as overlapping and interacting processes connected to the quality of the learning experience that determines students'

involvement with online education. Cognitive presence is how learners find meaning in their surroundings. Social presence is learners' ability to project personal traits into the learning community. Teaching presence includes design, facilitation, and direction (Garrison & Arbaugh, 2007).

Regarding cognitive presents, students perceive flipped classroom activities as a motivating setting that stimulates brainstorming to assist their cognitive engagement with flipped learning materials. The students believed learning model upgrades fostered motivation by creating a competitive environment. Students had pushed updates despite the online learning management system's discussion boards when they did not plan to check the course.

Students may build a sense of community online, which helps them engage. The students feel like members of this online community, and their contributions are acknowledged. They also sense participation when replying to class responses. All of these can boost students' community spirit. The students enjoy group and pair work and feel contradictory arguments and group interactions to tackle actual case situations might boost their participation. Although some students were concerned about privacy in synchronous sessions, they were not in the subsequent treatments. The non-pedagogical exchanges during synchronous sessions established a desirable social atmosphere, which helped students engage.

Teaching presence is needed to use the flipped classroom model to engage students with flipped materials. It was also demonstrated that having open and transparent discussions with students about the activity details helps engage them with flipped content. The students believed that the instructor should provide a response to their discussions and elaborate on the solution. During synchronous sessions, the students like having the opportunity to watch the instructor. Although the importance of effective communication was emphasised during the first meeting, after the students participated in the intervention and became aware of the aims, they did not voice any concerns about effective communication during the next weekly meetings.

The teacher's capacity to make the most of the flipped learning environment in the classroom is critical when assisting students in developing HOTS. By providing scaffolding and timely feedback, the teacher can assist the language learners in overcoming difficulties with their speaking. The constructivism learning theory characterises this process phase, which asserts that human growth is socially situated and knowledge is formed via interaction with other people. The classroom was designed so that, besides the teacher explaining, the students could ask relevant questions, discuss

their thoughts and experiences, and engage in interactive knowledge exchange (Gul, 2016).
The findings support this view and are centred on the questionnaire and the semi-structured interviews. The interactions between the teacher and students and the students' discussions with one another were precious to the students in the flipped classroom. The students described the learning environment as being both encouraging and practical. They claimed they had made substantial progress in their speaking ability and were more interested in and confident in speaking. For instance, student R3 shared his perspective, stating, " *In a typical classroom, we spend a lot of time listening to the teacher and don't have much time to work together. In the flipped speaking model, we will have time to work together during the two hours. We could ask a classmate or the teacher in the classroom."* Student R7 shared an opinion like that of the teacher. He remarked, *" I like how the flipped classroom lets us do activities and talk in pairs or as a group. It's fun for me to work with other people. It's more interesting because we can talk about it together during classroom activities. We can always talk to each other when we don't know what to say*." These findings are consistent with those presented by Nouri (2016), who discovered that most students held favourable opinions regarding the flipped classroom. The students with the lowest levels of academic achievement rated much more favourably than those with the highest. Flipped classes boosted their learning and made it more effective.

In a flipped classroom model, students were also assigned the extra task of independently producing a spoken language to demonstrate what they had comprehended and learned during both stages. As a result of the development of LOTS and HOTS, as well as the instructor-provided scaffolding and immediate feedback, students could organise, integrate, and apply their newly gained knowledge to their speaking performance. Student R5 observed, " *We have less time to practise in a regular classroom. There are a lot of different things going on in the classroom right now. That doesn't leave much time. But in the flipped classroom, we had a lot of time to talk and think about the task.*" Tin other words, there was more time and opportunities for speakers of a second language to engage in individual speaking practice. Student R5 continued, *" The teacher gave us the courage to talk in the flipped classroom. In the classroom, the teacher will always tell you what to do. We'd like it if you'd give us a chance to speak for ourselves."*

As previously stated, the flipped classroom style reverses typical lectures and assignments. It reverses typical teaching and delivery outside the classroom, allowing teachers to teach students individually or in groups. This suggested Flipped Speaking Framework is both student- and teacher-centred. The Flipped Speaking Framework aligns with the Community of Inquiry, Output-driven, input-enabled Hypothesis, Constructivism, and Bloom's Revised Taxonomy.

6.8 Reflections on Cultural and Institutional Background

In this section, the author will reflect on Indonesian EFL learners' immediate cultural and institutional background and experiences. The discussion will draw on the critiques made about EFL education's national (Indonesian) and institutional challenges, previously discussed in the introduction. This section will provide further insight into the study's limitations and findings, considering the unique cultural and institutional context in which the research was conducted.

Indonesia's cultural and institutional background plays a significant role in the analysis of the English language proficiency of higher education students. The Indonesian educational system has undergone various changes, with the latest being the Kurikulum 2013 (K13), which comprises four stages of schooling: preschool, primary, secondary, and higher education. Access to higher education institutions is standardised and exam-driven, and the admission process is based on multiple-choice tests. The participants in the study are enrolled in non-English departments, and according to Kurikulum 2013, English is not given significant weight in their study streams.

English is seen as a foreign language in Indonesia and is taught in schools from secondary school until higher education. English is considered Indonesia's most important foreign language, although it has limited use in society. The frequency of English classes depends on the level of education, but on average, students receive around 648 hours of English classes over twelve years of secondary education. However, despite the significant amount of English classes, most senior high school graduates struggle to use the language effectively because the focus is mainly on formalised structures and not real-life communication.

The cultural and institutional background discussed in this section connects to the overall structure of the discussion as they provide insight into the context in which the study was conducted and the factors that influenced the participants' English language proficiency. The limitations of the Indonesian educational system and the focus on formalised structures in English language teaching provide a framework for understanding the challenges higher education students face in using English effectively. These reflections highlight the significance of considering cultural and institutional background in the analysis of English language proficiency and its impact on the overall structure of the discussion.

6.9 Concluding remarks

This chapter summarized the study's main findings. Finding an efficient technique to help L2 learners enhance their speaking skills is critical in this new era of globalisation. In a General English L2 context at the higher education level, the needs of competent English speakers have not been satisfied. General English course in university has several challenges: lack of exposure to the English language, poor speaking abilities, and the short length of the General English course. The current study used a proposed flipped speaking classroom for L2 learners to improve their speaking to solve these gaps. Using the flipped classroom in the overall teaching and learning process results in a rise in the students' desire to learn English and their level of interest in doing so. In addition, students who take responsibility for their education see an increase in their levels of self-management and self-directedness, which is a direct result of the flipped classroom model. The technology that allows a classroom to be flipped has substantial pedagogical potential for both the teacher and the students. In addition, the study findings indicated that there had been an overall improvement in students' academic performance.

First, the participants' pre- and post-test speaking performances were compared, and the participants performed much better on the post-test than on the pre-test. The proposed theoretical framework demonstrated the potential of enhancing learners' LOTS outside of class while fostering their HOTS in class. Input and output, interaction, and personalised instruction increased the opportunity to practice speaking in class, and flexible accessibility raised their confidence and self-efficacy in speaking. Thus, the latest findings are substantially supported by prior findings. Second, the research findings demonstrated that most L2 learners appreciated the flipped classroom model, and the suggested flipped speaking strategy is recommended for improving L2 learners' speaking skills.

Indonesia's cultural and institutional background plays a significant role in the analysis of the English language proficiency of higher education students. The Indonesian educational system has undergone various changes, with the latest being the Kurikulum 2013 (K13), which comprises four stages of schooling: preschool, primary, secondary, and higher education. Access to higher education institutions is standardised and exam-driven, and the admission process is based on multiple-choice tests. The participants in the study are enrolled in non-English departments, and according to Kurikulum 2013, English is not given significant weight in their study streams.

English is seen as a foreign language in Indonesia and is taught in schools from secondary school until higher education. English is considered Indonesia's most important foreign language, although it has limited use in society. The frequency of English classes depends on the level of education, but

on average, students receive around 648 hours of English classes over twelve years of secondary education. However, despite the significant number of English classes, most senior high school graduates struggle to use the language effectively because the focus is mainly on formalised structures and not real-life communication.

The cultural and institutional background discussed in this section connects to the overall structure of the discussion as they provide insight into the context in which the study was conducted and the factors that influenced the participants' English language proficiency. The limitations of the Indonesian educational system and the focus on formalised structures in English language teaching provide a framework for understanding the challenges higher education students face in using English effectively. These reflections highlight the significance of considering cultural and institutional background in the analysis of English language proficiency and its impact on the overall structure of the discussion.

Chapter Seven: Conclusions, implications, and future research

7.1 Introduction

This chapter details the concluding remarks of this dissertation. The previous chapters have presented and discussed the literature review, aims, hypothesis research methodology, results, and discussions of the current study. Section 7.2 presents a brief main conclusion from the study. Section 7.3 presents research and practice implications, including theoretical and practical implications. This section elaborates on various practical implications for instructors, students, institutions, and curriculum designers. Section 7.4 and 7.5 finalises the study by presenting the conclusion and explaining its limitations before offering possible work for future avenues. Section 7.6 concludes the chapter.

7.2 Main conclusion from the study

The current study aimed to investigate the effects of using a flipped classroom model on the speaking abilities of L2 students. This was accomplished by contrasting the students' speaking skills on pre-tests with those on post-tests and collecting student feedback on the flipped classroom model using questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. The following is an outline of the main conclusions from the study:

1. There was a significant difference between students' speaking performance after the flipped classroom intervention. Students who underwent the intervention made a significant improvement in their speaking skills.
2. Ninety per cent of the students taught in a flipped classroom for speaking positively perceived the learning model. They attributed their speaking improvement to the input and output rich instruction, interaction and more personalised instruction, increased opportunity to practice in the class, and flexible accessibility.
3. Flipped classroom model for speaking classes can be applied in an L2 classroom at higher education (HE) since it enhances the L2 learners' lower-order thinking skills (LOTS) as well as their higher-order thinking skills (HOTS) inside and outside the classroom.
4. The study proposed a Flipped Speaking Framework for L2 university students, which showed speaking skills by emphasising input and output and social interaction in the classroom community, inside and outside the classroom, and arguing that utilising both consistently can lead to effective teaching and learning processes.

7.3 Implication for research and practice

The study suggests several implications for theory and practice.

7.3.1 Cultural and Institutional Background of the Study

In order to better understand the implications of the study, it is essential to consider the cultural and institutional background of the study. The study occurred in Indonesia, specifically at Universitas Sanata Dharma, Yogyakarta. The culture of Indonesia is rich and diverse, and this cultural background can play an essential role in shaping the educational experience of L2 students. Additionally, the institutional context of Universitas Sanata Dharma may have specific challenges and strengths that impacted the study results.

In the introduction chapter, the author critiqued the national and institutional EFL education settings relevant to the global EFL context and specific to Indonesian contexts. The study results can provide further reflections on these challenges and offer insights into how the flipped classroom model can address these challenges and how it can be adapted to the Indonesian context.

7.3.2 Relevance of the Study to the National and Institutional Context

The flipped classroom model can potentially address some of the challenges faced by the EFL education system in Indonesia. As previously discussed, the flipped classroom model allows for a more flexible and personalised approach to learning, which can be particularly beneficial for L2 students with different English proficiency levels. Additionally, the flipped classroom model can help improve students' speaking skills by providing more opportunities for practice and interaction.

However, it is essential to consider the institutional context of Universitas Sanata Dharma and how this may have impacted the study results. For example, the availability of technology and resources may have played a role in implementing the flipped classroom model and the study's success. Additionally, the student's cultural background may have impacted their perceptions of the flipped classroom model and their motivation to participate in the study. In conclusion, it is essential to consider the cultural and institutional background of the study in order to understand the implications of the results thoroughly and to explore future avenues for research in this area. The study offers valuable insights into the potential of the flipped classroom model for L2 students in Indonesia, and the cultural and institutional context can further enrich our understanding of this model and its applications.

7.3.3 Theoretical implications

There is not yet a comprehensive model that may assist teachers in higher education to maximise the learning of L2 students and improve their speaking abilities. However, flipped classroom instruction is becoming increasingly common in many subjects. Speaking is a critical ability that students need

to equip themselves with to think effectively and structure their communication beneficially. In addition, speaking is a skill many people learn as a second or foreign language that their teachers find challenging. As a result of the limited amount of time spent in class, L2 learners cannot access linguistic information and lexical resources fluently or automatically. This leaves them with little or limited capacity for working memory as they go through the cognitive process of learning to speak. This study aimed to shed light on the situation by proposing a practical framework that L2 teachers and administrators might use to improve L2 students' speaking abilities.

This proposed Flipped Speaking Framework has two primary stages. Its first stage focuses on students' LOTS outside the classroom, while its second stage focuses on their HOTS inside the classroom. To help L2 students develop their speaking skills, teachers can adopt these two steps. Constructivism, Bloom's Revised Taxonomy, Community of Inquiry, and Output-driven, Input-enabled Hypothesis are incorporated into the two stages.

In this study, L2 students improved significantly in their speaking performances using the Flipped Speaking Framework. The intervention sessions freed students' working memory capacity outside of class, as was the frequency and quality of social engagement required in class. The current study discovered a significant connection between compelling speaking performances and flipped classrooms. The student's ability to speak in front of others improved due to the increased learning time, individualised instruction, and individual motivation, as well as LOTS and HOTS.

7.3.4 Practical implications

The flipped classroom model suited L2 learners who wanted more flexibility in learning materials and pace. Instructors' roles have gotten more difficult as they must scaffold students' learning of higher-level thinking tasks or interactive learning activities during class and prepare materials beforehand. This study has various practical implications for instructors, students, institutions, and curriculum designers.

The flipped classroom model can potentially address some of the challenges faced by the EFL education system in Indonesia. As previously discussed, the flipped classroom model allows for a more flexible and personalised approach to learning, which can be particularly beneficial for L2 students with different English proficiency levels. Additionally, the flipped classroom model can help improve students' speaking skills by providing more opportunities for practice and interaction.

However, it is crucial to consider the institutional context of Universitas Sanata Dharma and how this may have impacted the study results. For example, the availability of technology and resources may have played a role in implementing the flipped classroom model and the study's success. Additionally, the student's cultural background may have impacted their perceptions of the flipped classroom model and their motivation to participate in the study.

In conclusion, it is essential to consider the cultural and institutional background of the study in order to understand the implications of the results thoroughly and to explore future avenues for research in this area. The study offers valuable insights into the potential of the flipped classroom model for L2 students in Indonesia, and the cultural and institutional context can further enrich our understanding of this model and its applications.

7.3.4.1 For instructors

Based on the study's findings, instructors should (1) scaffold students' learning, (2) organize flipped learning sessions that meet students' requirements and levels of English proficiency, (3) build strong relationships with students in the classroom, and (4) assist the students.

First, the Flipped Speaking Framework could improve student motivation, engagement, LOTS, HOTS, and interaction in speaking. According to quantitative and qualitative research, the teacher's teaching technique is vital for students' speaking proficiency. That is why they require lots of help. This recommended Flipped Speaking Framework indicates that teachers should provide sufficient scaffolding for these L2 students and increase their self-efficacy through engagement and motivation. Using the Flipped Speaking Framework, teachers can successfully manage the cognitive, linguistic, and emotional barriers of working with L2 students. Instructors' professional development and educational policies must address this issue to improve students' speaking skills. In other words, teachers should provide as much assistance or scaffolding as possible to students' linguistic, cognitive, and emotional needs.

Second, the study found that the flipped classroom approach helped students enhance their speaking skills. In order to create HOTS, teachers should plan pre-class video tutorials for students to learn more about the subject. In a flipped classroom, teachers must adapt their pedagogical approaches and designs to students' learning styles. While teachers in a flipped classroom use video and online platforms to share knowledge with students, they are also expected to adapt their interactive teaching tactics to their student's learning requirements and styles. Instead of lecturing in front of the classroom or behind the stage, teachers must be competent leaders who can manage their students' emotions,

needs, and behaviours. Knowledge of the course materials is required to answer students' queries and respond quickly during class discussions. This level of student participation is critical to the success of the flipped speaking classroom practice and the students' HOTS. Regarding prior planning, instructors should analyse and decide which aspects must be flipped and divide learning materials into short courses augmented with video recordings. Short and precise videos covering crucial learning content help students prepare for class.

Teachers can use online video tools and materials to create a flipped classroom. Many teachers struggle with time and technological skills, so making videos can take hours before class. Using web videos can help teachers save time. However, others prefer to make their own, tailored to their students' requirements, especially those lacking listening, understanding, and language abilities. Although flipped classroom teachers are not required to create their videos, it is recommended that they take professional development classes to improve their skills.

Third, teachers using flipped learning methodologies must build relationships with their students. The current study found that student-teacher relationships influenced students' speaking performance. These bonds aided in the emotional component of the classroom. In other words, how teachers and students relate emotionally, care about each other, and trust one another in the classroom affects how well children learn. As stated previously, qualitative studies demonstrated that student-teacher connections influenced student results. Positive classroom learning environments are established when teacher-student or student-student interactions are optimized. When teachers first put emotion and learning to scaffold, students become more attentive, interested, and eager to learn and grow.

Finally, teachers themselves support the flipped classroom. They must fully comprehend their students' needs and abilities before providing suitable and timely guidance within the classroom. Some course content benefits through in-class investigation, discussion, or modelling, while others benefit from the pre-class presentation. In other words, the instructional materials and the time allotted for the class have been organised to encourage enhanced authentic participation and group discussions during speaking activities. In a flipped classroom, teachers must reach each student individually and provide timely feedback during class. Unlike traditional teachers, flipped classroom teachers must try to integrate and improve students' abilities. They must deliberately adapt their positions to engage and motivate their students. Teachers should allow students to interact and discuss to promote active involvement and speaking abilities.

7.3.4.2 For students

The current study has two critical practical outcomes for students. First, students who acquire self-regulated learning practices are more self-reliant. In a flipped classroom, students must create practical self-regulated learning skills and manage the additional workload. They should also watch the films and complete the activities before class. Flipped classroom learning can be complex for students who lack commitment. Engagement in an independent, non-face-to-face learning environment prior to class is critical. Their desire to participate in all classroom activities and their receptiveness to immediate feedback from their instructor or peers are equally crucial. Students can see class content as often as they need to understand a flipped-speaking classroom's essential language and structural characteristics. They can use the time in class to practice what they have learned from the lecture videos and spend time understanding and remembering the topic of each speaking lesson before class. This activity encourages students to be active, independent, and collaborative learners. Motivated and engaged students will learn better and build self-efficacy when they establish self-regulated learning strategies in and out of the classroom.

Second, a flipped classroom concept for speaking classes depends on the student's maturity and motivation. Autonomous learning in pre-class, in-class, and post-class environments is critical to improving speaking skills in higher education. Pre-class activities require students to gather, understand, and retain knowledge to prepare for class. Class participation and the ability to ask questions, identify issues and implement solutions are anticipated.

Students need to learn extracurricular knowledge, and carrying out the curricular understanding of this process will increase the burden on students' extracurricular academic work. This is what the flipped classroom does to the traditional classroom teaching and learning process, turning it into a learning and teaching process instead. It contradicts the goal of reducing the load, which has been promoted. If factors determine the student's studies from the outside, they will feel like more of a burden to them. If the student is motivated to study because of something intrinsic to them, then the workload will not feel as heavy. Students learn more by their intrinsic factors when they study organically and self-regulated. The ability of students to self-regulate their learning is one method for resolving the perceived inconsistency between the flipped classroom model and the regulation known as "burden."

The flipped classroom model inverts the conventional learning sequence by switching the order in which students acquire academic and extracurricular materials. The flipped classroom model needs students to rely on the instructional video for self-study before class. Then class time is based on

interacting with professors and students to accomplish knowledge internalisation. Students only need to demonstrate an excellent ability to self-regulate their learning to learn without the instructor's assistance before class, acknowledge the knowledge they have gained, and present their findings. If they have problems during class, they can also ask the teacher for assistance and discuss ways to analyse better and solve problems. Because of this, the only students who will be successful in achieving their learning goals are those who are capable of engaging in self-directed learning because only they will have the ability to select appropriate learning methods based on their current circumstances, to carry out learning tasks, and to ensure success in learning. In the meantime, students determined to self-learning can arrange learning time and place, monitor their entire learning process, evaluate their outcomes in extracurricular and curricular learning, and increase learning in flipped classrooms.

The flipped classroom model requires students to assume the role of active participants instead of passive recipients, and teachers must transition from traditional leaders to facilitators. Teachers who ask questions before class can tailor their instruction to specific students, set up various scaffolding, provide individualised assistance, expand students' opportunities to connect with teachers and create individualised communication channels. The prominent role of the students in the classroom will be reflected in the fact that they will be assigned more time and effort to accomplish.

7.3.4.3 For the institution

There is a significant practical application in the institution. Teachers' needs, workloads, and student participation in and out of the classroom should be continually assessed and evaluated to ensure that the flipped classroom is successful. Higher education institutions must continually update their technology. Although video lectures are not the only teaching tool utilized in higher education, and technology does not constitute a flipped classroom, the impact of video technologies on L2 learners' speaking performance is evident in this study.

Qualitative enhancement in teaching-learning methodologies is crucial for the growing number of L2 students in many higher education institutions. To foster L2 learners' interest in speaking through the flipped classroom model, changing the traditional teaching method into a more flexible, active, and interesting one; and strengthening their class participation is a valuable measure. Communication and interaction with teachers and other students in the classroom become appropriate and more effective when students access course materials before class. The flipped classroom helps students attain academic goals, which benefits the institutes. As a result, schools should educate instructors and give

technical support. This institutional support for teachers and students will dramatically improve student learning results.

The practical consequences of this study suggest that higher learning institutions should invest in reduced class sizes and emphasise their students' classroom engagement and active vocabulary development, including linking words, word choice and sentence structure. The study indicated that classrooms with fewer students are more conducive to encouraging greater participation. In addition, students in larger classes may have fewer opportunities to interact with one another. On the other hand, a smaller class size gives students more opportunities to practise and build confidence, enhancing their engagement and interaction in speaking English.

7.3.4.4 For instructional designers

A significant implication for instructional designers is to design the General English course utilizing the flipped classroom concept. Teaching a comprehensive English syllabus that includes listening, speaking, reading, writing, and grammar in a limited class time can be difficult for many L2 teachers. Thus, instructional designers can use the flipped classroom model to improve L2 student learning. As this study indicates, the flipped classroom paradigm for speaking skills has encouraged learning outcomes, positive student views, and satisfaction with flipped classroom settings. The flipped classroom model for speaking skills can be used in many L2 courses. It may also assist teachers in fostering critical and independent thinking in students, preparing them for university study. However, instructional designers must understand the flipped classroom pedagogy to create, plan properly, and implement it effectively. There is no universal model for L2 students in a flipped classroom, but this study proposes fundamental aspects that can guide future research.

Although the flipped classroom model of teaching and learning was favoured, one concerning aspect was the lack of evidence that the students correctly understood the potential provided by interactive synchronous sessions to facilitate deeper and higher levels of learning skills. This concern indicated that the students may not have appreciated the synchronous session as much as they could have. According to the comments left by the students, the additional flexibility provided was the aspect valued the most. There is a concern that some students will see attendance at the class as optional because of the common belief that good learning can be obtained solely from observation of the lecture videos. This is possibly a flashback to the student's perspective of learning using the traditional method. The students perceive lecture videos as a more flexible way of acquiring information than live lectures. While implementing this method for the first time, it is essential to impress upon the students the significance of the interactive synchronous meetings that will be held throughout the

course. Providing an initial incentive for students to attend these sessions will likely assist the teaching and learning processes. This is an effective means of incentivising students to attend the interactive synchronous session and the opportunity to realise the advantageous components of these to aid in higher learning skills.

7.4 Limitations of the study

This study has some limitations. The sample size is the first potential study issue. The study used a convenience sample of general English course students from a private higher learning institution. Because the interviews were voluntary, less than half of the students were interviewed for each stage. Although the sample did not impair the internal validity of the current study, it may have affected its external validity. Lesser-known variables include the skill level of L2 learners in a General English course and the duration of the flipped classroom intervention. A similar study should be done with various samples and circumstances to check if the results are similar. Future studies should also have a greater sample size.

Second, the present study did not examine gender or age. Female and male L2 students may respond differently in a flipped-speaking classroom. So, further research is needed to help instructional designers understand the distinctions between targeted groups and include them in their planning and implementation of the flipped method. Third, the current study depended on the group rather than individual attributes. Due to the small sample size, the L2 learners were perceived as a homogeneous ethnic group in Indonesia. However, not all non-English speakers face the same difficulties in speaking English. The learners' ethnicity, culture, language, religion, race, and customs may have influenced their speaking performance. Speaking difficulties in L2 contexts can be caused by various external and internal variables. Future studies should look at this.

The current study included some limitations. Because the current study focuses on individuals' language backgrounds, other characteristics such as geography, gender, and age were not included. The current study only looked at L2 learners. Before recommending future research, it is essential to acknowledge the study's limitations. This study focused on a particular class. Because each class is distinct, the conclusions of this study cannot be generalised. Nonetheless, the current study is ‘transferable' in that readers or researchers can notice connections between their situations and the relevant findings and implications.

7.5 Future research

This section examines possible future research options from the following perspectives:

First, future research can be conducted longitudinally to assess the use of flipped classrooms further. Design-based research allows researchers to see how a flipped course may be modified and enhanced. This could result in a deeper understanding and more rigorous practical instructions for implementing flipped classrooms in an L2 context. Future research can focus on other aspects of language, such as listening, writing, reading, and grammar.

Second, future research should go beyond post-test scores to additional student involvement and motivation indicators in a flipped classroom, as surveys or tests cannot quantify engagement. Traditional methods to assess student participation include classroom observations with explicit rubrics and expectations utilizing point-based, visual, or colour-coded systems. More substantial evidence is also required to evaluate student speaking. However, additional key characteristics of speaking performance, such as discourse, sociolinguistics, and strategic competency, should be incorporated into future studies.

7.6 Concluding remarks

Mastering English as a Foreign Language for higher education institutions has become increasingly crucial in today's higher education scene. Speaking for L2 students should be given more attention than before. Due to the constraints of low English proficiency, lack of time to bridge the English gap, and the necessity for English proficiency, it is necessary to investigate and develop a suitable speaking learning model that is both effective and relevant to L2 and centennial learners. The research study confirmed that flipped classrooms for speaking lessons assist L2 learners. The flipped classroom model improves both their learning and performance. This study improves the expanding body of scholarly research on flipped classrooms for speaking skills and supports the flipped learning approach in higher education in Indonesia.

This study explores the flipped classroom method's effect on students' communication ability in English language lessons. The investigation uses a mixed-method action research approach while incorporating an embedded model. This method contrasts the quantitative and qualitative findings to acquire additional evidence from various data sources and to draw conclusions that have been thoroughly validated. Additionally, the study examined how the learning environment interacted with the student's previous English-speaking achievements. It offers a framework supported by research from the context of language acquisition. This framework evaluates the benefits of shifting the

paradigm for student achievement.

References

Abdullah, M. Y., Hussin, S., & Ismail, K. (2019). Implementation of Flipped Classroom Model and Its Effectiveness on English Speaking Performance. *International Journal of Emerging Technologies*, *14*(9).

Abedi, P., & Namaziandost, E. (2019). The Comparative Effect of Flipped Classroom Instruction versus Traditional Instruction on Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners' English Composition Writing. *Journal of Applied Linguistics and Language Research, 6*(4), 43-56.

Abou-Khalil, V., Helou, S., Khalifé, E., Chen, M. A., Majumdar, R., & Ogata, H. (2021). Emergency online learning in low-resource settings: Effective student engagement strategies. *Education Sciences*, *11*(1), 24.

Abrar, M., Mukminin, A., Habibi, A., Asyrafi, F., Makmur, M., & Marzulina, L. (2018). "If our English isn't a language, what is it?" Indonesian EFL Student Teachers' Challenges Speaking English. *The Qualitative Report, 23*(1), 129-145.

Abrosimova, G., Kondrateva, I., Voronina, E., & Plotnikova, N. (2019). Blended learning in university education. *Humanities & Social Sciences Reviews*, *7*(6), 06-10.

Aburezeq, I. M. (2020). The impact of flipped classroom on developing Arabic speaking skills. *The Asia Pacific Education Researcher, 29*(4), 295-306.

Adi Badiozaman, I. F. B., Leong, H., & Jikus, O. (2020). Investigating student engagement in Malaysian higher education: A self-determination theory approach. *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, *44*(10), 1364-1378.

Adnan, M. (2017). Perceptions of senior-year ELT students for flipped classroom: A materials development course. *Computer Assisted Language Learning, 30*(3-4), 204-222.

Aebersold, J. A., & Field, M. L. (1997). *From reader to reading teacher: Issues and strategies for second language classrooms*. Cambridge University Press.

Ahmadi, D., & Reza, M. (2018). The use of technology in English language learning: A literature review. *International Journal of Research in English Education*, *3*(2), 115-125.

Akagündüz, N. (2006). Self-confidence concept in human life. Umraniye Guidance & Publications, R. C. D.

Akhter, S., Haidov, R., Rana, A. M., & Qureshi, A. H. (2020). Exploring the significance of speaking skill for EFL learners. *PalArch's Journal of Archaeology of Egypt/Egyptology*, *17*(9), 6019-6030.

Akın, A. (2007). The Development and Psychometric Characteristics of the Self-Confidence Scale. *Abant İzzel Baysal Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, *7*(2), 167-176.

Akshaya, R. (2019). Flipped Learning through Mobile Phones in ESL Classrooms. *Language in India, 19*(3), 9-13.

Akyol, T. (2013). A study on identifying pronunciation learning strategies of Turkish EFL learners. *Procedia-Social Behavorial & Sciences*, *70*, 1456-1462.

Akyol, Z., & Garrison, D. R. (2011). Understanding cognitive presence in an online and blended community of inquiry: Assessing outcomes and processes for deep approaches to learning. *British Journal of Educational Technology, 42*(2), 233-250.

Al Hosni, S. (2014). Speaking difficulties encountered by young EFL learners. *International Journal on Studies in English Language & Literature*, *2*(6), 22-30.

Al Nakhalah, A. M. M. (2016). Problems and Difficulties of Speaking That Encounter English Language Students at Al Quds Open University. International Journal of Humanities and Social Science Convention, *5*(12), 96-101.

Al Zoubi, S. M. (2018). The impact of exposure to English language on language acquisition. *Journal of Applied Linguistics and Language Research*, *5*(4), 151-162.

Alghamdi, A., Karpinski, A. C., Lepp, A., & Barkley, J. (2020). Online and face-to-face classroom multitasking and academic performance: Moderated mediation with self-efficacy for self-regulated learning and gender. *Computers in Human Behavior*, *102*, 214-222.

Alharbi, H. A. (2015). Improving Students' English Speaking Proficiency in Saudi Public Schools. *International Journal of Instruction, 8*(1), 105-116.
Alharbi, H. A. (2015). Improving Students' English Speaking Proficiency in Saudi Public Schools. *International Journal of Instruction, 8*, 105-116.
Alharbi, H., Sandhu, K., Brown, T. C. (2015). The Acceptance of E-learning Recommender System for Saudi Universities: Framework and Hypotheses. Proceedings of the International Conference on Engineering & MIS.
Al-Harbi, S. S., & Alshumaimeri, Y. A. (2016). The Flipped Classroom Impact in Grammar Class on EFL Saudi Secondary School Students' Performances and Attitudes. *English Language Teaching, 9*(10), 60-80.
Aljohani, M. (2017). Principles of "constructivism" in foreign language teaching. *Journal of Literature and Art Studies, 7*(1), 97-107.
Alkhoudary, Y. A., & AlKhoudary, J. A. (2019). The effectiveness of flipping classroom model on EFL secondary school speaking skills. *Indonesian EFL Journal, 5*(2), 1-10.
Almendingen, K., Morseth, M. S., Gjølstad, E., Brevik, A., & Tørris, C. (2021). Student's experiences with online teaching following COVID-19 lockdown: A mixed methods explorative study. *PLOS One, 16*(8).
Alqahtani, M. (2015). The importance of vocabulary in language learning and how to be taught. *International journal of teaching and education*, *3*(3), 21-34.
Alrajafi, G. (2021). The use of English in Indonesia: Status and Influence. *SIGEH ELT: Journal of Literature & Linguistics, 1*(1), 1-10.
Alsowat, H. (2016). An EFL Flipped Classroom Teaching Model: Effects on English Language Higher-order Thinking Skills, Student Engagement and Satisfaction. *Journal of Education and Practice, 7*(9), 108-121.
Alsowat, H. H. (2016). Foreign language anxiety in higher education: A practical framework for reducing FLA. *European Scientific Journal, 12*(7).
Al-Tamimi, A., & Shuib, M. (2009). Motivation And Attitudes Towards Learning English: A Study Of Petroleum Engineering Undergraduates At Hadhramout University Of Sciences And Technology. *Gema Online Journal of Language Studies, 9*(2), 29-55.
Al-wossabi, S. A. N. (2016). Promoting Communicative Skills and Cultural Understanding among Saudi EFL Students Joining Summer English Programs at US Universities: A Web-Based Project. *2016, 7*(6), 10.
Amiryousefi, M. (2017). The differential effects of collaborative vs. individual prewriting planning on computer-mediated L2 writing: transferability of task-based linguistic skills in focus. *Computer Assisted Language Learning, 30*(8), 766-786.
Amiryousefi, M. (2019). The incorporation of flipped learning into conventional classes to enhance EFL learners' L2 speaking, L2 listening, and engagement. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching, 13*(2), 147-161.
Anderson, L. W. (2020). Taxonomies of educational objectives as bases for curriculum planning. In *Oxford Research Encyclopedia of Education*.
Anderson, L. W., & Krathwohl, D. R. (2001). *A taxonomy for learning, teaching, and assessing: A revision of Bloom's taxonomy of educational objectives*: Longman.
Anderson, T., Liam, R., Garrison, D. R., & Archer, W. (2001). Assessing teaching presence in a computer conferencing context.
Andrei, E. M., & Buckley-Marudas, M. F. (2019). It does not need to be perfect! Two teacher educators' quest to enhance online instruction with videos. *Networks: An Online Journal for Teacher Research.*
Andrews, K. (2007). *The Effects of Implicit and Explicit Instruction on Simple and Complex Grammatical Structures for Adult English Language Learners*.
Ansari, M. S. (2015). Speaking anxiety in ESL/EFL Classrooms: A holistic approach and practical study. *International Journal of Education Investigation, 2*(4), 38-46.
Anthonysamy, L., Koo, A. C., & Hew, S. H. (2020). Self-regulated learning strategies and non-

academic outcomes in higher education blended learning environments: A one decade review. *Education and Information Technologies*, *25*(5), 3677-3704.
Apriyanti, D., & Ayu, M. (2020). Think-Pair-Share: Engaging Students in Speaking Activities in Classroom. *Journal of English Language Teaching and Learning*, *1*(1), 13-19.
Arbaugh, J. B. (2001). How Instructor Immediacy Behaviors Affect Student Satisfaction and Learning in Web-Based Courses. *Business Communication Quarterly, 64*, 42 - 54.
Arbaugh, J. B. (2019). An Empirical Verification Of The Community Of Inquiry Framework. Online Learning.
Arbaugh, J. B., Bangert, A., & Cleveland-Innes, M. (2010). Subject matter effects and the Community of Inquiry (CoI) framework: An exploratory study. *Internet Higher Education, 13*, 37-44.
Arbaugh, J. B., Cleveland-Innes, M., Diaz, S., Garrison, D. R., Ice, P., Richardson, J. C., & Swan, K. (2008). Developing a community of inquiry instrument: Testing a measure of the Community of Inquiry framework using a multi-institutional sample. *Internet Higher Education*, *11*, 133-136.
Archer, A. L., & Hughes, C. A. (2010). *Explicit instruction: Effective and efficient teaching*: Guilford Publications.
Arifin, M. A. (2017). The Teaching Methodology and Assessment of Character Education in Indonesian English. *Personnel, 19*(1-2), 35-49.
Ariyanti, A. (2016). Psychological Factors affecting EFL students' speaking performance. *ASIAN TEFL, 1*(1).
Arnold, J., & Brown, H. D. (1999). A map of the terrain. *Affect in Language Learning,* 1.
Arnold, N., Ducate, L. (2006). Future foreign language teachers' social and cognitive collaboration in an online environment. *Language Learning & Technology, 10*(1), 42.
Aronson, N., Arfstrom, K. M., & Tam, K. (2013). Flipped learning in higher education. Estados Unidos: Pearson.
Artino, A. R. (2012). Academic self-efficacy: from educational theory to instructional practice. *Perspectives on medical education*, *1*(2), 76-85.
Asad, M. M., Hussain, N., Wadho, M., Khand, Z. H., & Churi, P. P. (2021). Integration of e-learning technologies for interactive teaching and learning process: an empirical study on higher education institutes of Pakistan. *Journal of Applied Research in Higher Education*, *13*(3), 649-663.
Asakereh, A., & Dehghannezhad, M. (2015). Student satisfaction with EFL speaking classes: Relating speaking self-efficacy and skills achievement. *Issues in Educational Research, 25*(4), 345.
Asoodar, M., Atai, M. R., Vaezi, S., Marandi, S. S. (2014). Examining effectiveness of communities of practice in online English for academic purposes (EAP) assessment in virtual classes. *Computers & Education, 70*, 291-300.
Astin, A. W. (1999). Student involvement: A developmental theory for higher education.
Ausubel, D. P. (2012). *The acquisition and retention of knowledge: A cognitive view*: Springer Science & Business Media.
Aydın, O. T. (2012). The impact of motivation and hygiene factors on research performance: An empirical study from a Turkish university. *International Review of Management & Marketing, 2*(2), 106-111.
Aydin, S. J. (2016). WebQuests as language-learning tools. *Computer Assisted Language Learning, 29*(4), 765-778.
Bachman, L. F. (1990). *Fundamental considerations in language testing*: Oxford university press.
Bada, S. O., Olusegun, S. (2015). Constructivism learning theory: A paradigm for teaching and learning. *Journal of Research Method in Education, Journal of Research Method in Education, 5*(6), 66-70.
Baker, A. (2016). Active learning with interactive videos: Creating student-guided learning materials. *Journal of Library, Information Services in Distance Learning, 10*(3-4), 79-87.

Baker, C. M. (2000). Problem-based learning for nursing: integrating lessons from other disciplines with nursing experiences. *Journal of Professional Nursing: Official Journal of the American Association of Colleges of Nursing, 16 5*, 258-266.

Baker, J., & Westrup, H. (2003). *Essential speaking skills*: A&C Black.

Bandura, A. (1986). The explanatory and predictive scope of self-efficacy theory. *Journal of Social Clinical Psychology, 4*(3), 359.

Bandura, A. (1999). Social cognitive theory of personality. *The coherence of personality: Social-cognitive bases of consistency, variability, and organization*, 185-241.

Bandura, A. (2006). Guide for constructing self-efficacy scales. *Self-efficacy beliefs of adolescents*, *5*(1), 307-337.

Bandura, A. (2012). On the functional properties of perceived self-efficacy revisited. *Journal of management*, *38*(1), 9-44.

Bandura, A., Freeman, W. H., & Lightsey, R. (1999). Self-efficacy: The exercise of control. Bandura, A. (2001). Social cognitive theory: An agentic perspective. *Annual review of psychology*, *52*(1), 1-26.

Bandura, A., Freeman, W. H., & Lightsey, R. (1999). Self-efficacy: The exercise of control.

Banyard, V. L., & Miller, K. E. (1998). The powerful potential of qualitative research for community psychology. *American Journal of Community Psychology, 26*(4), 485-505.

Bao, Y., & Liu, S. (2021). The influence of affective factors in second language acquisition on foreign language teaching. *Open Journal of Social Sciences*, *9*(03), 463.

Bassey, M. (1999). *Case study research in educational settings*: McGraw-Hill Education (UK).

Bassey, M. J. (2003). Case study research. 111-123. Educational Research in Practice.

Baur, C. (2015). *The potential of interactive speech-enabled CALL in the Swiss education system: A large-scale experiment on the basis of English CALL-SLT.* University of Geneva,

Bax, S. J. E. J. (2003). The end of CLT: a context approach to language teaching. *57*, 278-287.

Beaulieu, R. J. (2013). Action research: Trends and variations. *The Canadian Journal of Action Research, 14*(3), 29-39.

Belegdair, A. (2015). The Main Psychological factors affecting Learners' Oral Performance Case study: Second Year LMD Students of English at University of Biskra.

Belt, E. S., & Lowenthal, P. R. (2021). Video use in online and blended courses: A qualitative synthesis. *Distance Education, 42*(3), 410-440.

Benati, A. (2017). The role of input and output tasks in grammar instruction: Theoretical, empirical and pedagogical considerations. *2017, 7*(3), 20. doi:10.14746/ssllt.2017.7.3.2

Bergmann, J., & Sams, A. (2012). *Flip your classroom: Reach every student in every class every day*: International society for technology in education.

Bergmann, J., & Sams, A. (2013). Flip Your Students' Learning. *Educational Leadership, 70*(6), 16-20.

Bernard, J. S. (2015). The flipped classroom: fertile ground for nursing education research. *International Journal of Nursing Education Scholarship, 12*(1), 99-109.

Berrett, D. (2012). How 'flipping' the classroom can improve the traditional lecture. *The Chronicle of Higher Education, 12*(19), 1-3.

Bezzazi, R. (2019). The effect of flipped learning on EFL learners' public speaking in Taiwan. *Journal on English as a Foreign Language, 9*(1), 1-19.

Biletska, I. O., Paladieva, A. F., Avchinnikova, H. D., & Kazak, Y. Y. (2021). The use of modern technologies by foreign language teachers: developing digital skills. *Linguistics and Culture Review*, *5*(S2), 16-27.

Bishop, J., Verleger, M. A. (2013). *The Flipped Classroom: A Survey of the Research*. 2013 ASEE Annual Conference and Exposition.

Bissell, A. N., & Lemons, P. P. (2006). A new method for assessing critical thinking in the classroom. *Bioscience, 56*(1), 66-72.

Blaikie, P. (2000). Development, post-, anti-, and populist: a critical review. *Environment and Planning A, 32*(6), 1033-1050.

Blake, R. (2008). Distance learning for second and foreign language teaching. *Encyclopaedia of Language Education, 4*, 365-376.
Blake, R. (2016). Technology and the four skills. *Language Learning & Technology, 20*(2), 129-142.
Blascovich, J., & Tomaka, J. (1991). *Measures of self-esteem*.
Blaxter, M. (1996). Criteria for the evaluation of qualitative research papers. *Medical Sociology News, 22*(1), 68-71.
Bloom, B. S. Committee of College University Examiners. (1964). *Taxonomy of educational objectives*. Committee of College University Examiners. (Vol. 2): Longmans, Green New York.
Bogdan, R. C., & Biklen, S. K. (2007). Research for education: An introduction to theories and methods.
Bohinski, C. A., & Mulé, N. (2016). Telecollaboration: Participation and negotiation of meaning in synchronous and asynchronous activities. *Mextesol Journal, 40*(3), 1-16.
Borup, J., West, R. E., Graham, C. R. (2012). Improving online social presence through asynchronous video. *The Internet and Higher Education, 15*(3), 195-203.
Bouilheres, F., Le, L. T. V. H., McDonald, S., Nkhoma, C., & Jandug-Montera, L. (2020). Defining student learning experience through blended learning. *Education and Information Technologies*, *25*(4), 3049-3069.
Bourezzane, N. (2014). Some Psychological Factors that Hinder Students' Participation in Learner-Centered EFL Oral Classroom Activities Case Study: First Year LMD Students of English, University of Biskra.
Brame, C. (2018). Effective Educational Videos: Principles and Guidelines for Maximizing Student Learning from Video Content. *CBE Life Sciences Education, 15*.
Brooks, J. G., & Brooks, M. G. (1993). In search of understanding: The case for constructivist classrooms. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.(p. l7) in Henrique, L.(1997), *61*(2), 157-178.
Brown, J. D. (1996). *Fluency development.* Paper presented at the Troyer, Gene van, Ed.; And Others On JALT 95: Curriculum and Evaluation. Proceedings of the JALT International Conference on Language Teaching/Learning (22nd, Nagoya, Japan, November.
Brumfit, C. J. (1984). *General English Syllabus Design. Curriculum and Syllabus Design for the General English Classroom*: ERIC.
Bryman, A. (2008). Why do researchers integrate/combine/mesh/blend/mix/merge/fuse quantitative and qualitative research. *Advances in Mixed Methods Research.*, *21*(8), 87-100.
Buchanan, D. A., & Bryman, A. (2007). Contextualizing methods choice in organizational research. *Organisational Research Methods, 10*(3), 483-501.
Bucura, E. (2019). Fostering self-efficacy among adolescents in secondary general music. *General Music Today*, *32*(3), 5-12.
Bueno, A., Madrid, D., & McLaren, N. (2006). TEFL in secondary education. *Granada: Editorial Universidad de Granada*, 4-7.
Burell, G., & Morgan, G. (1979). Sociological paradigms and organizational analysis. Elements of the Sociology of Corporate Life.
Burkart, G. (1998). The Essentials of Language Teaching: Teaching Speaking. In: NCLRC.
Burns, A. (2009). Action research in second language teacher education. 289-297. The Cambridge Guide to Second Language Teacher Education.
Bygate, M. (1998). Theoretical perspectives on speaking. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 18*, 20-42.
Bygate, M. (2006). Areas of research that influence L2 speaking instruction. *Current trends in the development and teaching of the four language skills, 29*.
Çağatay, S. (2015). Examining EFL students' foreign language speaking anxiety: The case at a Turkish state university. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 199*, 648-656.
Cameron, D. (2001). *Working with spoken discourse*: Sage.

Cameron, L., Moon, J., Bygate, M. (1996). Language development of bilingual pupils in the mainstream: How do pupils and teachers use language?. *Language and Education, 10*(4), 221-236.

Carr, W., & Kemmis, S. (2003). *Becoming critical: education knowledge and action research*: Routledge.

Carrier, M., Pashler, H. (1992). The influence of retrieval on retention. *Memory & Cognition, 20*(6), 633-642.

Carruthers, J. (1990). A Rationale for the Use of Semi-structured Interviews. *Journal of Educational Administration.*

Carter Jr, R. A., Rice, M., Yang, S., & Jackson, H. A. (2020). Self-regulated learning in online learning environments: strategies for remote learning. *Information and Learning Sciences*.

Cazden, C. B. (2011). As learners acquire language. In *Handbook of research on teaching the English language arts* (pp. 22-28): Routledge.

Cesare, D. M. D., Kaczorowski, T., & Hashey, A. (2021). A Piece of the (Ed) Puzzle: Using the Edpuzzle interactive video platform to facilitate explicit instruction. *Journal of Special Education Technology, 36*(2), 77-83.

Chaiklin, S. (2003). *The zone of proximal development in Vygotsky's analysis of learning and instruction*.

Chakrabarti, A., & Sengupta, M. (2012). Second Language Learning Anxiety and Its Effect on Achievement in the Language. *Language in India, 12*(8).

Chand, G. B. (2021). Challenges Faced by Bachelor Level Students While Speaking English. *Indonesian Journal of English Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics*, *6*(1), 45-60.

Chaney, A. L., & Burk, T. L. (1998). *Teaching Oral Communication in Grades K-8*: ERIC.

Charmaz, K. (2014). *Constructing grounded theory*: sage.

Chastain, K. (1998). Developing Second Language Skills. (nd Ed.). In: Chicago: Harcourt Brace Publishers.

Chen Hsieh, J. S., Wu, W.C. V., & Marek, M. W. (2017). Using the flipped classroom to enhance EFL learning. *Computer Assisted Language Learning, 30*(1-2), 1-21.

Chuang, H.-H., Weng, C.-Y., & Chen, C.-H. (2018). Which students benefit most from a flipped classroom approach to language learning? *British Journal of Educational Technology, 49*(1), 56-68. doi:10.1111/bjet.12530

Clark, R. C., & Mayer, R. E. (2008). Learning by viewing versus learning by doing: Evidence-based guidelines for principled learning environments. *Performance Improvement, 47*(9), 5-13.

Coghlan, D. (2019). *Doing action research in your own organization*: Sage.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2017a). Action research. In *Research methods in education* (pp. 440-456): Routledge.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2017b). The ethics of educational and social research. In *Research methods in education* (pp. 111-143): Routledge.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2017c). Surveys, longitudinal, cross-sectional and trend studies. In *Research methods in education* (pp. 334-360): Routledge.

Coll, R. K., & Chapman, R. (2000). Choices of methodology for cooperative education researchers. *International Journal of Work-Integrated Learning, 1*(1), 1.

Compton, M., Almpanis, T. (2018). One size doesn't fit all: rethinking approaches to continuing professional development in technology enhanced learning. *Compass: Journal of Learning and Teaching, 11*(1).

Congmin, Z. H. A. O. (2016). Factors influencing student participation in classroom interaction. *Higher education of social science*, *11*(3), 20-23.

Cook, D. L. (1962). The Hawthorne effect in educational research. *The Phi Delta Kapplan, 44*(3), 116-122.

Cook, T. D., Campbell, D. T., & Day, A. (1979). *Quasi-experimentation: Design & analysis issues for field settings* (Vol. 351): Houghton Mifflin Boston.

Cook, V. (2003). Introduction: The changing L1 in the L2 user's mind. In *Effects of the second language on the first* (pp. 1-18): Multilingual Matters.
Corey, S. M. (1953). Action research to improve school practices.
Correa, R., Lara, E., Pino, P., & Vera, T. (2017). Relationship between group seating arrangement in the classroom and student participation in speaking activities in EFL classes at a secondary school in Chile. *Folios*, (45), 145-158.
Cotterall, S. (2000). Promoting learner autonomy through the curriculum: Principles for designing language courses. *ELT Journal, 54*(2), 109-117.
Council of Europe. (2001). *Common European framework of reference for languages: Learning, teaching, assessment*: Cambridge University Press. Council for Cultural Cooperation. Education Committee. Modern Language Division.
Covington, M. V. (1984). The Self-Worth Theory of Achievement Motivation: Findings and Implications. *The Elementary School Journal, 85*, 5 - 20.
Covington, M. V., & Beery, R. G. (1976). Self-worth and school learning.
Crain, W. (2015). *Theories of development: Concepts and applications*: Routledge.
Crandall, J. (1999). Cooperative language learning and affective factors. *Affect in Language Learning, 226*.
Creswell, J. W., Hanson, W. E., Clark Plano, V. L., & Morales, A. (2007). Qualitative research designs: Selection and implementation. *The Counseling Psychologist, 35*(2), 236-264.
Cronje, J. (2020). Towards a new definition of blended learning. *Electronic journal of e-Learning*, *18*(2), pp114-121.
Crookes, G. (1993). Action research for second language teachers: Going beyond teacher research. *Applied Linguistics, 14*(2), 130-144.
Crotty, M. (1998). The foundations of social research: Meaning and perspective in the research process. *The Foundations of Social Research,* 1-256.
Cummins, J. (2007). Language interactions in the classroom: From coercive to collaborative relations of power. *Bilingual education and bilingualism*, *61*, 108.
Dalaf, M. (2019). Refrain and Hesitation of EFL Students in Class Oral Participation: Problems and Solutions. *Al-Adab Journal, 1*(128), 137-152.
Davies, R. S., Dean, D. L., Ball, N. (2013). Flipping the classroom and instructional technology integration in a college-level information systems spreadsheet course. *Educational Technology Research and Development, 61*(4), 563-580.
de Saint Léger, D., & Storch, N. J. S. (2009). Learners' perceptions and attitudes: Implications for willingness to communicate in an L2 classroom. *37*(2), 269-285.
Delbio, A., Ilankumaran, D. M. (2018). Theories, Techniques, Methods and Approaches of Second Language Acquisition: a Psychological Perspective. *International Journal of Engineering and Technology.*
Denscombe, M. (2008). Communities of practice: A research paradigm for the mixed methods approach. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research, 2*(3), 270-283.
Denzin, N. K. (2010). Moments, mixed methods, and paradigm dialogs. *Qualitative Inquiry, 16*(6), 419-427.
Denzin, N. K., Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications. (2005). Paradigmatic controversies, contradictions, and emerging confluences. *The sage handbook of qualitative research,* 163-188.
Derakhshan, A., Khalili, A. N., & Beheshti, F. (2016). Developing EFL learner's speaking ability, accuracy and fluency. *English Language and Literature Studies, 6*(2), 177-186.
Dewey, J. (1938). Experiential learning. Is Experiential Learning Authentic - New Jersey: Pentice Hall.
Dewey, J. (2006). Toward social constructivism in preservice education. *Innovations in Teacher Education,* 7-25.
Dewitt, D., Alias, N., & Siraj, S. (2015). Collaborative learning: Interactive debates using Padlet in a higher education institution.

DiCicco-Bloom, B., & Crabtree, B. F. (2006). The qualitative research interview. *Medical Education, 40*(4), 314-321.
Dickinson, L. (1987). Self-instruction in language learning.
Dijksman, J. A., & Khan, S. (2011). Khan Academy: the world's free virtual school. Bulletin of American Physical Society.
Doo, M. Y., & Bonk, C. J. (2020). The effects of self-efficacy, self-regulation and social presence on learning engagement in a large university class using flipped Learning. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning*, *36*(6), 997-1010.
Doolittle, P. E., Camp, W. G. (1999). Constructivism: The career and technical education perspective. *Journal of Vocational Technical Education, 16*(1), 23-46.
Dörnyei, Z. (1998). Motivation in second and foreign language learning. *Language Teaching, 31*, 117-135.
Dörnyei, Z., & Malderez, A. (1999). The role of group dynamics in foreign language learning and teaching. *Readings in Methodology,* 52.
Dörnyei, Z., & Ottó, I. (1998). *Motivation in action: A process model of L2 motivation*.
Dörnyei, Z., & Taguchi, T. (2009). *Questionnaires in second language research: Construction, administration, and processing*: Routledge.
Dörnyei, Z., Csizér, K. (2005). The effects of intercultural contact and tourism on language attitudes and language learning motivation. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology, 24*(4), 327-357.
Draper, A. K. (2004). The principles and application of qualitative research. *Proceedings of the nutrition society*, *63*(4), 641-646.
Du, Y. (2018). Discussion on Flipped Classroom Teaching Mode in College English Teaching. *English Language Teaching, 11*(11), 92-97.
Duchatelet, D., & Donche, V. (2019). Fostering self-efficacy and self-regulation in higher education: a matter of autonomy support or academic motivation?. *Higher Education Research & Development*, *38*(4), 733-747.
Durham, L., & Kim, S. (2019). Training dilemmas and recommendations with volunteer instructors in small, faith-based adult ESL programs. *TESOL Journal, 10*(1), e00374.
Dziuban, C., Graham, C. R., Moskal, P. D., Norberg, A., & Sicilia, N. (2018). Blended learning: the new normal and emerging technologies. *International Journal of Educational Technology in Higher Education, 15*(1), 1-16.
Edhlund, B. M., & McDougall, A. G. (2016). *NVivo 11 essentials: your guide to the World's Most Powerful data analysis software*: Form & Kunskap AB.
Egi, T. (2010). Uptake, Modified Output, and Learner Perceptions of Recasts: Learner Responses as Language Awareness. *The Modern Language Journal, 94*, 1-21.
Ekmekci, E. (2017). The flipped writing classroom in Turkish EFL context: A comparative study on a new model. *Turkish Online Journal of Distance Education, 18*(2), 151-167.
Ellis, N. C. (2006). Language Acquisition as Rational Contingency Learning. *Applied Linguistics, 27*, 1-24.
Ellis, R. (2012). *Language Teaching Research and Language Pedagogy*.
Ellis, R., & He, X. (1999). The Roles of Modified Input and Output in the Incidental Acquisition of Word Meanings. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 21*, 285 - 301.
Emaliana, I. (2017). *Correlation between EFL Epistemic Beliefs and English Language Proficiency among Indonesian EFL Students*.
Enfield, J. Techtrends. (2013). Looking at the Impact of the Flipped Classroom Model of Instruction on Undergraduate Multimedia Students at CSUN. *57*, 14-27.
Engin, M. (2014). Extending the flipped classroom model: Developing second language writing skills through student-created digital videos. *Journal of the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning*, 12-26.
Fairus, B. L. (2003). *Problems in Learning English in Rural Secondary Schools: A Case Study.* (Master of Arts), University Kebangsaan Malaysia.

Faraj, A. K. A. (2015). Scaffolding EFL Students' Writing through the Writing Process Approach. *Journal of Education and Practice, 6*(13), 131-141.

Fareed, M., Ashraf, A., & Bilal, M. (2016). ESL Learners' Writing Skills: Problems, Factors and Suggestions. *Journal of Education and Social Sciences, 4*(2), 81-92.

Farhani, A. R., Binsasi, Y. N., & Handayani, A. (2020). English-speaking issues towards Indonesia senior high school students. In *Seminar Nasional Ilmu Pendidikan Dan Multi Disiplin* (Vol. 3).

Farooq, M. U. (2015). Creating a Communicative Language Teaching Environment for Improving Students' Communicative Competence at EFL/EAP University Level *International Education Studies, 8*(4), 179-191.

Farshi, S. S., & Baghbani, S. D. (2015). The effects of implicit and explicit focus on form on oral accuracy of EFL learners. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 5*(2), 292-297.

Fassinger, P. A. (2000). How classes influence students' participation in college classrooms. *The Journal of Classroom Interaction*, 38-47.

Fathi, J., & Derakhshan, A. (2019). Teacher self-efficacy and emotional regulation as predictors of teaching stress: An investigation of Iranian English language teachers. *Teaching English Language*, *13*(2), 117-143.

Fauzan, U. (2016). *Enhancing Speaking Ability of EFL Students through Debate and Peer Assessment*.

Ferdig, R. E. (2006). Assessing technologies for teaching and learning: understanding the importance of technological pedagogical content knowledge. *British Journal of Educational Technology, 37*(5), 749-760.

Ferrance, E. (2000). *Action research*: LAB, Northeast and Island Regional Education Laboratory at Brown University.

Fink, D. (2011). *The Succession Challenge: Warm Bodies or Leaders of Learning?*

Finn, C., Rajeswaran, A., Kakade, S. M., & Levine, S. (2019). *Online Meta-Learning.* Paper presented at the ICML.

Fitriati, S. W. (2016). Psychological Problems Faced By The Year Eleven Students Of Ma Nuhad Demak In Speaking English. *English Education Journal, 6*(1).

Florez, M. C. (1999). Improving Adult English Language Learners' Speaking Skills. ERIC Digest.

Flutter, J., & Ruddock, J. (2004). *Consulting pupils: What's in it for schools?* : Routledge.

Fornel, M. d., & Libbrecht, L. (1996). The interactional frame of videophonic exchange. *Communication-Technologie-Société, 4*(1), 47-72.

Francisco, V. T., Butterfoss, F. D., & Capwell, E. M. (2001). Key issues in evaluation: quantitative and qualitative methods and research design. *Health Promotion Practice, 2*(1), 20-23.

Franscy, F., Ramli, R. (2022). Problems Encountered by Indonesian EFL Learners in Mastering Speaking Skills. *Pioneer: Journal of Language and Literature, 14*(1), 1-14.

Friedman, V. (2007). Targeted testing: Where grammar meets proficiency and authentic content. Glossos 9. In.

Fulton, K. (2012). Upside down and inside out: Flip Your Classroom to Improve Student Learning. *Learning and Leading with Technology, 39*, 12-17.

Furst, E. (1994). Bloom's Taxonomy: Philosophical and Educational Issues. InAnderson L.

Gan, Z. (2012). Understanding L2 speaking problems: Implications for ESL curriculum development in a teacher training institution in Hong Kong. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education, 37*(1), 43-59.

Garbaj, M. M. (2018). Thinking through the non-native language: The role of private speech in mediating cognitive functioning in problem solving among proficient non-native speakers. *Language and Sociocultural Theory, 5*(2), 108-129.

Gardner, R. C., & MacIntyre, P. D. (1992). A student's contributions to second language learning. Part I: Cognitive variables. *Language Teaching, 25*(4), 211-220.

Garrison, D. R. (2006). Online collaboration principles. *Journal of Asynchronous Learning Network, 10*(1), 25-34.

Garrison, D. R. (2009). Communities of inquiry in online learning. In *Encyclopedia of distance learning, Second edition* (pp. 352-355): IGI Global.
Garrison, D. R., & Arbaugh, J. B. (2007). Researching the community of inquiry framework: Review, issues, and future directions. *Internet and Higher Education, 10*, 157-172.
Garrison, D. R., Anderson, T., Archer, W. (1999). Critical inquiry in a text-based environment: Computer conferencing in higher education. *The Internet and Higher Education, 2*(2-3), 87-105.
Garrison, D. R., Cleveland-Innes, M., Fung, T. S. (2010). Exploring causal relationships among teaching, cognitive and social presence: Student perceptions of the community of inquiry framework. *The Internet and Higher Education, 13*(1-2), 31-36.
Gass, S. M., & Mackey, A. (2006). Input, Interaction and Output: An Overview. *Aila Review, 19*, 3-17.
Gass, S. M., & Selinker, L. (2008). *Beyond The Domain Of Language*.
Geddes, A. (2016). Korean University Students' Attitudes and Motivation towards Studying English. *Universal Journal of Educational Research, 4*(4), 704-715.
Geng, S., Law, K. M., & Niu, B. (2019). Investigating self-directed learning and technology readiness in blending learning environment. *International Journal of Educational Technology in Higher Education*, *16*(1), 1-22.
Ghafar, Z. N., & Amin, M. Y. M. (2022). Difficulties in Speaking English among the EFL Students in Iraqi Kurdistan Region. *World*, *12*(6).
Gistituati, N., Refnaldi, R., & Syaifullah, S. (2019, January). Using visual aids to develop students' speaking skill. In *1st International Conference on Innovation in Education (ICoIE 2018)* (pp. 263-266). Atlantis Press.
Gojak, L. (2012). To flip or not to flip: That is not the question. National Council of Teachers of Mathematics.
Gómez Burgos, E., & Pérez Pérez, S. (2015). Chilean 12th graders' attitudes towards English as a foreign language. *Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal, 17*(2), 313-324.
Grabinger, R. S., & Dunlap. (1995). Rich environments for active learning: A definition. *ALT Journal, 3*(2), 5-34.
Gredler, M. E. (1992). *Learning and Instruction: Theory into Practice*.
Greene, J. C., Caracelli, V. J., Graham, W. F. (1989). Toward a conceptual framework for mixed-method evaluation designs. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 11*(3), 255-274.
Guba, E. G. (1990). *The paradigm dialog.* Paper presented at the Alternative Paradigms Conference, March, 1989, Indiana University, School of Education, San Francisco, CA, US.
Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. *Handbook of Qualitative Research, 2*(163-194), 105.
Gul, A. (2016). *Constructivism as a new notion in English language education in Turkey.* Kent State University,
Gullen, K., & Zimmerman, H. (2013). Saving Time with Technology. *Educational Leadership, 70*, 63-66.
Günes, Ç., & Sarigöz, I. H. (2021). Speaking Struggles of Young EFL Learners. *International Journal of Curriculum and Instruction*, *13*(2), 1267-1308.
Guo, P. J., Kim, J., & Rubin, R. (2014). *How video production affects student engagement: An empirical study of MOOC videos.* Paper presented at the Proceedings of the first ACM conference on Learning@ scale conference.
Gurney, B. (1989). Constructivism and Professional Development: A Stereoscopic View.
Güvenç, G. (2018). The flipped classroom approach in teaching writing: An action research. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research, 4*(3), 421-432.
Ha, M.-J. (2016). Wikispaces: A Social Constructivist Approach to Flipped Learning in Higher Education Contexts. *International Journal of Contents, 12*(4), 62-68.
Habermas, J. (1984). Habermas: Questions and counterquestions. *Praxis International, 4*(3), 229-249.

Hadley, O. A. (2001). *Language teaching in context*: Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle.
Haidara, Y. (2014). *Psychologycal Factor Affecting English Speaking.* Paper presented at the Proceeding International Conference on Educational Research and Evaluation (ICERE).
Halim, M. S. A. A., Hashim, H., & Yunus, M. M. (2020). Pupils' Motivation and Perceptions on ESL Lessons through Online Quiz-Games. *Journal of Education and E-Learning Research*, *7*(3), 229-234.
Hall, J. K. (1993). The role of oral practices in the accomplishment of our everyday lives: The sociocultural dimension of interaction with implications for the learning of another language1. *Applied Linguistics, 14*(2), 145-166.
Hammerly, H. (1991). *Fluency and Accuracy: Toward Balance in Language Teaching and Learning. Multilingual Matters 73*: ERIC.
Han, Y. J. (2015). Successfully flipping the ESL classroom for learner autonomy. *NYS TESOL Journal, 2*(1), 98-109.
Handoyo, F. (2015). Improving English Implicit Grammar Knowledge Using Semanticosyntactic Translation Practice. *TEFLIN Journal, 21*(2), 186-201.
Hanton, S., O'Brien, M., & Mellalieu, S. D. (2003). Individual differences, perceived control and competitive trait anxiety. *Journal of Sport Behaviour, 26*(1), 39-55.
Harasim, L. (2006). A history of e-learning: Shift happened. In *The international handbook of virtual learning environments* (pp. 59-94): Springer.
Harmer, J. (2001). The practice of English language teaching. 401-405. London/New York.
Harmer, J. (2007). *The practice of English language teaching*: Harlow: Pearson Longman.
Hartnett, M. (2010). Motivation to learn in online environments: An exploration of two tertiary education contexts. Unpublished doctoral thesis. Massey University, New Zealand.
Hashim, H. (2018). Application of technology in the digital era education. *International Journal of Research in Counseling and Education*, *2*(1), 1-5.
Hashimoto, Y. (2002). Motivation and willingness to communicate as predictors of reported L2 use: The Japanese ESL context. *Second Language Studies, 20*(2), 29-70.
Hasrina, N., Aziz, Z. A., & Fitriani, S. S. (2018). First language (L1) use in the EFL classroom: Perceptions of students and teachers. *English Education Journal*, *9*(3), 406-421.
Hathcoat, J. D., & Meixner, C. (2017). Pragmatism, factor analysis, and the conditional incompatibility thesis in mixed methods research. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research, 11*(4), 433-449.
Hawkins, M. W. (2018). Self-directed learning as related to learning strategies, self-regulation, and autonomy in an English language program: A local application with global implications. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, *8*(2), 445-469.
Heilenman, L. K., & Kaplan, I. M. (1985). Proficiency in practice: The foreign language curriculum. *Foreign language proficiency in the classroom and beyond*, 55-77.
Hemerka, H. (2009). *Low speaking performance in learners of English.* Masarykova univerzita, Pedagogická fakulta,
Henry, N., Culman, H., & Vanpatten, B. (2009). More on the Effects of Explicit Information in Instructed SLA. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 31*, 559 - 575.
Herder, S. (2018). *Understanding and Increasing the Role of Fluency in EFL*. Paper presented at the KOTESOL 2018.
Heyde, M. (1977). Self-esteem and oral production. *12*, 2008. Retreived June.
Hibatullah, O. F. (2019). The Challenges of international EFL students to learn English in a non-English speaking country. Journal of Foreign Language Teaching and Learning. *4*(2), 88-105.
Ho, J. (2020). Gamifying the flipped classroom: how to motivate Chinese ESL learners? *, Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching, 14*(5), 421-435.
Hodges, C., & Repman. (2011). Moving outside the LMS: Matching Web 2.0 tools to instructional purpose. EDUCAUSE Learning Initiative, *5*.
Hoge, A. (2014). *Effortless English: learn to Speak English Like A Native*: Effortless English.

Holton, J. A. (2007). The coding process and its challenges. *The SAGE Handbook of Grounded Theory, 3*, 265-289.

Hong, Z.-W., Huang, Y.-M., Hsu, M., Shen, W.-W. (2016). Authoring robot-assisted instructional materials for improving learning performance and motivation in EFL classrooms. *Journal of Educational Technology and Society, 19*(1), 337-349.

Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B., & Cope. (1986). Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal, 70*, 125-132.

Howe, K. R., & Moses, M. S. (1999). Chapter 2: Ethics in educational research. *Review of Research in Education, 24*(1), 21-59.

Howe, N., & Strauss, W. (2003). *Millennials go to college: Strategies for a new generation on campus: Recruiting and admissions, campus life, and the classroom*: American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers.

Hrastinski, S. (2019). What do we mean by blended learning?. *TechTrends*, *63*(5), 564-569.

Hu, N. (2022). Investigating Chinese EFL Learners' Writing Strategies and Emotional Aspects. *LEARN Journal: Language Education and Acquisition Research Network*, *15*(1), 440-468.

Hua, C., Qiufang, W., & Aijun, L. (2008). *A learner corpus-ESCCL.* Paper presented at the Proceedings of the Speech Prosody Conference.

Hung, H.-T. (2015). Flipping the classroom for English language learners to foster active learning. *Computer Assisted Language Learning, 28*(1), 81-96.

Hunter, A., & Brewer, J. (2003). Multimethod research in sociology. In 'Handbook of Mixed Methods in Social and Behavioral Research'.(Eds A. Tashakkori and C. Teddlie.) pp. 577–594. In: SAGE Publications: Thousand Oaks, CA, USA.

Hwang, G.-J., Chen, M.-R. A., Sung, H.-Y., & Lin, M.-H. (2019). Effects of integrating a concept mapping-based summarization strategy into flipped learning on students' reading performances and perceptions in Chinese courses. *British Journal of Educational Technology, 50*(5), 2703-2719. doi:10.1111/bjet.12708

Ikhsan, M., Massie, N. W. G., & Kuncoro, A. (2019). *A Comparison Between Merit-Based and Test-Based Higher Education Admission in Indonesia*. Retrieved from Indonesia:

Ilma, Z., & Pratama, R. K. (2015). *Transformation in Indonesian Language Curriculum: Pros and Cons between KTSP 2006 and Curriculum 2013 in Indonesia*. Paper presented at the International Conference on Trends in Economics, Humanities and Management (ICTEHM'15), Singapore.

Indonesia, B. N. S. R. (2013). *Peraturan Badan Nasional Sertifikasi Profesi Nomor: 09/BNSP*. Retrieved from

Ingram, D. E., & Sasaki, M. (2003). *The Importance of Communication in English in a Globalised World and in the Field of Medicine*.

Inman, J., & Myers, S. (2018). Now Streaming: Strategies That Improve Video Lectures. IDEA Paper# 68. IDEA Center Inc.

Inoue, Y. (2009). *Cases on Online and Blended Learning Technologies in Higher Education: Concepts and Practices: Concepts and Practices*: IGI Global.

Islam, W., Ahmad, S., & Islam, M. D. (2022). Investigating the problems faced by the university EFL learners in speaking English language. *Islam, W., Ahmad, S., & Islam, MD (2022). Investigating the Problems Faced by the University EFL Learners in Speaking English Language. International Journal of TESOL & Education*, *2*(2), 47-65.

Ismaili, M. (2015). Teaching English in a Multilingual Setting. *Procedia-Social and Behavorial Sciences, 199*, 189-195.

Ivankova, N. V., & Johnson, S. L. (2020). Designing integrated mixed methods action research studies. In *The Routledge Handbook for Advancing Integration in Mixed Methods Research* (pp. 158-173): Routledge.

Ivankova, N. V., Creswell, J. W., & Stick, S. L. (2006). Using mixed-methods sequential explanatory design: From theory to practice. *Field Methods, 18*(1), 3-20.

Ivankova, N., & Wingo, N. (2018). Applying mixed methods in action research: Methodological potentials and advantages. *American Behavorial Scientist, 62*(7), 978-997.
Iyer, S. (2019). Flipped English as a Second Language (ESL) Classroom Approach to Scaffold the Slow Learners. *Language in India, 19*(2), 114-119.
Jamulia, J. (2018). Identifying Students Learning Style Preferences At Iain Ternate. *International Journal of Education, 10*(2), 121-129.
Jiang, M., & Koo, K. (2020). Emotional presence in building an online learning community among non-traditional graduate students. *Online Learning, 24*(4), 93-111.
Jiang, Y., & Dewaele, J. M. (2019). How unique is the foreign language classroom enjoyment and anxiety of Chinese EFL learners?. *System*, *82*, 13-25.
Johnson, K. E., & Golombek, P. R. (2002). *Teachers' narrative inquiry as professional development*: Cambridge University Press.
Johnson, M. W., Christensen, C. M., & Kagermann, H.. (2008). Reinventing your business model. *Harvard Business Review, 86*(12), 57-68.
Johnson, R. B., & Onwuegbuzie, A.. (2004). Mixed methods research: A research paradigm whose time has come. *Educational Researcher*, *33*(7), 14-26.
Johnson, R. B., Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Turner, L. A. (2007). Toward a definition of mixed methods research. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, *1*(2), 112-133.
Jonassen, D. H. (1994). Thinking technology: Toward a constructivist design model. *Educational Technology, 34*(4), 34-37.
Jones, G. W., & Pratomo, D. (2016). Education in Indonesia: trends, differentials, and implications for development. In *Contemporary Demographic Transformations in China, India and Indonesia* (pp. 195-214): Springer.
Jossberger, H., Brand-Gruwel, S., Boshuizen, H., & Van de Wiel, M. (2010). The challenge of self-directed and self-regulated learning in vocational education: A theoretical analysis and synthesis of requirements. *Journal of vocational education and training*, *62*(4), 415-440.
Juhana, J. (2012). Psychological Factors That Hinder Students from Speaking in English Class (A Case Study in a Senior High School in South Tangerang, Banten, Indonesia). *Journal of Education and Practice*, *3*, 100-110.
Kaharuddin, A. (2018). The communicative grammar translation method: a practical method to teach communication skills of English. *ETERNAL (English, Teaching, Learning, and Research Journal)*, *4*(2), 232-254.
Kang, D. (2017). EFL Learner and Teacher Beliefs about Grammar Learning in Korea. *English Teaching, 72*(2).
Kang, S. H., Gollan, T. H., Pashler, H. (2013). Don't just repeat after me: Retrieval practice is better than imitation for foreign vocabulary learning. *Psychonomic Bulletin and Review*, *20*(6), 1259-1265.
Kang, S. H., Pashler, H. (2014). Is the benefit of retrieval practice modulated by motivation? *Journal of Applied Research in Memory and Cognition,3*(3), 183-188.
Karpicke, J. D., & Roediger III, H. L. (2008). The critical importance of retrieval for learning. *Science*, *319*(5865), 966-968.
Karpicke, J. D., Smith, M. A. (2012). Separate mnemonic effects of retrieval practice and elaborative encoding. *Journal of Memory and Language*, *67*(1), 17-29.
Kellogg, S. (2013). *Developing modules for an inverted classroom project in cost estimating.* Paper presented at the 2013 IEEE Frontiers in Education Conference (FIE).
Kemmis, S., McTaggart, R., & Nixon, R. (2014). Introducing critical participatory action research. *The Action Research Planner*, 1-31.
Khajavy, G. H., Ghonsooly, B., Hosseini Fatemi, A., & Choi, C. W. (2016). Willingness to Communicate in English: A Microsystem Model in the Iranian EFL Classroom Context. *TESOL Quarterly, 50*(1), 154-180. doi:10.1002/tesq.204
Khan, S. (2012). *The one world schoolhouse: education reimagined*.

Kılıçkaya, F.(2015). Computer-based grammar instruction in an EFL context: Improving the effectiveness of teaching adverbial clauses. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, *28*(4), 325-340.
Kim, M. K., Kim, S. M., Khera, O., Getman, J. (2014). The experience of three flipped classrooms in an urban university: An exploration of design principles. *The Internet and Higher Education*, *22*, 37-50.
King, L. (1993). High and Low Achievers' Perceptions and Cooperative Learning in Two Small Groups. *The Elementary School Journal*, *93*, 399 - 416.
Kiraly, D. C. (2015). Occasioning translator competence: Moving beyond social constructivism toward a postmodern alternative to instructionism. *Translation and Interpreting Studies: The Journal of the American Translation and Interpreting Studies Association*, *10*(1), 8-32.
Kluger, A. N., & Denisi, A. S. (1996). The effects of feedback interventions on performance: A historical review, a meta-analysis, and a preliminary feedback intervention theory. *Psychological Bulletin*, *119*, 254-284.
Kock, N. F., McQueen, R. J., John, L. S. (1997). Can action research be made more rigorous in a positivist sense? The contribution of an iterative approach. *Journal of Systems and Information Technology*.
Kohn, K. (2018). MY English: A social constructivist perspective on ELF. *Journal of English as a Lingua Franca*, *7*(1), 1-24.
Koizumi, R. (2012). Vocabulary and speaking. *The encyclopedia of applied linguistics*, 1-7.
Krashen, S. D. (1985). *The input hypothesis: Issues and implications*: Addison-Wesley Longman Ltd.
Krashen, S. D. (1992). *Fundamentals of language education*: Laredo Publishing Company.
Krashen, S. J. S. (1998). Comprehensible output? *, 26*(2), 175-182.
Krasnova, T., Demeshko, M. (2015). Tutor-mediated Support in Blended Learning. *Procedia-Social Behavorial Sciences*, *166*, 404-408.
Krathwohl, D. R. (2002). A revision of Bloom's taxonomy: An overview. *Theory into Practice*, *41*(4), 212-218.
Krauss, S. E. (2005). Research paradigms and meaning making: A primer. *The Qualitative Report*, *10*(4), 758-770.
Kreitzer, A., & Madaus, G. (1994). Empirical investigations of the hierarchical structure of the taxonomy. *Teachers College Record*, *95*(6), 64-81.
L Berg, B. (2001). Qualitative research methods for the social sciences.
Lage, M. J., Platt, G. J., & Treglia, M. (2000). Inverting the Classroom: A Gateway to Creating an Inclusive Learning Environment. *The Journal of Economic Education*, *31*, 30 - 43.
Lam, J. (2015). *Collaborative learning using social media tools in a blended learning course.* Paper presented at the International conference on hybrid learning and continuing education.
Lambert, C. (2012). Twilight of the lecture. *Harvard Magazine, 114*(4), 23-27.
Lane, L. M. (2008). Toolbox or trap? Course management systems and pedagogy. *Educause Quarterly*, *31*(2), 4.
Latham, D. (2005). Speaking, listening and learning: a rationale for the Speaking and Listening Profile. *English in Education*, *39*(1), 60-74.
Lathifah, S. (2015). Affective Issues in Speaking Faced by English and Accounting Department Students. *A thesis: Universitas Negeri Semarang*.
Lauermann, F. (2014). Teacher responsibility from the teacher's perspective. *International Journal of Educational Research*, *65*, 75-89.
Laufer, B. (1998). The development of passive and active vocabulary in a second language: Same or different?. *Applied linguistics*, *19*(2), 255-271.
Lee, G., & Wallace, A. (2018). Flipped learning in the English as a foreign language classroom: Outcomes and perceptions. *TESOL Quarterly*, *52*(1), 62-84.
Lee, S. M. (2022). A systematic review of context-aware technology use in foreign language learning. *Computer assisted language learning*, *35*(3), 294-318.

Lee, Y. H., & Kim, K.-J. (2018). Enhancement of student perceptions of learner-centeredness and community of inquiry in flipped classrooms. *BMC Medical Education*, *18*(1), 1-6.
Levy, M. (1997). *Computer-Assisted Language Learning: Context and Conceptualization*.
Li, S., & Suwanthep, J. (2017). Integration of flipped classroom model for EFL speaking. *International Journal of Learning and Teaching, 3*(2), 118-123.
Lin, C.-J., Hwang, G.-J. (2018). A learning analytics approach to investigating factors affecting EFL students' oral performance in a flipped classroom. *Journal of Educational Technology and Society*, *21*(2), 205-219.
Lin, Y. J., & Wang, H. C. (2021). Using virtual reality to facilitate learners' creative self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation in an EFL classroom. *Education and Information Technologies*, *26*(4), 4487-4505.
Lincoln, Y. S., Lynham, S. A., & Guba, E. G. (2011). Paradigmatic controversies, contradictions, and emerging confluences, revisited. *The Sage Handbook of Educational Research*, *4*(2), 97-128.
Ling, Z. (2015). Explicit Grammar and Implicit Grammar Teaching for English Major Students in University. *Sino-US English Teaching, 12*(8), 556-560.
Littlewood, W., William, L., & Swan, M. (1981). *Communicative language teaching: An introduction*: Cambridge university press.
Liu, M., & Jackson, J. (2008). An exploration of Chinese EFL learners' unwillingness to communicate and foreign language anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal*, *92*(1), 71-86.
Liu, T., & Zainuddin, S. (2021). Extrinsic and intrinsic motivation towards the online component of blended learning in accounting education: evidence from a Malaysian public university. *Quality Assurance in Education*.
Lockwood, R. B. (2014). *Flip it!: Strategies for the ESL classroom*: University of Michigan Press.
Loewen, S., & Sato, M. (2018). Interaction and instructed second language acquisition. *Language teaching*, *51*(3), 285-329.
Long, M. H., & Porter, P. A. (1985). Group Work, Interlanguage Talk, and Second Language Acquisition. *TESOL Quarterly*, *19*, 207-228.
Long, T., Logan, J., & Waugh, M. (2016). Students' perceptions of the value of using videos as a pre-class learning experience in the flipped classroom. *Techtrends*, *60*(3), 245-252.
Lothian, M. J. (2010). How can I improve my practice to enhance the teaching of literacy?
Luebke, S., & Lorié, J. (2013). Use of Bloom's taxonomy in developing reading comprehension specifications. *Journal of Applied Testing Technology*, *1*(1), 1-27.
MacIntyre, P. D. (1999). Language anxiety: A review of the research for language teachers. *Affect in foreign language second language learning: A practical guide to creating a low-anxiety classroom atmosphere*, *24*, 41.
MacIntyre, P. D., Dörnyei, Z., Clément, R., & Noels, K. A. (1998). Conceptualizing Willingness to Communicate in a L2: A Situational Model of L2 Confidence and Affiliation. *The Modern Language Journal*, *82*, 545-562.
Mackey, A. (1999). Input, Interaction, And Second Language Development. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *21*, 557 - 587.
Mackey, A., & Abbuhl, R. (2005). *Input and interaction*.
Mackey, A., & Gass, S. M. (2011). *Research methods in second language acquisition : a practical guide*.
Mackey, A., & Gass, S. M. (2015). *Second language research: Methodology and design*: Routledge.
Mackey, A., Abbuhl, R. J. M., context in adult second language acquisition: Methods, t., & practice. (2005). Input and interaction. 207-233.
Mackey, P. J. (1978). *Assessment Of Instruction In The Dale Carnegie Course*: Teachers College, Columbia University.
MacLean, L. M., Meyer, M., & Estable, A. (2004). Improving accuracy of transcripts in qualitative research. *Qualitative Health Research*, *14*(1), 113-123.
Mahmudah, D. R. A. (2014). The Correlation Between Students' Writing Ability And Their Vocabulary Mastery. *Exposure*, *3*(2), 192-206.

Mahripah, S. (2014). EFL Learners' Attitudes towards the Improvement of Their English Speaking Performance. *Litera*, *12*.
Mahu, D.-P. (2012). Why Is Learning English So Beneficial Nowadays. *International Journal of Communication and Research, 2*, 374.
Malik, S., Qin, H., & Oteir, I. (2021). Perceived Psychological, Linguistic and Socio-Cultural Obstacles: An Investigation of English Communication Apprehension in EFL Learners. *International Journal of Instruction*, *14*(4), 733-752.
Malterud, K. (2001). Qualitative research: standards, challenges, and guidelines. *The Lancet*, *358*(9280), 483-488.
Mandasari, B., & Aminatun, D. (2020). IMPROVING STUDENTS'SPEAKING PERFORMANCE THROUGH VLOG. *English Education: Journal of English Teaching and Research*, *5*(2), 136-142.
Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. B. (2014). *Designing qualitative research*: Sage publications.
Marshall, H. (2017). *SOFLA - The Synchronous Online Flipped Learning Approach*.
Marshall, H. W., & Kostka, I. (2020). *Fostering Teaching Presence through the Synchronous Online Flipped Learning Approach*.
Marzuki, A. G. (2017). Developing speaking skill through oral report in an EFL class in Indonesia. *Al-Talim Journal, 24*(3), 243-254.
Matric, M. (2018). Self-regulatory systems: Self-regulation and learning. *Journal of process management and new technologies*, *6*(4).
Matsuoka, S., & Ikhsan, H. K. A. (2013). *Applying Drills to Improve Language Proficiency*.
Mattarima, K., & Hamdan, A. R. (2011). The teaching constraints of English as a foreign language in Indonesia: the context of school-based curriculum. *Sosiohumanika, 4*(2).
Mayring, P. (2004). Qualitative content analysis. *A companion to qualitative research*, *1*(2), 159-176.
Mazur, E. J. S. (2009). Farewell, Lecture? *, 323*, 50 - 51.
McCrudden, M. T., Marchand, G., & Schutz, P (2019). Mixed methods in educational psychology inquiry. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 57, pp. 1-8.
McDonough, K. (2005). Identifying the Impact of Negative Feedback and Learners' Responses on ESL Question Development. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *27*, 79 - 103.
McGee, P., & Reis, A. (2012). Blended Course Design: A Synthesis of Best Practices. *Journal of Asynchronous Learning Network*, *16*, 7-22.
McKay, S., & Schaetzel, K. (2008). Facilitating Adult Learner Interactions to Build Listening and Speaking Skills. CAELA Network Brief. Center for Adult English Language Acquisition.
McKernan, J. (1991). Action inquiry: Studied enactment. *Forms of Curriculum Inquiry*, 309-326.
McKinley, J. (2015). Critical argument and writer identity: Social constructivism as a theoretical framework for EFL academic writing. *Critical Inquiry in Language Studies*, *12*(3), 184-207.
McNeil, L. (2012). Using talk to scaffold referential questions for English language learners. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *28*(3), 396-404.
Melrose, M. J. (2001). Maximizing the rigor of action research: why would you want to? How could you?. *Field Methods, 13*(2), 160-180.
Merriam, S. B. (1998). *Qualitative Research and Case Study Applications in Education. Revised and Expanded from" Case Study Research in Education."*: ERIC.
Mertens, D. M. (2019). *Research and evaluation in education and psychology: Integrating diversity with quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods*: Sage publications.
Minghe, G., & Yuan, W. (2013). Affective factors in oral English teaching and learning. *Higher Education of Social Sciences*, *5*(3), 57-61.
Minor, M., & Swanson, A. (2014). Instructor social presence within the community of inquiry framework and its impact on classroom community and the learning environment.
Morehead, P., LaBeau, B. (2005). Successful Curriculum Mapping: Fostering Smooth Technology Integration. *Learning and Leading with Technology*, *32*, 12-17.

Morgan, D. L. (2007). Paradigms lost and pragmatism regained: Methodological implications of combining qualitative and quantitative methods. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, *1*(1), 48-76.

Morris, T. H. (2019). Self-directed learning: A fundamental competence in a rapidly changing world. *International Review of Education*, *65*(4), 633-653.

Morse, J. M. (1991). Approaches to qualitative-quantitative methodological triangulation. *Nursing Research*, *40*(2), 120-123.

Moskovsky, C., & Ratcheva, S. (2014). L2 Fossilization: A competence or a performance phenomenon. *The Open Communication Journal*, *8*(1).

Müller, N. M., & Seufert, T. (2018). Effects of self-regulation prompts in hypermedia learning on learning performance and self-efficacy. *Learning and instruction*, *58*, 1-11.

Muralidharan, K., Singh, A., Ganimian, A. J. (2019). Disrupting Education? Experimental Evidence on Technology-Aided Instruction in India. ERN Africa and South Asia.

Musdi, E., Agustyani, A. R. D., & Tasman, F. (2019). *Students' perception toward flipped classroom learning.* Paper presented at the Journal of Physics: Conference Series.

Mustafa, E. E. (2015). *Psychological Factors Affecting Sudanese EFL Learners' Oral Performance.* Sudan University of Science and Technology,

Mutch, C. (2005). Doing educational research: A practitioner's guide to getting started. New Zealand Council for Educational Research.

Nagy, W. E., & Herman, P. A. (2014). Breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge: Implications for acquisition and instruction. In *The nature of vocabulary acquisition* (pp. 19-35). Psychology Press.

Namaziandost, E., & Nasri, M. (2019). The impact of social media on EFL learners' speaking skill: a survey study involving EFL teachers and students. *Journal of Applied Linguistics and Language Research*, *6*(3), 199-215.

Namaziandost, E., Abedi, P., & Nasri, M. (2019). The role of gender in the accuracy and fluency of Iranian upper-intermediate EFL learners' L2 oral productions. *Journal of Applied Linguistics and Language Research, 6*(3), 110-123.

Nasir, C., Yusuf, Y. Q., & Wardana, A. (2019). A qualitative study of teacher talk in an EFL classroom interaction in Aceh Tengah, Indonesia. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *8*(3), 525-535.

Nation, I. S. (2008). *Teaching ESL/EFL reading and writing*: Routledge.

Nation, I. S., & Nation, I. (2001). *Learning vocabulary in another language* (Vol. 10): Cambridge university press Cambridge.

Nation, P. (1994). *New Ways in Teaching Vocabulary. New Ways in TESOL Series: Innovative Classroom Techniques*. TESOL, 1600 Cameron Street, Suite 300, Alexandria, VA 22314.

Nation, P. J. S. (1989). Improving speaking fluency. *17*(3), 377-384.

Navarro, E. M. M. (2015). *Creación de lecciones a partir de vídeos con EdPuzzle.* Paper presented at the Nuevos enfoques en la aplicación práctica de la innovación docente.

Nazari, N. (2013). The Impact of Implicit Tasks on Improving the Learners' Writing in Terms of Autonomy and Grammatical Accuracy. *International Journal of Instruction*, *7*, 121-134.

Nduwimana, A. (2019). Pure sciences students' attitudes towards learning English: the case of University of Burundi. *International Journal of Research in English and Education*, *4*(2), 1-13.

Nejati, E., Jahangiri, A., & Salehi, M. R. (2018). The Effect of Using Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) on Iranian EFL Learners' Vocabulary Learning: An Experimental Study. *Cypriot Journal of Educational Sciences*, *13*(2), 351-362.

Neumeier, P. J. R. (2005). A closer look at blended learning—parameters for designing a blended learning environment for language teaching and learning. *17*(2), 163-178.

Newton, J. M., & Nation, I. (2020). *Teaching ESL/EFL listening and speaking*: Routledge.

Newton, P., & Burgess, D. (2016). Exploring types of educational action research: Implications for research validity. In *The Best Available Evidence* (pp. 33-46): Brill.

Nguyen, V., & Stracke, E. (2021). Learning experiences in and outside class by successful Vietnamese tertiary students studying English as a foreign language. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, *15*(4), 321-333.

Nicol, D. J., & Macfarlane-Dick, D. (2006). Formative assessment and self-regulated learning: A model and seven principles of good feedback practice. *Studies in Higher Education*, *31*(2), 199-218.

Nisa, F. A. (2014). The Effect of Using Strip Story toward Motivation in Speaking English of the Second Grade Students at Junior High School 20 Pekanbaru. Universitas Islam Negeri Sultan Syarif Kasim Riau.

Nombre, A. Y., Segura Alonso, R., & de Junio, C. (2012). The importance of teaching listening and speaking skills. Unpublished Master's Thesis. Spain: Faculdad de Educacion UCM.

Norris, J. M., & Ortega, L. (2000). Effectiveness of L2 Instruction: A Research Synthesis and Quantitative Meta-analysis. *Language Learning*, *50*, 417-528.

Nouri, J. (2016). The flipped classroom: for active, effective and increased learning–especially for low achievers. *International Journal of Educational Technology in Higher Education*, *13*(1), 1-10.

Nunan, D. (1991). Communicative tasks and the language curriculum. *TESOL Quarterly*, *25*(2), 279-295.

Nunan, D., & Bailey, K. (2009). *Exploring second language classroom research a comprehensive guide*: Heinle.

Nunan, D., David, N., & Swan, M. (1992). *Research methods in language learning*: Cambridge university press.

Obari, H., & Lambacher, S. (2015). *Successful EFL teaching using mobile technologies in a flipped classroom.* Paper presented at the Critical CALL–Proceedings of the 2015 EUROCALL Conference, Padova, Italy.

Oga-Baldwin, W. Q. (2019). Acting, thinking, feeling, making, collaborating: The engagement process in foreign language learning. *System*, *86*, 102128.

Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Leech, N. L. (2005). On becoming a pragmatic researcher: The importance of combining quantitative and qualitative research methodologies. *International Journal of Social Research and Methodology*, *8*(5), 375-387.

Owens, D. T., & Strayer, J. F. (2007). The effects of the classroom flip on the learning environment: a comparison of learning activity in a traditional classroom and a flip classroom that used an intelligent tutoring system.

Oxford, R. (1999). Second language learning: Individual differences. Concise Encyclopaedia of Educational Linguistics, 552-560.

Oxford, R. L. (1997). Cooperative learning, collaborative learning, and interaction: Three communicative strands in the language classroom. *The modern language journal*, *81*(4), 443-456.

Oxford, R. L. (2003). Toward a more systematic model of L2 learner autonomy. In *Learner autonomy across cultures* (pp. 75-91): Springer.

Oxford, R., & Shearin, J. (1994). Language learning motivation: Expanding the theoretical framework. *The Modern Language Journal*, *78*(1), 12-28.

Öztürk, M., & Çakıroğlu, Ü. (2021). Flipped learning design in EFL classrooms: implementing self-regulated learning strategies to develop language skills. *Smart Learning Environments*, *8*(1), 1-20.

Palinussa, A. L., Laamena, C., & Mananggel, M. B. J. D. (2021). Development of Learning Models Flipped Classroom to Increase the Mathematical Higher Order Thinking Skills (HOTS) of Students In High School. *63*(03).

Pallant, J. (2020). *SPSS survival manual: A step by step guide to data analysis using IBM SPSS*. McGraw-hill education (UK).

Panggabean, H. (2015). Problematic Approach to English Learning and Teaching: A Case in Indonesia. *English Language Teaching, 8*(3), 35-45.

Panicker, L., & Sheedy, A. (2018). Flipped fun: A reflection on five flipped classrooms with diverse student cohorts in STEM disciplines. *Madridge J Case Rep Stud*, *2*(2), 74-79.
Pankin, J., Roberts, J., & Savio, M. (2012). Blended learning at MIT. 1-3. Blended Learning White Paper presented by the MIT Training Alignment Team.
Pansiri, J. J. T., Planning, H., & Development. (2005). Pragmatism: A methodological approach to researching strategic alliances in tourism. *2*(3), 191-206.
Pappamihiel, N. E. (2002). English as a second language students and English language anxiety: Issues in the mainstream classroom. *Research in the Teaching of English*, 327-355.
Parker, J., Maor, D., & Herrington, J. (2013). Authentic online learning: Aligning learner needs, pedagogy and technology. Issues in Educational Research, *23*(2), 227-241.
Passey, D. (2019). Technology-enhanced learning: Rethinking the term, the concept and its theoretical background. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, *50*(3), 972-986.
Patton, M. (1980). Qualitative evaluation methods-Beverly Hills. In: CA: Sage.
Patton, M. (2002). Qualitative research and evaluation methods. 3d ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
Penny, U. (1996). A course in language teaching: Practice and theory. Cambridge: Cambridge University.
Permendikbud. (2013). Jurnal Lampiran Peraturan Menteri Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan Republik Indonesia Nomor 65 Tahun 2013 Tentang Standar Proses Pendidikan Dasar dan Menengah.
Perry, J. C. (2009). A combined social action, mixed methods approach to vocational guidance efficacy research. *International Journal for Educational and Vocational Guidance, 9*(2), 111-123.
Petersen, J. B., Townsend, S. D., & Onak, N. (2020). Utilizing Flipgrid Application on Student Smartphones in a Small-Scale ESL Study. *English Language Teaching*, *13*(5), 164-176.
Piaget, J. (1950). Une expérience sur la psychologie du hasard chez l'enfant: le tirage au sort des couples. Acta Psychologica.
Piaget, J. (1973). To understand is to invent: The future of education.
Piaget, J. (1977). *The development of thought: Equilibration of cognitive structures.(Trans A. Rosin)*: Viking.
Piaget, J., & Cook, M. T. (1952). The origins of intelligence in children.
Piaget, J., & Inhelder, B. (2008). *The psychology of the child*: Basic books.
Pink, D. (2010). Think Tank: Flip-thinking-the new buzzword sweeping the US. The Telegraph, *17*.
Poedjiastutie, D., Akhyar, F., Hidayati, D., & Nurul Gasmi, F. (2018). Does curriculum help students to develop their English competence? A Case in Indonesia. *Arab World English Journal (AWEJ) Volume*, *9*.
Poláková, P., & Klímová, B. (2019). Mobile technology and Generation Z in the English language classroom—A preliminary study. *Education Sciences*, *9*(3), 203.
Polit, D. F., & Beck, C. T. (2004). *Nursing research: Principles and methods*: Lippincott Williams & Wilkins.
Preece, A. S., & Bularafa, M. W. Community of Inquiry'Method and ESL Learners' Speaking skill.
Pring, R. (2000). The 'false dualism' of educational research. *Journal of Philosophy and Education, 34*(2), 247-260.
Pushpalatha, U. (2019). Top-Down Approach in Enhancing Listening. *Language in India, 19*(1).
Putri, P. L. (2014). A Study on Students' Anxiety and Its Correlation with the Speaking Performance of XI Grade Students at SMAN 1 KRIAN. *6*(5). Jurnal Ilmiah Mahasiswa IPB.
Quyen, T., & Loi, N. (2018). Flipped model for improving students' English speaking performance. Can Tho University Journal of Science, 54 (2)(January), 90. In.
Rachmawati, V., Setyaningrum, W., & Retnawati, H. (2019). *Flipped classroom in mathematics instruction: Teachers' perception.* Paper presented at the Journal of Physics: Conference Series.
Rainey, I. (2000). Action research and the English as a foreign language practitioner: Time to take stock. *Educational Action Research, 8*(1), 65-91.

Rajadell, M., & Garriga-Garzón, F. (2017). Educational videos: After the why, the how. *Intangible Capital, 13*, 902-922.
Rao, P. S. (2019). The importance of speaking skills in English classrooms. *Alford Council of International English & Literature Journal (ACIELJ)*, *2*(2), 6-18.
Rao, P. S. (2019). The importance of speaking skills in English classrooms. *Alford Council of International English & Literature Journal (ACIELJ)*, *2*(2), 6-18.
Rao, P. S. (2019). The role of English as a global language. *Research Journal of English*, *4*(1), 65-79.
Rapanta, C., Botturi, L., Goodyear, P., Guàrdia, L., Koole, M. (2021). Balancing technology, pedagogy and the new normal: Post-pandemic challenges for higher education. *Postdigital Science and Education, 3*(3), 715-742.
Rasheed, R. A., Kamsin, A., & Abdullah, N. A. (2020). Challenges in the online component of blended learning: A systematic review. *Computers & Education*, *144*, 103701.
Rast, R. (2008). *Foreign language input: Initial processing*: Multilingual Matters.
Rast, R. (2017). *Foreign language learning and teaching: From first exposure to first productions.* Université Grenoble Alpes,
Riadil, I. G. (2020). A Study of students' perception: identifying EFL learners' problems in speaking skill. *International Journal of Education, Language, and Religion*, *2*(1), 31-38.
Richard, J.C., Rodgers T.S. (2001): Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching. In: United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.
Richards, J. C. (2008). *Teaching listening and speaking* (Vol. 35, No. 4). Cambridge: Cambridge university press.
Richards, J.C. (2005). *Communicative language teaching today*: SEAMEO Regional Language Centre Singapore.
Richards, J.C. (2008). *Teaching listening and speaking* (Vol. 35): Cambridge university press Cambridge.
Richards, J.C., & Bohlke, D. (2011). *Creating effective language lessons*: Cambridge University Press Cambridge, UK.
Riza, Z., & Setyarini, S. (2020). *EFL flipped-classroom: Promoting HOTS in speaking skill.* Paper presented at the Twelfth Conference on Applied Linguistics (CONAPLIN 2019).
Robinson, G. L. (1991). Effective feedback strategies in CALL: Learning theory and empirical research. *Computer Assisted Language Learning and Testing: Research Issues and Practice*, 155-167.
Roever, C., & Kasper, G. (2018). Speaking in turns and sequences: Interactional competence as a target construct in testing speaking. *Language Testing*, *35*(3), 331-355.
Rokhyati, U. (2013). Teaching English at higher education in Indonesia: Searching for usefulness. Proceeding of ISELT FBS Universitas Negeri Padang, s*1*, 235-240.
Rönnerman, K. (2003). Action research: educational tools and the improvement of practice. *Educational Action Research, 11*(1), 9-22.
SABURI, J. (2019). Selective Mutism in the Language Classroom. *桜花学園大学学芸学部研究紀要= JSLA (Journal of the School of Liberal Arts)*, (10), 69-76.
Sahiruddin, S. (2013). *The implementation of the 2013 Curriculum and the issues of English language teaching and learning in Indonesia.* Paper presented at the Proceeding the 3 rd Asian Conference on language learning.
Salaberry, M. R.. (2001). The Use of Technology for Second Language Learning and Teaching: A Retrospective. *The Modern Language Journal, 85*, 39-56.
Saldaña, J. (2021). The coding manual for qualitative researchers. 1-440.
Samana, W. (2013). Teacher's and Students' Scaffolding in an EFL Classroom. *Academic Journal of Interdisciplinary Studies, 2*(8), 338-338.
Sams, A. (2011). The Flipped Class: Shedding light on the confusion, critique, and hype. *The Daily Rift, 1*.
Santikarn, B., & Wichadee, S. (2018). Flipping the Classroom for English Language Learners: A

Study of Learning Performance and Perceptions. *International Journal of Emerging Technologies in Learning*, *13*(9).
Şar, A. H., Avcu, R., Işıklar, A. (2010). Analyzing undergraduate students' self confidence levels in terms of some variables. *Procedia-Social and Behavorial Sciences, 5*, 1205-1209.
Sari, D. D. (2021). The correlation between students' vocabulary achievement and fluency in speaking english. *English Teaching and Linguistics Journal (ETLiJ)*, *2*(1), 107-111.
Sari, F. M. (2018). EFL Students'Dilemma: Factors Determining Their Talk in the Language Learning Process.
Savenye, W. C., & Robinson, R. S. (2005). Using qualitative research methods in higher education. *Journal of computing in Higher education*, *16*, 65-95.
Savignon, S. J.. (2007). Beyond communicative language teaching: What's ahead?. Journal of Pragmatics, *39*(1), 207-220.
Schell, J., & Martin, R. (2020). The Powerful Role of Testing in Student-Centered Learning and Teaching in Higher Education. In *The Routledge International Handbook of Student-Centered Learning and Teaching in Higher Education* (pp. 201-217): Routledge.
Schunk, D. H. (1996). Goal and self-evaluative influences during children's cognitive skill learning. *American Educational Research Journal, 33*(2), 359-382.
Schunk, D. H., & DiBenedetto, M. K. (2020). Motivation and social cognitive theory. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *60*, 101832.
Schunk, D., & Zimmerman, B. (1998). *Self-regulated learning: from teaching to self-reflective practice*.
Schwandt, T. A., Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G.. (2007). Judging interpretations: But is it rigorous? Trustworthiness and authenticity in naturalistic evaluation. *New Directions for Evaluation, 2007*(114), 11-25.
Scott, D., & Usher, R. (2010). Researching education: Data, methods and theory in educational enquiry Bloomsbury Publishing.
Scott, V. M., & Randall, S. A. (1992). Can students apply grammar rules after reading textbook explanations?. *Foreign Language Annals, 25*(4), 357-363.
Seaboyer, J. (2013). *The role of technology-assisted assessment in fostering critical reading in undergraduate literary studies.* Paper presented at the International Computer Assisted Assessment Conference, Southampton, UK.
Sekhar, G. R., & Chakravorty, S. (2017). TESL/TEFL: Teaching English as a second or foreign language. *ACADEMICIA: An International Multidisciplinary Research Journal, 7*(4), 154-163.
Selinker, L., & Gass, S. M. J. L. E. A. (2008). Second language acquisition.
Setiawan, D. (2016). English code-switching in Indonesian language. *Universal Journal of Educational Research, 4*(7), 1545-1552.
Setiyadi, A. B., & Sukirlan, M. (2016). Language Attitude and Motivation of the Islamic School Students: How Madrasa Students of the Academic Year 2013-2014 in Indonesia Perceive English, English Teaching and Learning and Native Speakers of English. *Social Sciences & Humanities, 24*(1), 331-350.
Setyowati, L., & Sukmawan, S. (2016). EFL Indonesian Students' Attitude toward Writing in English. *Arab World English Journal (AWEJ), 7*(4), 365-378.
Shadiev, R., & Yang, M. (2020). Review of studies on technology-enhanced language learning and teaching. *Sustainability*, *12*(2), 524.
Shand, K., & Farrelly, S. G. J. J. o. E. O. (2018). The Art of Blending: Benefits and Challenges of a Blended Course for Preservice Teachers. *15*(1), n1.
Shea, P., & Bidjerano, T. J. C. E. (2009). Community of inquiry as a theoretical framework to foster "epistemic engagement" and "cognitive presence" in online education. *52*, 543-553.
Shenton, A. K. J. E. f. i. (2004). Strategies for ensuring trustworthiness in qualitative research projects. *22*(2), 63-75.
Shih, H. J. (2019). L2 Anxiety, Self-Regulatory Strategies, Self-Efficacy, Intended Effort and

Academic Achievement: A Structural Equation Modeling Approach. *International Education Studies*, *12*(3), 24-35.
Shih, H.-c. J., & Huang, S.-h. C. (2019). College students' metacognitive strategy use in an EFL flipped classroom. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 1-30.
Shipon-Blum, E. (2018). WHAT IS SELECTIVE MUTISM? A Comperhendive Overview. Retrieved N.d, 2018, from: https://selectivemutismcenter.org/whatisselectivemutism/
Shomoossi, N. (2004). The effect of teachersquestioning behavior on EFL Classroom interaction: A classroom research study. *The reading matrix*, *4*(2).
Shumin, K. (1997). Factors to Consider: Developing Adult EFL Students' Speaking Abilities. English Teaching Forum, 35 (3), 8. In: July.
Shumin, K. (2002). Factors to consider: Developing adult EFL students' speaking abilities. *Methodology in Language Teaching: An Anthology of Current Practice, 12*, 204-211.
Shute, V. (2008). Focus on formative feedback. *Review of Education Research, 78*(1), 153-189.
Sieber, S. D. J. (1973). The integration of fieldwork and survey methods. *American Journal of Sociology, 78*(6), 1335-1359.
Sigler, T. H., & Rhee, K. S. (2014). Unlocking Learning. *Journal of Management Education, 38*, 303-312.
Silalahi, R. M. P. (2017). Pronunciation problems of Indonesian EFL learners: An error analysis. *Journal of English Language and Culture, 6*(2).
Singh, M. K. M. (2019). International graduate students' academic writing practices in Malaysia: Challenges and solutions. *Journal of International Students, 5*(1), 12-22.
Smith, B. L., & MacGregor, J. T. (1992). What is collaborative learning.
Smith, K., & Hill, J. (2019). Defining the nature of blended learning through its depiction in current research. *Higher Education Research & Development*, *38*(2), 383-397.
Smith, L. M., Denzin, N., & Lincoln, Y. (1994). Biographical method. The SAGE.
Sofaer, S. (1999). Qualitative methods: what are they and why use them?. *Health Services Research,34*(5 Pt 2), 1101.
Solak, E., & Bayar, A. (2015). Current Challenges in English Language Learning in Turkish EFL Context. *Participatory Educational Research, 2*(1), 106-115.
Somekh, B., & Zeichner, K. (2009). Action research for educational reform: Remodelling action research theories and practices in local contexts. *Educational Action Research, 17*(1), 5-21.
Spada, N., & Lightbown, P. M. (1999). Instruction, first language influence, and developmental readiness in second language acquisition. *The modern language journal*, *83*(1), 1-22.
Staker, H., & Horn, M. B. (2012). *Classifying K-12 Blended Learning*.
Stephen, J. S., & Rockinson-Szapkiw, A. J. (2021). A high-impact practice for online students: the use of a first-semester seminar course to promote self-regulation, self-direction, online learning self-efficacy. *Smart Learning Environments*, *8*(1), 1-18.
Stewart, A. E., & Barry, J. R. (1991). Origins of George Kelly's constructivism in the work of Korzybski and Moreno. *International Journal of Personal Construct and Psychology, 4*(2), 121-136.
Stockwell, G., & Reinders, H. (2019). Corrigendum: Technology, motivation and autonomy, and teacher psychology in language learning: Exploring the myths and possibilities. *Journal of Physical Chemistry*.
Storch, N., & Sato, M. (2020). Comparing the same task in ESL vs. EFL learning contexts: An activity theory perspective. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics, 30*(1), 50-69.
Stoszkowski, J., MacNamara, Á., Collins, D., & Hodgkinson, A. (2020). "Opinion and fact, perspective and truth": Seeking truthfulness and integrity in coaching and coach education. *International Sport Coaching Journal, 8*(2), 263-269.
Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1990). *Basics of qualitative research*: Sage publications.
Stringer, E. T. (2007). Action research third edition.
Stuckey, H. L. (2014). The first step in data analysis: Transcribing and managing qualitative research data. *Journal of Social Health and Diabetes, 2*(01), 006-008.

Sudarmaji, I., Anwar, A. A. A., Mulyana, A. (2021). Developing students' speaking skills through Flipped Classroom Model. *Journal of Engish Education and Teaching, 5*(2), 188-200.
Sumuer, E. (2018). Factors related to college students' self-directed learning with technology. *Australasian Journal of Educational Technology*, *34*(4).
Sundari, H. (2017). Classroom interaction in teaching English as foreign language at lower secondary schools in Indonesia. *Advances in language and Literary Studies*, *8*(6), 147-154.
Sung, Y.-T., Chang, K.-E., & Yang, J.-M. (2015). How effective are mobile devices for language learning? A meta-analysis. *Educational Research Review, 16*, 68-84.
Susilo, S. (2015). Curriculum of EFL Teacher Education and Indonesian Qualification Framework: A Blip of the Future Direction. *Dinamika Ilmu, 15*(1), 11-24.
Swain, M. (2000). French Immersion Research in Canada: Recent Contributions to SLA and Applied Linguistics. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 20*, 199 - 212.
Swain, M. (2005). The output hypothesis: Theory and research. In *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 495-508): Routledge.
Syakur, M. (1987). Language testing. In: Surakarta: UNS Press.
Szpunar, K. K., Moulton, S. T., & Schacter, D. L. (2013). Mind wandering and education: from the classroom to online learning. *Frontiers in Psychology, 4*, 495.
Taber, K. S. (2011). Inquiry teaching, constructivist instruction and effective pedagogy. *Teacher Development, 15*(2), 257-264.
Talaei-Khoei, A., Daniel, J., & Dokhanchi, M. (2020). *Can Facebook improve students' engagement in flipped classes? Community of Inquiry approach*.
Talbert, R. (2017). *Flipped learning: A guide for higher education faculty*: Stylus Publishing, LLC.
Talmy, S. (2010). Qualitative interviews in applied linguistics: From research instrument to social practice. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 30*, 128-148.
Talmy, S., & Richards, K. (2011). Theorizing Qualitative Research Interviews in Applied Linguistics. *Applied Linguistics, 32*, 1-5.
Tan, F. D., Whipp, P. R., Gagné, M., & Van Quaquebeke, N. (2019). Students' perception of teachers' two-way feedback interactions that impact learning. *Social Psychology of Education*, *22*(1), 169-187.
Tarone, E. (2005). Speaking in a second language. In *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 509-526): Routledge.
Tashakkori, A., & Teddlie, C. (2003). Issues and dilemmas in teaching research methods courses in social and behavioural sciences: US perspective. *International Journal of Social Research and Methodology, 6*(1), 61-77.
Tashakkori, A., Teddlie, C., & Teddlie, C. B. (1998). *Mixed methodology: Combining qualitative and quantitative approaches* (Vol. 46): sage.
Tazijan, F. N., Baharom, S. S., & Shaari, A. H. (2016). Building communication skills through flipped classroom. *Proceedings of ISELT FBS Universitas Negeri Padang, 4*(1), 289-295.
Teng, M. F. (2017). Flipping the classroom and tertiary level EFL students' academic performance and satisfaction. *Journal of ASIA TEFL, 14*(4), 605.
Tenneson, M., McGlasson, B. (2006). The classroom flip. PowerPoint Presentation at Fontbonne University, Missouri Teaching and Learning Mentor Program.
Tercan, G., & Dikilitaş, K. (2015). EFL students' speaking anxiety: a case from tertiary level students. *ELT Research Journal, 4*(1), 16-27.
Thornbury, S. (2012). Speaking instruction. The Cambridge Guide to Pedagogy and Practice in Second Language Teaching, 198-206.
Tikhonova, E., Kudinova, N. (2015). Sophisticated thinking: higher order thinking skills. *Journal of Language and Education, 1*(3), 12-23.
Ting, S.-H., Marzuki, E., Chuah, K.-M., Misieng, J., & Jerome, C. (2017). Employers' views on the importance of English proficiency and communication skill for employability in Malaysia. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics, 7*(2), 315-327.

Tipmontree, S., & Tasanameelarp, A. (2018). The Effects of Role-Playing Simulation Activities on the Improvement of EFL Students' Business English Oral Communication. *The Journal of AsiaTEFL, 15*(3), 735-749.
Tolu, A. T. (2013). Creating effective communities of inquiry in online courses. *Procedia-Social and Behavorial Sciences, 70*, 1049-1055.
Too, W. K., & Saimima, E. J. (2019). Teacher belief and practice in a school-based English language classroom in eastern Indonesia. *Journal of Nusantara Studies, 4*(1), 211-231.
Topping, K. J., & Ehly, S. W. (1998). *Advantages and Disadvantages of Peer-Assisted Learning Strategies*.
Toth, P. D. (2006). Processing Instruction and a Role for Output in Second Language Acquisition. *Language Learning, 56*, 319-385.
Tremblay, P. F., & Gardner, R. C. (1995). Expanding the motivation construct in language learning. *The Modern Language Journal, 79*(4), 505-518.
Tsui, A. B. (2001). Classroom interaction. The Cambridge Guide to Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages, 120-125.
Tuan, L. T., & Nhu, N. T. K. (2010). Theoretical review on oral interaction in EFL classrooms. *Studies in literature and language*, *1*(4), 29-48.
Ur, P. (1981). *Discussions that work: Task-centred fluency practice*: Cambridge University Press.
Ur, P. (2012). *A course in English language teaching*: Cambridge University Press.
Urdan, T., & Schoenfelder, E. (2006). Classroom effects on student motivation: Goal structures, social relationships, and competence beliefs. *Journal of School Psychology, 44*(5), 331-349.
Ushioda, E. (2011). Motivating learners to speak as themselves. *Identity, Motivation, and Autonomy in Language Learning, 11*, 25.
Valadi, A., Rezaee, A., & Baharvand, P. K. (2015). The relationship between language learners' willingness to communicate and their oral language proficiency with regard to gender differences. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature, 4*(5), 147-153.
van der Kleij, F. M., Feskens, R., & Eggen, T. J. H. M. (2013). Effects of Feedback in a Computer-Based Learning Environment on Students' Learning Outcomes. *Review of Educational Research, 85*, 475 - 511.
Varghese, N. (2015). Challenges of massification of higher education in India. *CPRHE Research Papers1*, 1-52.
Vaughn, K. E., Rawson, K. A., Pyc, M. A. (2013). Repeated retrieval practice and item difficulty: Does criterion learning eliminate item difficulty effects?. *Psychonomic Buletin, 20*(6), 1239-1245.
Vo, T. A. D. (2022). Student's Attitudes towards Communicative Activities on EFL Student's Speaking Performance. *International Journal of Language Instruction*, *1*(1), 143-154.
Von Glasersfeld, E. (2013). *Radical constructivism*: Routledge.
Von Glasersfeld, E. J. P. (2001). Radical constructivism and teaching. *31*(2), 161-173.
Vurdien, R. (2019). Videoconferencing: Developing students' communicative competence. *Journal of Foreign Language Education and Technology*, *4*(2).
Vygotsky, L. S., & Cole, M. (1978). *Mind in society: Development of higher psychological processes*: Harvard university press.
Walker, U., & Haddon, R. (2011). Foreign language learning conceptualisations of distance learners in New Zealand: goals, challenges and responses. *The Language Learning Journal, 39*(3), 345-364.
Warayet, A. M. (2011). *Participation as a complex phenomenon in the EFL classroom* (Doctoral dissertation, Newcastle University).
Waring, R., & Nation, I. S. (2004). Second language reading and incidental vocabulary learning. *Angles on the English Speaking World, 4*, 97-110.
Warschauer, M. J. T. Q. (1998). Researching Technology in TESOL: Determinist, Instrumental, and Critical Approaches. *32*, 757-761.

Warschauer, M., & Healey, D. J. (1998). Computers and language learning: an overview. *Language Teaching, 31*, 57 - 71.

Wei, C.-W., Chen, N.-S. (2012). A model for social presence in online classrooms. *Educational Technology Research and Development, 60*(3), 529-545.

Whitehead, J., & McNiff, J. (2006). *Action research: Living theory*: Sage.

Widdowson, H. G. (1990). *Aspects of language teaching*: Oxford university press.

Widodo, H. P. (2016). Language policy in practice: Reframing the English language curriculum in the Indonesian secondary education sector. In *English language education policy in Asia* (pp. 127-151): Springer.

Wijirahayu, S., & Dorand, P. (2018). Affective strategies, attitudes, and a model of speaking performance development for engineering students. *Journal of Physics: Conference Series, 948*, 012024. doi:10.1088/1742-6596/948/1/012024

Wiles, R., Charles, V., Crow, G., & Heath, S. (2006). Researching researchers: lessons for research ethics. *Qualitative Research, 6*(3), 283-299.

William, M., & Burden, R. (1997). Motivation in language learning: A social constructivist perspective. Les Cahiers l'APLIUT, 19-27.

Wisdom, J., Creswell, J. W. (2013). Mixed methods: integrating quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis while studying patient-centered medical home models. Rockville: Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality.

Witten, D. (2013). *An Introduction to Statistical Learning: with Applications in R*.

Witton, G. (2017). The value of capture: Taking an alternative approach to using lecture capture technologies for increased impact on student learning and engagement. *British Journal of Educational Technology, 48*(4), 1010-1019.

Wong, J., Baars, M., Davis, D., Van Der Zee, T., Houben, G. J., & Paas, F. (2019). Supporting self-regulated learning in online learning environments and MOOCs: A systematic review. *International Journal of Human–Computer Interaction*, *35*(4-5), 356-373.

Woodsworth, J. (1996). Language, translation and the promotion of national identity: Two test cases. *Target: International Journal of Translation Studies, 8*(2), 211-238.

Wu, X. (2003). Intrinsic motivation and young language learners: the impact of the classroom environment. *System, 31*(4), 501-517.

Wulandari, N. A., Amalia, S., & Ramdhani, M. I. (2022). Investigating speaking difficulties of senior high school students: linguistics and psychological problems. *ENGLISH FRANCA: Academic Journal of English Language and Education*, *6*(1), 151-166.

Xu, Z., Shi, Y. (2018). Application of constructivist theory in flipped classroom-take college English teaching as a case study. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 8*(7), 880-887.

Yahay, M., & Kheirzadeh, S. (2015). The impact of oral presentation on fluency and accuracy of Iranian EFL learners' speaking. *Journal of Applied Linguistics and Language Research, 2*(5), 114-123.

Yesilçinar, S. (2019). Using the Flipped Classroom to Enhance Adult EFL Learners' Speaking Skills. *PASAA: Journal of Language Teaching and Learning in Thailand, 58*, 206-234.

Young, D. J. (1990). An investigation of students' perspectives on anxiety and speaking. *Foreign Language Annals, 23*(6), 539-553.

Young, R. (1999). Sociolinguistic approaches to SLA. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 19*, 105-132.

Yuliantari, N. P. Y., & Mantra, I. B. N. (2020). An Analysis Of Factors That Influence The Lack Of Speaking Skill In Management Students At Hindu Indonesia University In The Second Semester Of 2019. *Media Bina Ilmiah, 14*(10), 3291-3296.

Zaferanieh, E., Behrooznia, S. (2011). On the Impacts of Four Collocation Instructional Methods: Web-Based Concordancing vs. Traditional Method, Explicit vs. Implicit Instruction. *Studies in Literature and Language, 3*, 120-126.

Zaim, M. *Refnaldi.(2016). Teachers' need on authentic assessment for speaking skills.* Paper presented at the Proceeding International Seminar on Languages and Arts (ISLA).

Zainuddin, Z., Perera, C. J. (2019). Exploring students' competence, autonomy and relatedness in the flipped classroom pedagogical model. *Journal of Further and Higher Education, 43*(1), 115-126.

Zarouk, M., Olivera, E., Peres, P., & Khaldi, M. (2020). The impact of flipped project-based learning on self-regulation in higher education. *International Journal of Emerging Technologies in Learning (iJET)*, *15*(17), 127-147.

Zarrinabadi, N., & Ebrahimi, A. (2019). Increasing peer collaborative dialogue using a flipped classroom strategy. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching, 13*(3), 267-276.

Zein, S., Sukyadi, D., Hamied, F. A., & Lengkanawati, N. S. (2020). English language education in Indonesia: A review of research (2011–2019). *Language Teaching*, *53*(4), 491-523.

Zeinivand, T., Azizifar, A., & Gowhary, H. (2015). The relationship between attitude and speaking proficiency of Iranian EFL learners: The case of Darrehshehr city. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 199*, 240-247.

Zen, Z. (2019). *Implementation of Flipped classroom Model to Strengthening Students' Social Engagement and Its Relation with Students' High Order Thinking Performance.* Paper presented at the International Conference on Education Technology (ICoET 2019).

Zhang, L. (2018). English flipped classroom teaching model based on cooperative learning. *Educational Sciences: Theory & Practice*, *18*(6).

Zhang, X., & Head, K. (2010). Dealing with learner reticence in the speaking class. *ELT Journal, 64*(1), 1-9.

Zhao, S., Ren, J., Frank, M. C., & Zhou, P. (2019). The Development of Quantity Implicatures in Mandarin-speaking Children.

Zhu, B., & Zhou, Y. (2012). A Study on Students' Affective Factors in Junior High School English Teaching. *English Language Teaching, 5*, 33-41.

Zhu, M., Bonk, C. J., & Doo, M. Y. (2020). Self-directed learning in MOOCs: Exploring the relationships among motivation, self-monitoring, and self-management. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, *68*(5), 2073-2093.

Zimmerman, B. J. (2002). Becoming a self-regulated learner: An overview. *Theory into practice*, *41*(2), 64-70.

Zimmerman, B. J., & Schunk, D. H. (2011). Self-regulated learning and performance: An introduction and an overview. *Handbook of self-regulation of learning and performance*, 15-26.

Zimmerman, E., & McMeekin, A. (2019). Technology 1 Past and Present: The History of CALL and Technology for Learning Japanese. *Technology-Supported Learning In and Out of the Japanese Language Classroom: Advances in Pedagogy, Teaching and Research*.

Zrekat, Y., & Al-Sohbani, Y. (2022). Arab EFL University learners' perceptions of the factors hindering them to speak English fluently. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, *18*(1), 775-790.

Zuber-Skerritt, O. (2003). *New directions in action research*: Routledge.

Appendices

Appendix A: Information and Invitation to Participate in a Pilot Questionnaire

Project Title

The Effects of Flipped Classroom Model on Indonesian Students' Speaking Skills in One Higher Education Institution

Chief Investigator
Professor Ida Fatimawati Binti Adi Badiozaman
Head of School of Design and Arts, B203-204, Faculty of Business, Design and Arts,
Swinburne University of Technology Sarawak Campus
E-mail: ifaBadiozaman@swinburne.edu.my
TEL: 082 260 755

Investigator
Associate Professor Dr Therese Keane
Deputy Chair Strategic Initiatives & Partnerships, Department of Education,
Swinburne University of Technology Melbourne Australia
E-mail: tkeane@swin.edu.au
TEL: 03 921 48579

Investigator
Risang Baskara
G 902, Post Graduate Student Office, Faculty of Business, Design and Arts,
Swinburne University of Technology Sarawak Campus
E-mail: rbaskara@swinburne.edu.my
TEL: 0813 1333 3523

Dear Lecturer / Student

Thank you for showing an interest in this project. This letter intends to provide a brief introduction to my research and to invite your participation in a pilot study for research the effects of flipped classroom model on Indonesian students' speaking skills in one higher education institution. This research is part of my PhD Thesis at Swinburne University of Technology Sarawak.
Please read this information statement carefully before deciding whether or not to participate. If you decide to participate I thank you. If you decide not to take part, there will be no disadvantage to you and we thank you for considering our request.

What this project is about and why it is being undertaken

This research seeks to investigate the effects of Indonesian students' use of flipped classroom model in developing students' speaking skills in an English course for Faculty of Science and Technology in a higher learning institution in Yogyakarta, Indonesia. By exploring these effects, further understanding of flipped classroom model uses may thrive, shedding more light on how Indonesian students and teachers perceive the nature of flipped classroom uses. This study highlights opportunities for discussion in order to improve the English academic speaking curricula and educational policy since curriculum designers and educational policymakers may further understand the speaking process of students as they engage with flipped classroom. It is hoped that the research findings will help improve the quality of instruction and support for flipped classroom use development throughout the academic English programmes, and inform curriculum designers and policymakers on how flipped classroom use can be addressed in order to increase academic success.

Participation and Recruitment
You have been identified as potential participants for the pilot study as you are a member of Universitas Sanata Dharma community. The overall study will be conducted in two parts: a questionnaire and an interview. At this stage you are being invited to take part in the pilot questionnaire. The questionnaire will include sections on background information, writing challenges, and perception of writing using sources. The questionnaire will take no longer than 20 minutes to complete.

Project Procedure
If you decide to participate, a convenient time and location will be arranged for you to complete the questionnaire and, after that give feedback on the questionnaire. At the end of the questionnaire, there will be a question asking if you would like to participate in the pilot interview to aid in refining questions to be asked during an interview. If you are willing to be interviewed, the researcher will arrange for a follow-up meeting via email.

Please be aware that you may decide not to take part in the project without any disadvantage to yourself of any kind.

Participant rights and interests – Risks & Benefits/Contingencies/Back-up Support

By participating in this project you may be exposing yourself to risks such as emotional discomfort and vulnerability. This may result from answering questionnaires and interview questions on your experience in speaking using English and your overall speaking experience. Additionally, you may also experience anxiety that results from being interviewed. To mitigate these risks, you may choose to end the interview at any time, withdraw participation from the project and request not to be audio recorded.
During a severe event or emergency during classroom sessions, surveying, or interviews, counselling will be offered to witnesses and participants. Here are a list of support services and counselling services which are available during the project:

Dr. Sudi Mungkasi The Dean of the Faculty of Science and Engineering, Universitas Sanata Dharma, Yogyakarta, Mrican Jalan Affandi, Yogyakarta, Indonesia 55281 Tel: +62 274 513301 ext. 51324, Email: dekanfst@usd.ac.id	Center for Testing and Psychology Consultation or *Pusat Pelayanan Tes dan Konsultasi Psikologi* (P2TKP), Jl. Paingan, Maguwoharjo, Depok, Krodan, Maguwoharjo, Kec. Depok, Kabupaten Sleman, Daerah Istimewa Yogyakarta, Indonesia 55281, Tel: +62 274 883 037 / 883 968 ext. 52306, Email: p2tkp@usd.ac.id

Participant rights and interests – Free Consent/Withdrawal from Participation
You are under no obligation to accept this invitation. If you decide to participate, you have the right to:
Ask any questions about the study at any time during the participation
Provide information on the understanding that your name will not be used unless you give permission to the researcher

You may contact the researcher to find out more about this project without any obligation to participate. If you are interested in participating in the pilot questionnaire and feedback, return of the questionnaire implies your consent to participate in the piloting stage of the research. If you are interested in participating in the pilot interview, you will be given a consent form to sign and the interview process will only commence after written consent has been obtained. Your participation in

this project has no bearing on your enrolment or progress as a higher-degree research student.

Participant rights and interests – Privacy & Confidentiality

- Interview data will be recorded and transcribed verbatim and then analysed using an inductive approach to develop themes. Participants will be represented through pseudonyms so that their anonymity is protected.

If you do not wish the interview to be recorded, the interviewer will proceed by taking notes manually.

- The data collected will be securely stored in such a way that only those involved in the project will be able to gain access to it. Data obtained as a result of the research will be retained on a password protected computer and in a secure filing drawer/ cabinet for at least 5 years. Signed consent forms will be stored separately to any data collected to protect your anonymity.

- The results of the project may be published but every attempt will be made to preserve your anonymity.

Research output

It is expected that scholarly publications will arise from this project. You will be provided with copies of drafts and a copy of these publications for your reference.

Project Contacts

If you are willing to participate in the pilot study, please provide contact details by emailing me (the researcher), Mr. Risang Baskara at my email, rbaskara@swinburne.edu.my or by telephone at 0813 1333 3523.

If you would like more information regarding this project, do not hesitate to contact me or visit me at Faculty of Letter Building, 2nd Floor, Universitas Sanata Dharma, Yogyakarta, Indonesia.

Other issues you should be aware of before deciding whether to participate

Participating in this survey is completely voluntary. You do not need to do so if you do not wish to take part.

Yours sincerely

Mr. Risang Baskara	Professor Ida Fatimawati Binti Adi Badiozaman

This project has been approved by or on behalf of Swinburne's Human Research Ethics Committee (SUHREC) in line with the *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research*. If you have any concerns or complaints about the conduct of this project, you can contact the following:
Research Ethics Office
Research Ethics, Integrity and Biosafety Office, Swinburne Research (H68), Swinburne University of Technology, PO Box 218, Hawthorn VIC 3122, Australia
Tel: +61 3 9214 8145 Fax: +61 3 9214 5267 Email: resethics@swinburne.edu.au

Appendix A1: Participation Consent Form for Pilot Questionnaire

Project Title

The Effects of Flipped Classroom Model on Indonesian Students' Speaking Skills in One Higher Education Institution

Chief Investigator
Professor Ida Fatimawati Binti Adi Badiozaman
Head of School of Design and Arts, B203-204, Faculty of Business, Design and Arts,
Swinburne University of Technology Sarawak Campus
E-mail: ifaBadiozaman@swinburne.edu.my
TEL: 082 260 755

Investigator
Associate Professor Dr Therese Keane
Deputy Chair Strategic Initiatives & Partnerships, Department of Education,
Swinburne University of Technology Melbourne Australia
E-mail: tkeane@swin.edu.au
TEL: 03 921 48579

Investigator
Risang Baskara
G 902, Post Graduate Student Office, Faculty of Business, Design and Arts,
Swinburne University of Technology Sarawak Campus
E-mail: rbaskara@swinburne.edu.my
TEL: 0813 1333 3523

I consent to participate in the project named above. I have been provided a copy of the project consent information letter to which this consent form relates and any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction.

2. *In relation to this project, please circle your response to the following:*

I agree to make myself available for further information if required	Yes	No
I agree to complete questionnaires asking me about writing using sources	Yes	No

I acknowledge that:

my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw from the project at any time without explanation;

the Swinburne project is for the purpose of research and not for profit;

any identifiable information about me which is gathered in the course of and as the result of my participating in this project will be (i) collected and retained for the purpose of this project and (ii) accessed and analysed by the researcher(s) for the purpose of conducting this project;

I understand the length of time the researcher/s will have access to this information;

my anonymity is preserved and I will not be identified in publications or otherwise without my express written consent.

By signing this document, I agree to participate in this project.

Name of Participant: ……..

Signature & Date: ……

Appendix B: Information and Invitation to Participate in a Questionnaire

Project Title

The Effects of Flipped Classroom Model on Indonesian Students' Speaking Skills in One Higher Education Institution

Chief Investigator
Professor Ida Fatimawati Binti Adi Badiozaman
Head of School of Design and Arts, B203-204, Faculty of Business, Design and Arts,
Swinburne University of Technology Sarawak Campus
E-mail: ifaBadiozaman@swinburne.edu.my
TEL: 082 260 755

Investigator
Associate Professor Dr Therese Keane
Deputy Chair Strategic Initiatives & Partnerships, Department of Education,
Swinburne University of Technology Melbourne Australia
E-mail: tkeane@swin.edu.au
TEL: 03 921 48579

Investigator
Risang Baskara
G 902, Post Graduate Student Office, Faculty of Business, Design and Arts,
Swinburne University of Technology Sarawak Campus
E-mail: rbaskara@swinburne.edu.my
TEL: 0813 1333 3523

Dear Lecturer / Student

Thank you for showing an interest in this project. This letter intends to provide a brief introduction to my research and to invite your participation in a pilot study for research the effects of flipped classroom model on Indonesian students' speaking skills in one higher education institution. This research is part of my PhD Thesis at Swinburne University of Technology Sarawak.
Please read this information statement carefully before deciding whether or not to participate. If you decide to participate I thank you. If you decide not to take part, there will be no disadvantage to you and we thank you for considering our request.

What this project is about and why it is being undertaken

This research seeks to investigate the effects of Indonesian students' use of flipped classroom model in developing students' speaking skills in an English course for Faculty of Science and Technology in a higher learning institution in Yogyakarta, Indonesia. By exploring these effects, further understanding of flipped classroom model uses may thrive, shedding more light on how Indonesian students and teachers perceive the nature of flipped classroom uses. This study highlights opportunities for discussion in order to improve the English academic speaking curricula and educational policy since curriculum designers and educational policymakers may further understand the speaking process of students as they engage with flipped classroom. It is hoped that the research findings will help improve the quality of instruction and support for flipped classroom use development throughout the academic English programmes, and inform curriculum designers and policymakers on how flipped classroom use can be addressed in order to increase academic success.

Project Procedure
The study will be conducted through a questionnaire and an interview. At this stage you are being invited to take part in the questionnaire. The questionnaire will include sections on background information, writing challenges, and perception of writing using sources.
You are encouraged to complete the questionnaire in your own time, independently. The questionnaire will take no longer than 20 minutes to complete. Completion and return of the questionnaire indicate consent to participate on the study. Note that your responses in the questionnaire will remain confidential.
At the end of the questionnaire, on a separate page, there will be a question asking if you would like to participate in the interview. If you are willing to be interviewed, please detach the page and provide contact details in the space provided and return to a sealed box provided at your convenience. The researcher will arrange for a follow-up meeting.

Please be aware that you may decide not to take part in the project without any disadvantage to yourself of any kind.

Participant rights and interests – Risks & Benefits/Contingencies/Back-up Support

By participating in this project you may be exposing yourself to risks such as emotional discomfort and vulnerability. This may result from answering questionnaires and interview questions on your experience in speaking using English and your overall speaking experience. Additionally, you may also experience anxiety that results from being interviewed. To mitigate these risks, you may choose to end the interview at any time, withdraw participation from the project and request not to be audio recorded.
During a severe event or emergency during classroom sessions, surveying, or interviews, counselling will be offered to witnesses and participants. Here are a list of support services and counselling services which are available during the project:

Dr. Sudi Mungkasi The Dean of the Faculty of Science and Engineering, Universitas Sanata Dharma, Yogyakarta, Mrican Jalan Affandi, Yogyakarta, Indonesia 55281 Tel: +62 274 513301 ext. 51324, Email: dekanfst@usd.ac.id	Center for Testing and Psychology Consultation or *Pusat Pelayanan Tes dan Konsultasi Psikologi* (P2TKP), Jl. Paingan, Maguwoharjo, Depok, Krodan, Maguwoharjo, Kec. Depok, Kabupaten Sleman, Daerah Istimewa Yogyakarta, Indonesia 55281, Tel: +62 274 883 037 / 883 968 ext. 52306, Email: p2tkp@usd.ac.id

Participant rights and interests – Free Consent/Withdrawal from Participation
You are under no obligation to accept this invitation. If you decide to participate, you have the right to:
Ask any questions about the study at any time during the participation
Withdraw from the study before September 2020
Provide information on the understanding that your name will not be used unless you give permission to the researcher
Be given access to a summary of the project findings when it is concluded.

You may contact the researcher to find out more about this project without any obligation to participate. If you are interested in participating in the questionnaire, completion and return of the questionnaire implies your consent to participate in the research. If you are interested in participating in the interview, you will be given a consent form to sign and the interview process will only commence after written consent is obtained. Your participation in this project has no bearing on your enrolment or progress as a higher-degree research student.

Participant rights and interests – Privacy & Confidentiality

- Interview data will be recorded and transcribed verbatim and then analysed using an inductive approach to develop themes. Participants will be represented through pseudonyms so that their anonymity is protected.

If participants do not wish the interview to be recorded, the interviewer will proceed by taking notes manually.

- The data collected will be securely stored in such a way that only those involved in the project will be able to gain access to it. Data obtained as a result of the research will be retained on a password protected computer and in a secure filing drawer/ cabinet for at least 5 years. Signed consent forms will be stored separately to any data collected to protect your anonymity.

- The results of the project may be published but every attempt will be made to preserve your anonymity.

- You will also be given the opportunity to view the interview transcripts and be able to correct or alter any data involving yourself to maintain balanced representation of the data obtained.

Research output

It is expected that scholarly publications will arise from this project. You will be provided with copies of drafts and a copy of these publications for your reference.

If you would like more information regarding this project, do not hesitate to contact:

Mr. Risang Baskara
G 902, Post Graduate Student Office, Faculty of Business, Design and Arts,
Swinburne University of Technology Sarawak
E-mail: rbaskara@swinburne.edu.my
Mobile no: 0813 1333 3523

Other issues you should be aware of before deciding whether to participate

Participating in this survey is completely voluntary. You do not need to do so if you do not wish to take part.

Yours sincerely

Mr. Risang Baskara	Professor Ida Fatimawati Binti Adi Badiozaman

This project has been approved by or on behalf of Swinburne's Human Research Ethics Committee (SUHREC) in line with the *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research*. If you have any concerns or complaints about the conduct of this project, you can contact the following:
Research Ethics Office
Research Ethics, Integrity and Biosafety Office, Swinburne Research (H68),
Swinburne University of Technology, PO Box 218, Hawthorn VIC 3122, Australia
Tel: +61 3 9214 8145 Fax: +61 3 9214 5267 Email: resethics@swinburne.edu.au

Appendix C: Information and Invitation for Pilot Interview

Project Title

The Effects of Flipped Classroom Model on Indonesian Students' Speaking Skills in One Higher Education Institution

Chief Investigator
Professor Ida Fatimawati Binti Adi Badiozaman
Head of School of Design and Arts, B203-204, Faculty of Business, Design and Arts,
Swinburne University of Technology Sarawak Campus
E-mail: ifaBadiozaman@swinburne.edu.my
TEL: 082 260 755

Investigator
Associate Professor Dr Therese Keane
Deputy Chair Strategic Initiatives & Partnerships, Department of Education,
Swinburne University of Technology Melbourne Australia
E-mail: tkeane@swin.edu.au
TEL: 03 921 48579

Investigator
Risang Baskara
G 902, Post Graduate Student Office, Faculty of Business, Design and Arts,
Swinburne University of Technology Sarawak Campus
E-mail: rbaskara@swinburne.edu.my
TEL: 0813 1333 3523

Dear Lecturer / Student

Thank you for showing an interest in this project. This letter intends to provide a brief introduction to my research and to invite your participation in a pilot study for research the effects of flipped classroom model on Indonesian students' speaking skills in one higher education institution. This research is part of my PhD Thesis at Swinburne University of Technology Sarawak.
Please read this information statement carefully before deciding whether or not to participate. If you decide to participate I thank you. If you decide not to take part, there will be no disadvantage to you and we thank you for considering our request.

What this project is about and why it is being undertaken

This research seeks to investigate the effects of Indonesian students' use of flipped classroom model in developing students' speaking skills in an English course for Faculty of Science and Technology in a higher learning institution in Yogyakarta, Indonesia. By exploring these effects, further understanding of flipped classroom model uses may thrive, shedding more light on how Indonesian students and teachers perceive the nature of flipped classroom uses. This study highlights opportunities for discussion in order to improve the English academic speaking curricula and educational policy since curriculum designers and educational policymakers may further understand the speaking process of students as they engage with flipped classroom. It is hoped that the research findings will help improve the quality of instruction and support for flipped classroom use development throughout the academic English programmes, and inform curriculum designers and policymakers on how flipped classroom use can be addressed in order to increase academic success.

Participation and Recruitment
You have been identified as potential participants for the pilot study as you are a member of Universitas Sanata Dharma community. The study will be conducted through a questionnaire and an interview. At this stage you are being invited to take part in the pilot interview. The interview will take no longer than 60 minutes to complete.

Project Procedure
If you decide to participate, a convenient time and location will be arranged for you to attend an interview session and after that give feedback on the duration, clarity of the questions asked during the interview. Note that your responses in the questionnaire will remain confidential. If you are willing to be interviewed, the researcher will arrange for a face-to-face meeting via email. Please be aware that you may decide not to take part in the project without any disadvantage to yourself of any kind.

Participant rights and interests – Risks & Benefits/Contingencies/Back-up Support

By participating in this project you may be exposing yourself to risks such as emotional discomfort and vulnerability. This may result from answering interview questions about your experience using sources and your overall writing experience. Additionally, you may also experience anxiety that results from being interviewed. To mitigate these risks, you may choose to end the interview at any time, withdraw participation from the project and request not to be audio recorded.
During a severe event or emergency during classroom sessions, surveying, or interviews, counselling will be offered to witnesses and participants. Here are a list of support services and counselling services which are available during the project:

Dr. Sudi Mungkasi The Dean of the Faculty of Science and Engineering, Universitas Sanata Dharma, Yogyakarta, Mrican Jalan Affandi, Yogyakarta, Indonesia 55281 Tel: +62 274 513301 ext. 51324, Email: dekanfst@usd.ac.id	Center for Testing and Psychology Consultation or *Pusat Pelayanan Tes dan Konsultasi Psikologi* (P2TKP), Jl. Paingan, Maguwoharjo, Depok, Krodan, Maguwoharjo, Kec. Depok, Kabupaten Sleman, Daerah Istimewa Yogyakarta, Indonesia 55281, Tel: +62 274 883 037 / 883 968 ext. 52306, Email: p2tkp@usd.ac.id

Participant rights and interests – Free Consent/Withdrawal from Participation

You are under no obligation to accept this invitation. If you decide to participate, you have the right to:
Ask any questions about the study at any time during the participation
Provide information on the understanding that your name will not be used unless you give permission to the researcher

You may contact the researcher to find out more about this project without any obligation to participate. If you are interested in participating in the pilot interview, you will be given a consent form to sign and the interview process will only commence after written consent is obtained. Your participation in this project has no bearing on your enrolment or progress as a higher-degree research student.

Participant rights and interests – Privacy & Confidentiality

- Interview data will be recorded and transcribed verbatim and then analysed using an inductive approach to develop themes. Participants will be represented through pseudonyms so that their

anonymity is protected.

If you do not wish the interview to be recorded, the interviewer will proceed by taking notes manually.

- The data collected will be securely stored in such a way that only those involved in the project will be able to gain access to it. Data obtained as a result of the research will be retained on a password protected computer and in a secure filing drawer/ cabinet for at least 5 years. Signed consent forms will be stored separately to any data collected to protect your anonymity.

- The results of the project may be published but every attempt will be made to preserve your anonymity.

Research output

It is expected that scholarly publications will arise from this project. You will be provided with copies of drafts and a copy of these publications for your reference.

Project Contacts

If you are willing to participate in this pilot study, please provide contact details by emailing me (the researcher), Mr. Risang Baskara of Swinburne University of Technology Sarawak at my email, rbaskara@swinburne.edu.my or telephone 0813 1333 3523.
If you would like more information regarding this project, do not hesitate to contact me or visit me at G 902, Post Graduate Student Office, Faculty of Business, Design and Arts, Swinburne University of Technology Sarawak.

Other issues you should be aware of before deciding whether to participate

Participating in this survey is completely voluntary. You do not need to do so if you do not wish to take part.

Yours sincerely

Mr. Risang Baskara	Professor Ida Fatimawati Binti Adi Badiozaman

This project has been approved by or on behalf of Swinburne's Human Research Ethics Committee (SUHREC) in line with the *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research*. If you have any concerns or complaints about the conduct of this project, you can contact the following:

Research Ethics Office
Research Ethics, Integrity and Biosafety Office, Swinburne Research (H68),
Swinburne University of Technology, PO Box 218, Hawthorn VIC 3122, Australia
Tel: +61 3 9214 8145 Fax: +61 3 9214 5267 Email: resethics@swinburne.edu.au

Appendix C1: Consent Form for Pilot Interview

Project Title

The Effects of Flipped Classroom Model on Indonesian Students' Speaking Skills in One Higher Education Institution

Chief Investigator
Professor Ida Fatimawati Binti Adi Badiozaman
Head of School of Design and Arts, B203-204, Faculty of Business, Design and Arts,
Swinburne University of Technology Sarawak Campus
E-mail: ifaBadiozaman@swinburne.edu.my
TEL: 082 260 755

Investigator
Associate Professor Dr Therese Keane
Deputy Chair Strategic Initiatives & Partnerships, Department of Education,
Swinburne University of Technology Melbourne Australia
E-mail: tkeane@swin.edu.au
TEL: 03 921 48579

Investigator
Risang Baskara
G 902, Post Graduate Student Office, Faculty of Business, Design and Arts,
Swinburne University of Technology Sarawak Campus
E-mail: rbaskara@swinburne.edu.my
TEL: 0813 1333 3523

1. I consent to participate in the pilot interview part of the project named above. I have been provided a copy of the project consent information statement to which this consent form relates and any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction.

2. *In relation to this project, please circle your response to the following:*

I agree to be interviewed by the researcher Yes No
I agree to allow the interview to be recorded by electronic device Yes No
I agree to make myself available for further information if required Yes No

3. I acknowledge that:

(a) my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw from the interviewing session at any time without explanation;
(b) the Swinburne project is for the purpose of research and not for profit;
(c) any identifiable information about me which is gathered in the course of and as the result of my participating in this project will be (i) collected and retained for the purpose of this project and (ii) accessed and analysed by the researcher(s) for the purpose of conducting this project;
(d) my anonymity is preserved and I will not be identified in publications or otherwise without my express written consent.

By signing this document I agree to participate in this project.

Name of Participant: …….

Email:……

Mobile: ……..……...

Signature & Date: ……..

Appendix D: Information and Invitation for Interview

Project Title

The Effects of Flipped Classroom Model on Indonesian Students' Speaking Skills in One Higher Education Institution

Chief Investigator
Professor Ida Fatimawati Binti Adi Badiozaman
Head of School of Design and Arts, B203-204, Faculty of Business, Design and Arts,
Swinburne University of Technology Sarawak Campus
E-mail: ifaBadiozaman@swinburne.edu.my
TEL: 082 260 755

Investigator
Associate Professor Dr Therese Keane
Deputy Chair Strategic Initiatives & Partnerships, Department of Education,
Swinburne University of Technology Melbourne Australia
E-mail: tkeane@swin.edu.au
TEL: 03 921 48579

Investigator
Risang Baskara
G 902, Post Graduate Student Office, Faculty of Business, Design and Arts,
Swinburne University of Technology Sarawak Campus
E-mail: rbaskara@swinburne.edu.my
TEL: 0813 1333 3523

Dear _____

Thank you for showing a continuing interest in this project. This Information and Invitation letter are intended to reintroduce you to my research and to invite your participation in the Stage Two/ Stage Three interview part of the research.

Please read this information statement carefully before deciding whether or not to participate. If you decide to participate I thank you. If you decide not to take part, there will be no disadvantage to you and we thank you for considering our request.

What this project is about and why it is being undertaken

This research seeks to investigate the challenges of Indonesian students' use of sources (i.e. using information from books, articles, journals) in academic writing in an international higher learning institution in Kuching, Sarawak, Malaysia. By exploring these challenges, further understanding of source uses may shed more light on how Indonesian students and teachers perceive the nature of source uses. This study highlights opportunities for discussion in order to improve the English academic writing curricula and educational policy since curriculum designers and educational policymakers may further understand the writing process of students as they engage with sources. It is hoped that the research findings will help improve the quality of instruction and support for source use development throughout the academic writing programmes, and inform curriculum designers and policymakers on how source use can be addressed in order to increase academic success.

Project Procedure
You have been identified as potential participants for the interview as you have already participated in the questionnaire and Stage One interview of this project. The Stage Two/ Stage Three interview will take no longer than 60 minutes to complete.
If you decide to participate, a convenient time and location will be arranged for you to attend an interview session. Note that your responses in the interview will remain confidential.
Please be aware that you may decide not to take part in the project without any disadvantage to yourself of any kind.

Participant rights and interests – Risks & Benefits/Contingencies/Back-up Support

By participating in this project you may be exposing yourself to risks such as emotional discomfort and vulnerability. This may result from answering interview questions about your experience using sources and your overall writing experience. Additionally, you may also experience anxiety that results from being interviewed. To mitigate these risks, you may choose to end the interview at any time, withdraw participation from the project and request not to be audio recorded.
During a severe event or emergency during classroom sessions, surveying, or interviews, counselling will be offered to witnesses and participants. Here are a list of support services and counselling services which are available during the project:

Dr. Sudi Mungkasi The Dean of the Faculty of Science and Engineering, Universitas Sanata Dharma, Yogyakarta, Mrican Jalan Affandi, Yogyakarta, Indonesia 55281 Tel: +62 274 513301 ext. 51324, Email: dekanfst@usd.ac.id	Center for Testing and Psychology Consultation or *Pusat Pelayanan Tes dan Konsultasi Psikologi* (P2TKP), Jl. Paingan, Maguwoharjo, Depok, Krodan, Maguwoharjo, Kec. Depok, Kabupaten Sleman, Daerah Istimewa Yogyakarta, Indonesia 55281, Tel: +62 274 883 037 / 883 968 ext. 52306, Email: p2tkp@usd.ac.id

Participant rights and interests – Free Consent/Withdrawal from Participation
You are under no obligation to accept this invitation. If you decide to participate, you have the right to:
Ask any questions about the study at any time during the participation
Provide information on the understanding that your name will not be used unless you give permission to the researcher

You may contact the researcher to find out more about this project without any obligation to participate. If you are interested in participating in Stage Two / Stage Three interview, you will be given a consent form to sign and the interview process will only commence after written consent is obtained. Your participation in this project has no bearing on your enrolment or progress as a higher-degree research student.

Participant rights and interests – Privacy & Confidentiality

- Interview data will be recorded and transcribed verbatim and then analysed using an inductive approach to develop themes. Participants will be represented through pseudonyms so that their anonymity is protected.

If you do not wish the interview to be recorded, the interviewer will proceed by taking notes manually.
- The data collected will be securely stored in such a way that only those involved in the project will be able to gain access to it. Data obtained as a result of the research will be retained on a password

protected computer and in a secure filing drawer/ cabinet for at least 5 years. Signed consent forms will be stored separately to any data collected to protect your anonymity.

- The results of the project may be published but every attempt will be made to preserve your anonymity.

Research output

It is expected that scholarly publications will arise from this project. You will be provided with copies of drafts and a copy of these publications for your reference.

Project Contacts

If you are willing to participate in Stage Two / Stage Three Interview, please contact me (the researcher), Mr. Risang Baskara of Swinburne University of Technology Sarawak at my email, rbaskara@swinburne.edu.my or telephone 0813 1333 3523.

If you would like more information regarding this project, do not hesitate to contact me or visit me at G 902, Post Graduate Student Office, Faculty of Business, Design and Arts, Swinburne University of Technology Sarawak.

Other issues you should be aware of before deciding whether to participate

Participating in this interview is completely voluntary. You do not need to do so if you do not wish to take part.

Yours sincerely

Mr. Risang Baskara	Professor Ida Fatimawati Binti Adi Badiozaman

This project has been approved by or on behalf of Swinburne's Human Research Ethics Committee (SUHREC) in line with the *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research*. If you have any concerns or complaints about the conduct of this project, you can contact the following:

Research Ethics Office
Research Ethics, Integrity and Biosafety Office, Swinburne Research (H68),
Swinburne University of Technology, PO Box 218, Hawthorn VIC 3122, Australia
Tel: +61 3 9214 8145 Fax: +61 3 9214 5267 Email: resethics@swinburne.edu.au

Appendix D1: Information Consent Form for Interview

Project Title

The Effects of Flipped Classroom Model on Indonesian Students' Speaking Skills in One Higher Education Institution

Chief Investigator
Professor Ida Fatimawati Binti Adi Badiozaman
Head of School of Design and Arts, B203-204, Faculty of Business, Design and Arts,
Swinburne University of Technology Sarawak Campus
E-mail: ifaBadiozaman@swinburne.edu.my
TEL: 082 260 755

Investigator
Associate Professor Dr Therese Keane
Deputy Chair Strategic Initiatives & Partnerships, Department of Education,
Swinburne University of Technology Melbourne Australia
E-mail: tkeane@swin.edu.au
TEL: 03 921 48579

Investigator
Risang Baskara
G 902, Post Graduate Student Office, Faculty of Business, Design and Arts,
Swinburne University of Technology Sarawak Campus
E-mail: rbaskara@swinburne.edu.my
TEL: 0813 1333 3523

1. I consent to participate in the interview part of the project named above. I have been provided a copy of the project consent information statement to which this consent form relates and any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction.

2. *In relation to this project, please circle your response to the following:*

I agree to be interviewed by the researcher Yes No
I agree to allow the interview to be recorded by electronic device Yes No
I agree to make myself available for further information if required Yes No

3. I acknowledge that:

(a) my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw from the interviewing session at any time without explanation;
(b) the Swinburne project is for the purpose of research and not for profit;
(c) any identifiable information about me which is gathered in the course of and as the result of my participating in this project will be (i) collected and retained for the purpose of this project and (ii) accessed and analysed by the researcher(s) for the purpose of conducting this project;
(d) my anonymity is preserved and I will not be identified in publications or otherwise without my express written consent.

By signing this document I agree to participate in this project.

Name of Participant: …….

Email:……

Mobile: …….....

Signature & Date: ……...

Appendix E: Swinburne University of Technology Human Research Ethics Committee Approval Certificate

Swinburne University of Technology Human Research Ethics Committee

Approval certificate

The ethics application for your project The Effects of Flipped Classroom Model on Indonesian EFL Students' Speaking Ability in One Higher Learning Institution has been approved.

Chief Investigator: Ida Fatimawati

Ref: 20202998-4725

Approved Duration: 14/07/2020 to 14/07/2023

I refer to the ethical review of the above project protocol by Swinburne's Human Research Ethics Committee (SUHREC) or its sub-committees.

I am pleased to advise that, as submitted to date, the project may proceed in line with standard on-going ethics clearance conditions outlined below.

- The approved duration is as shown above unless an extension request is subsequently approved.
- All human research activity undertaken under Swinburne auspices must conform to Swinburne and external regulatory standards, including the *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2018)* and with respect to secure data use, retention and disposal.
- The named Swinburne Chief Investigator/Supervisor remains responsible for any personnel appointed to or associated with the project being made aware of ethics clearance conditions, including research and consent procedures or instruments approved. Any change in Chief Investigator/Supervisor, and addition or removal of other personnel/students from the project, requires timely notification and SUHREC endorsement.
- The above project has been approved as submitted for ethical review by or on behalf of SUHREC. Amendments to approved procedures or instruments ordinarily require prior ethical appraisal/clearance from SUHREC for approval. SUHREC must be notified immediately or as soon as possible thereafter of (a) any serious or unexpected adverse effects on participants and any redress measures; (b) proposed changes in protocols; and (c) unforeseen events which might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project.
- At a minimum, an annual report on the progress of the project is required as well as at the conclusion (or abandonment) of the project.
- A duly authorised external or internal audit of the project may be undertaken at any time.
- Please forward this approval certificate to relevant members of the project team.

This research project was approved during COVID-19 restrictions. The conduct of the research during this period should reflect any changes in relation to university and government COVID-19 mandates in the relevant jurisdictions. To ensure you have accommodated these mandates please refer to the Swinburne Ethics COVID-19 website here.

The following investigators have been approved to work on the project:

Chief Investigator

Ida Fatimawati

Associate Investigators

Therese Keane, FX. Mukarto

Student Investigators

Risang Baskara

Please contact the Swinburne Research Ethics Office if you have any queries.

Regards,

Ms Leah Barham

on behalf of

Research Ethics Office

Swinburne University of Technology

P: +61 3 9214 8145 | E: resethics@swin.edu.au

14/07/2020

Page 1 of 1

Appendix F: Student Initial Questionnaire

Background Information:
Instruction: Please tick (√) the appropriate space(s).

Are you 18 years old or older?
____ Yes
____ No

Which secondary school did you attend?
____ I attended a general public school
____ I attended a private English-medium school
____ I attended a private non-English-medium school
____ I lived and attended secondary school abroad
____ Other (please specify) _____

How long did you study in a non-English medium school in Indonesia?
____ 12 years (Primary 1- High School 3)
____ 9 years (Primary 4 - High School 3)
____ 6 years (Secondary 1 - High School 3)
____ None
____ Other (please specify) _____

What language do you speak at home?
____ Indonesian
____ Chinese Mandarin
____ Javanese
____ Sundanese
____ English
____ Other (please specify) _____

Which semester are you actively enrolled in?
____ Semester 1
____ Semester 2
____ Other (please specify) _____

Please tick the areas which were the main focus of teaching in your primary, secondary and high school education. You can tick more than one option.

	Primary School	Secondary School	High School
Grammar			
Vocabulary			
Pronunciation			
Speaking			
Listening			
Reading			
Writing			

Which areas are the focus of teaching in your university education now?

	Primary School	Secondary School	High School
Grammar			
Vocabulary			
Pronunciation			
Speaking			
Listening			
Reading			
Writing			

In which areas do you consider yourself proficient?

	Primary School	Secondary School	High School
Grammar			
Vocabulary			
Pronunciation			
Speaking			
Listening			
Reading			
Writing			

English language learning experiences and views about English language proficiency

To what extent do you agree with the following statements?
Rating scale: 1= strongly agree 2= agree 3= disagree 4= strongly disagree

I can maintain a high degree of grammatical control of complex language and the grammatical errors are rare.	1 2 3 4
I can monitor the grammar I use and avoid errors which cause misunderstanding	1 2 3 4
I can use some simple structures but I make basic mistakes	1 2 3 4
I can express myself fluently and spontaneously, almost effortlessly, in any subject of discussion	1 2 3 4
I can maintain a conversation with a fairly even tempo; although there are a few noticeably long pauses	1 2 3 4
I can make myself understood in very short utterances although pauses, false starts and reformulation are very evident	1 2 3 4
I can interact easily, using gestures and body language and intonation in order to get or to keep the floor or to make contribution.	1 2 3 4
I can initiate, maintain and take my turn in simple face-to-face conversations on topics that are familiar or of personal interest	1 2 3 4
I can ask and answer questions about personal details but I am rarely able to understand enough to keep conversation going of my own accord.	1 2 3 4
I can use a wide range of vocabulary item about different topics effortlessly	1 2 3 4
I can keep communication going by selecting appropriate vocabulary items on familiar topics with occasional pauses to select the appropriate vocabulary	1 2 3 4

I can use limited repertoire of vocabulary items and I usually stick to particular basic vocabulary with long pauses to remember which vocabulary to use	1 2 3 4

In relation to your speaking proficiency, what are in your opinion, your weak and strong points?

Factors Affecting Speaking Class

To what extent do you agree with the following statements?

Rating scale: 1= strongly agree 2= agree 3= disagree 4= strongly disagree

How do you feel about your contribution to speaking classes?

I don't worry about making mistakes in English class.	1 2 3 4
I am very anxious when I know that I'm going to be called on in English class.	1 2 3 4
During English speaking classes, I have nothing to say about the topic	1 2 3 4
It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my English speaking class.	1 2 3 4
I feel confident when I speak English in English class.	1 2 3 4
I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do.	1 2 3 4
I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.	1 2 3 4

How do you feel about the correction of your mistakes?

I feel embarrassed when teacher corrects me in front of my friends.	1 2 3 4
I am happy to be corrected because it is a good way to learn.	1 2 3 4
I don't like it when the teacher corrects every mistake we make	1 2 3 4

How do you feel about your preparation for the class?

I start to panic when I speak without preparation in English speaking class.	1 2 3 4
Even if I am well prepared for English class, I feel anxious about it.	1 2 3 4
I get nervous when the English teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance.	1 2 3 4

How do you feel about your understanding during the speaking lesson?

I get nervous when I don't understand every word the English teacher says	1 2 3 4
I feel unconfident when I don't understand the topics that other students understand	1 2 3 4
I am worried that I don't understand what the teacher expects us to do	1 2 3 4

How do you feel about your ability to take turn in discussions?

I can take a good turn in conversations about any topic by asking relevant questions.	1 2 3 4
I can take turn in conversations if the topic is familiar to me.	1 2 3 4
I can answer questions directed by the interlocutor but have difficulty in directing the conversation by asking questions.	1 2 3 4

Perception of Speaking Class

To what extent do you agree with the following statements?
Rating scale: 1= strongly agree 2= agree 3= disagree 4= strongly disagree

As a student, I enjoy

working in pairs	1 2 3 4
working in groups	1 2 3 4
working as a whole class	1 2 3 4
selecting topics	1 2 3 4
selecting materials	1 2 3 4
getting prepared beforehand	1 2 3 4
learning vocabulary items	1 2 3 4
focusing on grammar	1 2 3 4
being responsible for my own learning	1 2 3 4
actively participating	1 2 3 4

As a student, I expect the teacher to do the following:

select topics	1 2 3 4
select materials	1 2 3 4
decide who will speak and for how long	1 2 3 4
be responsible for our learning	1 2 3 4
negotiate the course content with students	1 2 3 4
correct all the mistakes	1 2 3 4

As a student, I enjoy the following topics:

Current affairs (i.e. news, newspapers)	1 2 3 4
Hobbies (i.e. sports, music)	1 2 3 4
Media (i.e. TV series, movies)	1 2 3 4
Personal matters (i.e. relationships)	1 2 3 4
Academic discussions	1 2 3 4
Cultural issues	1 2 3 4
Future plans	1 2 3 4

Dear Participants,

Thank you for taking the time to answer this questionnaire. The next part of the project involves an interview. The interviews will be both in English and Bahasa Indonesia, and you will be expected to talk with me about the same issues. Your participation in the interview is important for me to understand the situation in depth. The interview will be carried out at a time when you are available and it will take around half an hour. If you wish to participate in the interview, please tick the 'yes' box below and print your name so that I can contact you.

Thank you very much for your time and contributions to my research study.

Will you be willing to participate in follow-up interviews?

Yes	No

If yes, please print your name here:

_____

Appendix G: Student Post-Session Questionnaire

Dear participants,
This short questionnaire aims at understanding your views about the effectiveness of this week's session. There are not correct or wrong answers of questions and your responses will play determinative role in designing next session. Therefore, please read instructions and items carefully and provide detailed information so that we can understand your opinions thoroughly.
Thank you very much for your feedback.

Risang Baskara

Can you please evaluate this session overall?
Rating scale: 1= very successful 2=successful 3=unsuccessful 4= very unsuccessful

1	2	3	4

To what extent do you agree with the following statements?
Rating scale: 1= strongly agree 2= agree 3= disagree 4= strongly disagree

How would you evaluate this session overall?

Appropriate to my needs	1 2 3 4
Useful	1 2 3 4
Enjoyable	1 2 3 4
Difficult	1 2 3 4

How would you evaluate this session overall?

The topic was interesting	1 2 3 4
The activities provided lots of opportunities to speak in English	1 2 3 4
The classroom atmosphere was positive	1 2 3 4
The instructions were clear	1 2 3 4
The speaking activities were good	1 2 3 4
I felt relaxed	1 2 3 4
I received useful feedback about my speaking performance	1 2 3 4
I had enough opportunities to speak	1 2 3 4

To what extent do you agree with the following statements?
Rating scale: 1= strongly agree 2= agree 3= disagree 4= strongly disagree

How would you evaluate the before class activities in this this session?

I found the videos interesting	1 2 3 4
The videos were well-organised and easy to follow	1 2 3 4
The activities were easy to complete	1 2 3 4
I watched the videos more than one time	1 2 3 4
The exercises and other activities helped me to understand the materials better.	1 2 3 4
I enjoy studying English at home	1 2 3 4
I feel confident studying English at home	1 2 3 4
I can study English at my own pace/speed at home	1 2 3 4

Reflecting on today's meeting, how would you rate your participation during class activities in the online meeting (rate yourself on a scale from 1-10, 1 being the lowest and 10 being the highest)
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Participating in group work (if this activity is a part of the meeting)
Rating scale: 1= strongly agree 2= agree 3= disagree 4= strongly disagree

I offered my opinion	1 2 3 4
I cooperated with my group members	1 2 3 4
I communicated with my group members in English	1 2 3 4

Participating in pair work (if this activity is a part of the meeting)
Rating scale: 1= strongly agree 2= agree 3= disagree 4= strongly disagree

I offered my opinion	1 2 3 4
I cooperated with my partner	1 2 3 4
I communicated with my partner in English	1 2 3 4

I participate in a whole-class discussion (if this activity is a part of the meeting)
Rating scale: 1= strongly agree 2= agree 3= disagree 4= strongly disagree

I made comments	1 2 3 4
I asked questions	1 2 3 4
I answered questions	1 2 3 4
I responded to other comments made by my classmates	1 2 3 4
I clarified comments made by someone else	1 2 3 4
I used new vocabulary	1 2 3 4
I spoke in English without advanced preparation	1 2 3 4

To what extent do you agree with the following statements?
Rating scale: 1= strongly agree 2= agree 3= disagree 4= strongly disagree

How would you evaluate the after-class activities in this meeting?

I found the activities interesting	1 2 3 4
The activities were well-organised and easy to follow	1 2 3 4
The activities were easy to complete	1 2 3 4
I prepared myself for my video recording assignment	1 2 3 4
The video recording assignment and other materials helped me to develop my speaking skill better.	1 2 3 4
I enjoy making video recording at home	1 2 3 4
I feel confident making video recording at home	1 2 3 4
I can practice speaking at my own pace/speed at home.	1 2 3 4

If you are willing to participate in the interview, please print your name:

Print your name here: _____

Thank you so much for completing the questionnaire.

Appendix H: Student Initial Interview

Student Initial Interview Protocol

No	Main Interview Questions	Probes
	Engagement Questions	
1	Could you tell me something about yourself?	
2	What do you like the most about learning English?	Grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, speaking, listening, reading, writing
	Exploration Questions	
	Language learning Experience	
3	How were your English classes in primary, secondary and high school?	Typical classroom? Activities, materials, topics? What were positive/negative things for you in your previous English learning experiences?
	Beliefs about language	
4	Why do you think about the importance of different aspects of English?	Grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, speaking, listening, reading, writing
	Self-evaluation	
5	In which of these areas do you consider yourself more proficient? Why, why not?	Grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, speaking, listening, reading, writing
6	Which of these areas is more important for you? Why do you think so?	Grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, speaking, listening, reading, writing
7	Are you satisfied with your current speaking ability? Why do you think so?	What are the main difficulties you have while speaking English?
8	What do you think about the strong and weak issues of your speaking ability?	Accuracy, fluency, interaction, vocabulary
	Anxiety and participation	
9	What do you think about your participation in the speaking class?	How often do you speak in classes? How do you feel just before you speak? How do you feel while you are speaking? How do you feel after you speak?

10	What do you think about your performance in speaking class?	Do you think that you are an active learner? Why, why not? Do you want to be more active? Why, why not? Do you feel that you are developing your speaking ability? Why, why not?
	Speaking class	
11	What do you think about the characteristics of effective speaking class?	The responsibility of the teacher? (in decision-making, during classroom) How do you want to study? (in pairs, groups, whole class, etc.) Activities? (role plays, games, songs etc.) Topics/materials?
	Exit Questions	
12	Is there anything else you would like to share?	Do you have any further opinions?

Appendix I: Teacher Initial Interview

Teacher Initial Interview Protocol

No	Main Interview Questions	Probes
	Engagement Questions	
1	Could you please tell me about your teaching experience?	
2	How long have you been teaching English? How long have you been teaching this course?	
	Exploration Questions	
	About the course	
3	What do you think about the importance of different aspects of English? (Grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, speaking, listening, reading and writing)	Why do you think so?
	Evaluating students	
4	How competent do you think the students are in overall English?	Areas that they are more/less proficient in?
5	How competent do you think the students are in English speaking?	Their level? Accuracy, fluency, interaction, vocabulary?
	Students' anxiety and participation	
6	How would you describe the students' participation in your classes?	Are they active or passive? Motivated or not? Eager to participate or not? Why?
7	How would you describe students' performance in your classes?	What main difficulties do they have while speaking? What to do to overcome these difficulties?
	Speaking Class	
8	As a leader of that course, what are your opinions about the characteristics of effective speaking class?	Your responsibility (in decision-making, during classroom) Student's roles How do students want to study? (in pairs, groups, whole class, etc.) Activities? (role plays, games, songs etc.) Topics/materials?
	Exit Questions	
9	Is there anything else you would like to share?	Do you have any further opinions?

Appendix J: Student Final Questionnaire

English language learning experiences and views about English language proficiency
1.....5
Not at all Very much

In which areas do you consider yourself proficient?

	1	2	3	4	5
Grammar					
Vocabulary					
Pronunciation					
Speaking					
Listening					
Reading					
Writing					

How satisfied are you with your speaking ability in English

1	2	3		4	5

To what extent do you agree with the following statements?
Rating scale: 1= strongly agree 2= agree 3= disagree 4= strongly disagree

I can maintain a high degree of grammatical control of complex language and the grammatical errors are rare.	1 2 3 4
I can monitor the grammar I use and avoid errors which cause misunderstanding	1 2 3 4
I can use some simple structures but I make basic mistakes	1 2 3 4
I can express myself fluently and spontaneously, almost effortlessly, in any subject of discussion	1 2 3 4
I can maintain a conversation with a fairly even tempo; although there are a few noticeably long pauses	1 2 3 4
I can make myself understood in very short utterances although pauses, false starts and reformulation are very evident	1 2 3 4
I can interact easily, using gestures and body language and intonation in order to get or to keep the floor or to make contribution.	1 2 3 4
I can initiate, maintain and take my turn in simple face-to-face conversations on topics that are familiar or of personal interest	1 2 3 4
I can ask and answer questions about personal details but I am rarely able to understand enough to keep conversation going of my own accord.	1 2 3 4
I can use a wide range of vocabulary item about different topics effortlessly	1 2 3 4
I can keep communication going by selecting appropriate vocabulary items on familiar topics with occasional pauses to select the appropriate vocabulary	1 2 3 4
I can use limited repertoire of vocabulary items and I usually stick to particular basic vocabulary with long pauses to remember which vocabulary to use	1 2 3 4

Factors Affecting Speaking Class

To what extent do you agree with the following statements?

Rating scale: 1= strongly agree 2= agree 3= disagree 4= strongly disagree

How do you feel about your contribution to speaking classes?

I don't worry about making mistakes in English class.	1 2 3 4
I am very anxious when I know that I'm going to be called on in English class.	1 2 3 4
During English speaking classes, I have nothing to say about the topic	1 2 3 4
It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my English-speaking class.	1 2 3 4
I feel confident when I speak English in English class.	1 2 3 4
I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do.	1 2 3 4
I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.	1 2 3 4

How do you feel about the correction of your mistakes?

I feel embarrassed when teacher corrects me in front of my friends.	1 2 3 4
I am happy to be corrected because it is a good way to learn.	1 2 3 4
I don't like it when the teacher corrects every mistake we make	1 2 3 4

How do you feel about your preparation for the class?

I start to panic when I speak without preparation in English speaking class.	1 2 3 4
Even if I am well prepared for English class, I feel anxious about it.	1 2 3 4
I get nervous when the English teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance.	1 2 3 4

How do you feel about your understanding during the speaking lesson?

I get nervous when I don't understand every word the English teacher says	1 2 3 4
I feel unconfident when I don't understand the topics that other students understand	1 2 3 4
I am worried that I don't understand what the teacher expects us to do	1 2 3 4

How do you feel about your ability to take turn in discussions?

I can take a good turn in conversations about any topic by asking relevant questions.	1 2 3 4
I can take turn in conversations if the topic is familiar to me.	1 2 3 4
I can answer questions directed by the interlocutor but have difficulty in directing the conversation by asking questions.	1 2 3 4

Flipped Classroom Model

Instructional Videos

I find the lecture videos were effective in helping me learn grammar topics	1 2 3 4
The length of the videos (5-10 minutes) is appropriate for my learning.	1 2 3 4
The amount of instructional video (fifteen minutes between each class session) is appropriate for my learning	1 2 3 4
I found taking notes while watching the videos was helpful in learning the content	1 2 3 4
I found answering the questions provided while watching the videos was helpful in learning the content	1 2 3 4
I watched the lecture videos before each chapter began.	1 2 3 4
I watched the lecture videos before the assigned grammar topics.	1 2 3 4
I watched the lecture videos before the chapter quiz.	1 2 3 4
I was equally likely to watch the videos whether there were quizzes or not	1 2 3 4
In general, I found the content of the videos to be appropriately challenging	1 2 3 4
In general, I found the content of the videos to be engaging/interesting	1 2 3 4
Technical issues with watching the videos were not annoying and did not impact my learning	1 2 3 4

Reflection on how you were affected by the Course

I am more confident in learning a new grammar concept without a formal in-class lecture.	1 2 3 4
I am more likely to use instructional videos than I was before taking this course.	1 2 3 4
I feel the content/skills I learned in this class prepared me to take the next English course	1 2 3 4

Appendix K: Student Final Interview

Student Final Interview Protocol

No	Main Interview Questions	Probes
	Engagement Questions	
1	Can you tell me something about yourself?	
2	How long have you been learning English?	What aspect of English do you like the most?
	Exploration Questions	
	Language learning Experience	
3	How were your English classes in primary, secondary and high school?	Typical classroom? Activities, materials, topics? What were positive/negative things for you in your previous English learning experiences?
	Beliefs about language	
4	Why do you think about the importance of different aspects of English?	Grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, speaking, listening, reading, writing
	Evaluation of the term	
5	Can please evaluate speaking classes this term?	Were the lessons useful, enjoyable, or appropriate to your needs? Why?
6	How were the topics and activities?	Interesting, provided opportunities to speak in English; classroom atmosphere
7	How was your performance?	Probes: Do you think that you were successful in speaking classes?
8	How was your participation?	Do you think that you were successful in speaking classes?
9	In speaking classes this semester, what do you think about watching instructional videos outside the classroom?	Did you think that it helped you to prepare for classroom activities? Did you feel the activities/topics were appropriate to your needs/wants?
10	In speaking classes this term, what do you think about speaking activities in the classroom?	Did you feel the activities/topics were appropriate to your needs/wants? What were the positive and negative points of these experiences?
11	Do you think that this research was something positive for improving	In what ways?

	your speaking ability?	
12	Do you think that you 'think differently' about lessons now since experiencing this process?	What words would you describe some of the feelings you experienced when doing this research study?
13	Did this research make you think differently about using flipped classrooms in this class?	Did this research lead you to think differently about your expectations from a speaking class?
	Self-evaluation	
14	In which of these areas do you consider yourself more proficient? Why, why not?	Grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, speaking, listening, reading, writing
15	Which of these areas is more important for you?	Why do you think so? Grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, speaking, listening, reading, writing
16	Are you satisfied with your current speaking ability? Why do you think so?	What are the main difficulties you have while speaking English?
17	What do you think about the strong and weak issues of your speaking ability?	Accuracy, fluency, interaction, vocabulary
	Anxiety and participation	
18	What do you think about your participation in the speaking class?	How often do you speak in classes? How do you feel just before you speak? How do you feel while you are speaking? How do you feel after you speak?
19	What do you think about your performance in speaking class?	Do you think that you are an active learner? Why, why not? Do you want to be more active? Why, why not? Do you feel that you are developing your speaking ability? Why, why not?
	Flipped classroom	
20	What do you think about the characteristics of an effective flipped classroom?	The responsibility of the teacher? (in decision-making, during the classroom) Your roles How do you want to study? (in pairs, groups, whole class, etc.) Activities? (role plays, games, songs etc.) Topics/materials? Instructional videos?
	Exit Questions	

21	Is there anything else you would like to share?	Do you have any further opinions?

Appendix L: Teacher Final Interview

Teacher Final Interview Protocol

No	Main Interview Questions	Probes
	Engagement Questions	
1	Can please evaluate speaking classes this term?	Did you meet your objectives? Did you feel that the classes were successful? Classroom atmosphere, topics, activities?
	Exploration Questions	
2	How was students' participation this semester?	Did they appear motivated?
3	How were students' performances this semester?	Grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, speaking, listening, reading, writing
4	Do you think asking students about the topics and activities affects student participation and performance?	In what ways?
5	Do you see any differences between this class (where we do this research) and other classes?	In what ways?
6	What do you think about the success of this action research project?	In what ways?
7	Considering this action research, do you think that flipped classroom model is necessary for speaking classes?	In what ways?
8	As a teacher, does this action research study improve your professional development? If yes, in what	If yes, in what ways? If not, why?
	Exit Questions	
9	Is there anything else you would like to share?	Do you have any further opinions?

Appendix M: Letter of Research Permission

FAKULTAS SAINS DAN TEKNOLOGI
UNIVERSITAS SANATA DHARMA YOGYAKARTA
Email : fst@usd.ac.id

Yogyakarta, 29 April 2020

Ref : 24/DKN/FST/IV/2020
Re : Permission to Observe English Course
for Non-English Department Students

Mr. Risang Baskara
Faculty of Business, Design and Arts
Swinburne University of Technology
Sarawak Campus

Dear Mr. Baskara,

This is in response to your letter concerning your need to observe English Course for Non-English Department Students in the Faculty of Science and Technology, Sanata Dharma University for the data collection for your dissertation.

The Faculty of Science and Technology, Sanata Dharma University grants you the permission to observe the courses. However, please ensure that these requirements are met in conduct of the data-collection for your research.

1. Observation (including video-taping) in the English Course for Non-English Department can only be done with the respective lecturers' consent.
2. Researcher should give explanatory statements on the research objectives to both students and the lecturers. Only after the students and the lecturers give approval may the observation proceed.
3. Researcher may distribute questionnaires to the students in the beginning of the class.
4. Researcher may interview a number of selected students with their written consent. After the interview, researcher should ask the selected students to check the content of the interview before using it as data for the research.
5. Researcher may access English Course output and the selected students' assignments to get the necessary data.
6. All information given by the research participants, including personal information, must be treated as confidentials.

I, on behalf of the Faculty of Science and Technology, Sanata Dharma University, will be glad to give you further assistance if that is required. Thank you.

Yours sincerely,
Dean,

Sudi Mungkasi, Ph.D.

Kampus III, Paingan, Maguwoharjo, Depok, Sleman Yogyakarta 55281
Telepon (0274) 883037, 883968; Fax (0274) 886529

Appendix N: Lesson Contents of Intervention

Intervention 1	Topic: Personal Description	Before class (Asynchronous)	During class (Synchronous)	After class (Asynchronous)
	Objectives: The students are able to answer questions about their personal information Use simple phrases in giving their personal information Activities: Group work	Watching three videos about personal description in Moodle Learning new vocabulary and grammar points through exercises in Edpuzzle Doing the vocabulary quiz to check the understanding of adjectives to describe personal information in Moodle Participating in the classroom discussion in Moodle: What questions cannot be asked when looking for personal information? Why?	Joining virtual meeting in Zoom Applying eight steps of SOFLA: Pre-work: Kahoot quiz on personal information Sign-in activity: Group quiz about personal information in Padlet Whole class discussion and review of materials in Zoom's Main Room Breakout group activities: group discussion about students' personal information Share-out time Preview and discovery Assignment/Follow up Reflections: What do you know about your own personality?	Reviewing additional materials in Moodle Participating in classroom discussions in Moodle Doing Flipgrid exercises (students' response videos) Flipgrid prompt: Make a short description of yourself in five minutes.

Intervention 2	Topic: Job and Scholarship Application	Before class (Asynchronous)	During class (Synchronous)	After class (Asynchronous)
	Objectives: The students are able to identify their skills and experiences Produce some sentences describing their skills and experiences Identify detailed information to get a job or a scholarship in a	Watching three videos in Moodle Learning new vocabulary and grammar points through exercises in Edpuzzle Doing the vocabulary quiz to check the understanding of adjectives to describe personality in	Joining virtual meeting in Zoom Applying eight steps of SOFLA: Pre-work: Checking the quiz and discussion forum Sign-in activity: Group matching quiz about jobs and skills in Padlet Whole class discussion Breakout group	Reviewing additional materials in Moodle Participating in classroom discussions in Moodle Doing Flipgrid exercises (students' response videos) Flipgrid prompt: Share your dream

	mind map format Produce a simple description telling about their future job, their skills and experiences	Moodle Participating in the classroom discussion in Moodle: How can you know someone's personality?	activities Share-out time Preview and discovery Assignment/Follow up Reflections	job and the personalities that fit the job in five minutes. Also, try to explain why you think those personalities fit your dream job.
	Activities: Pair work			

Intervention 3	Topic: Job and Scholarship Interview Part 1	Before class (Asynchronous)	During class (Synchronous)	After class (Asynchronous)
	Objectives: The students are able to handle job and scholarship interview Describe their job preferences Illustrate their personality traits	Watching three videos in Moodle Learning new vocabulary and grammar points through exercises in Edpuzzle Doing the vocabulary quiz to check the understanding Participating in the classroom discussion in Moodle:	Joining virtual meeting in Zoom Applying eight steps of SOFLA: Pre-work: Checking the quiz and discussion forum Sign-in activity: Group quiz about job description in Padlet Whole class discussion Breakout group activities Share-out time Preview and discovery Assignment/Follow up Reflections	Reviewing additional materials in Moodle Participating in classroom discussions in Moodle Doing Flipgrid exercises (students' response videos) Flipgrid prompt: What do you know about a good resume? What do we need to put on our resumes?
	Activities: Pair work			

Intervention 4	Topic: Job and Scholarship Interview Part 2	Before class (Asynchronous)	During class (Synchronous)	After class (Asynchronous)
	Objectives: The students are able to explain their abilities and skills Describe their career and academic goals Tell their	Watching three videos in Moodle Learning new vocabulary and grammar points through exercises in Edpuzzle Doing the vocabulary quiz to	Joining virtual meeting in Zoom Applying eight steps of SOFLA: Pre-work: Checking the quiz and discussion forum Sign-in activity: Group quiz about	Reviewing additional materials in Moodle Participating in classroom discussions in Moodle Doing Flipgrid

	personal achievement Activities: Pair work	check the understanding Participating in the classroom discussion in Moodle:	skills needed in the 21st century in Padlet Whole class discussion Breakout group activities Share-out time Preview and discovery Assignment/Follow up Reflections	exercises (students' response videos) Flipgrid prompt: What is the best achievement you have ever had? Why?

Intervention 5	Topic: My Career Part 1 Objectives: The students are able to describe different jobs and the qualifications/skills involved in the jobs Express their career aspirations in the past and the present (i.e., use the past tense and the present tense) Provides reasons for their past and current career aspirations Explain what possible future they might have with their current academic background Activities: Pair work	Before class (Asynchronous) Watching three videos in Moodle Learning new vocabulary and grammar points through exercises in Edpuzzle Doing the vocabulary quiz to check the understanding Participating in the classroom discussion in Moodle:	During class (Synchronous) Joining virtual meeting in Zoom Applying eight steps of SOFLA: Pre-work: Sign-in activity: Group quiz about the most popular jobs in the 21st century in Padlet. Whole group discussion Breakout class activities Share-out time Preview and discovery Assignment/Follow up Reflections	After class (Asynchronous) Reviewing additional materials in Moodle Participating in classroom discussions in Moodle Doing Flipgrid exercises (students' response videos) Flipgrid prompt: Describe your dream job before and after you join the university. Are they different or the same? Why?

Intervention 6	Topic: My Career Part 2 Objectives: The students are able to identify the structure of well-organized speech Compose a 3-minute argumentative speech on why their dream job is the best	Before class (Asynchronous) Watching three videos about personal descriptions, which are available in Moodle Learning new vocabulary and grammar points through exercises in Edpuzzle Doing the	During class (Synchronous) Joining virtual meeting in Zoom Applying eight steps of SOFLA: Pre-work: Sign-in activity: Group quiz in Padlet. Whole class discussion Breakout group activities	After class (Asynchronous) Reviewing additional materials in Moodle Participating in classroom discussions in Moodle Doing Flipgrid exercises (students' response videos) Flipgrid prompt: Which of your

	Present their argumentative speech in front of the group	vocabulary quiz to check the understanding Participating in the classroom discussion in Moodle:	Share-out time Preview and discovery Assignment/Follow up Reflections	friends' dream jobs interests you the most? Why?
	Activities: Group work			

Intervention 7	Topic: My Future Part 1	Before class (Asynchronous)	During class (Synchronous)	After class (Asynchronous)
	Objectives: The students are able to explain the changes in their lives Make a prediction of the changes they may see in their career and their lives Draw and describe their future plan	Watching three videos about personal descriptions, which are available in Moodle Learning new vocabulary and grammar points through exercises in Edpuzzle Doing the vocabulary quiz to check the understanding Participating in the classroom discussion in Moodle:	Joining virtual meeting in Zoom Applying eight steps of SOFLA: Pre-work: Sign-in activity: Whole class discussion Breakout group activities Share-out time Preview and discovery Assignment/Follow up Reflections	Reviewing additional materials in Moodle Participating in classroom discussions in Moodle Doing Flipgrid exercises (students' response videos) Flipgrid prompt: What will you do in the next five years? Why?
	Activities: Group work			

Intervention 8	Topic: My Future Part 2	Before class (Asynchronous)	During class (Synchronous)	After class (Asynchronous)
	Objectives: The students are able to outline a 5-minute persuasive speech using Monroe's Motivated Sequence Present their persuasive speech in the class Give feedback	Watching three videos in Moodle Learning new vocabulary and grammar points through exercises in Edpuzzle Doing the vocabulary quiz to check the understanding Participating in the classroom discussion in	Joining virtual meeting in Zoom Applying eight steps of SOFLA: Pre-work: Sign-in activity: Whole class discussion Breakout group activities Share-out time Preview and discovery Assignment/Follow up Reflections	Reviewing additional materials in Moodle Participating in classroom discussions in Moodle Doing Flipgrid exercises (students' response videos) Flipgrid prompt: Describe your reasons why you choose that career aspiration. Is the anyone who inspires you to

	on classmates' speech using the provided worksheet	Moodle:		choose that career?
	Activities: Group work			

Appendix O: English Proficiency Rubrics for Pre-and Post-Test

Criteria	Score					
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
Comprehension	The student's performance is not enough to be scored	Understand and use familiar expressions	Understand sentences and frequently used expressions related to areas of most immediate relevance	Understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters	Understand the main ideas of complex expressions on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in his/her field of specialization	Understand a wide range of demanding text and recognize implicit meaning
Fluency	The student's performance is not enough to be scored	Make himself/herself understood in very short utterances, even though with pauses	Pause for grammatical and lexical planning.	Produce stretches of language with an even tempo	Express him/herself fluently and spontaneously, almost effortlessly, with a smooth flow of language	Express him/herself spontaneously and very fluently
Accuracy	The student's performance is not enough to be scored	False starts and reformulation are very evident	Some repairs may be very evident	Do not make errors which cause misunderstanding	A high degree of accuracy; errors are rare	Differentiate finer shades of meaning precisely
Complexity	The student's performance is not enough to be scored	Interact, provided that the other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help	Communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple direct exchange of information on familiar matters	Describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes and ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans	Produce clear, detailed utterances on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue	Produce clear, well-structured, detailed utterances on complex subjects, showing controlled use of organizational patterns, and cohesive devices