



A SYSTEMATIC REVIEW OF ONLINE ELT RESEARCH IN INDONESIA DURING THE COVID-19 PANDEMIC THROUGH THE COMMUNITY OF INQUIRY FRAMEWORK

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ABSTRACT

Aim/Purpose	This study attempts to provide a thorough review on online English Language Teaching (ELT) research in Indonesia during the COVID-19 pandemic, with the aim of presenting best practices of online ELT classes for the future blended or hybrid learning scenario. To operationalize the “best practices” of online learning, the Community of Inquiry framework was used as the guiding perspective.
Background	There is a dearth of research employing a systematic review of English Language Teaching (“ELT”) practices in Indonesia carried out during the pandemic, with a view of synthesizing such practices. Such a review is deemed essential in order to provide a comprehensive description of good practices in online English classes, such as in terms of integrating technology into the ELT virtual classes, taking advantage of the experience gained from approximately more than two years of Emergency Remote Learning in the country.
Methodology	This study employed the Research Review methodology, with PRISMA (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis) 2020 to guide

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	<p>the process. Database (Google Scholar and Scopus) search was conducted to find research articles in English on ELT during the pandemic in Indonesia, excluding those that are conceptual in nature. The final list of 94 articles was then coded using the categories in the Community of Inquiry (“CoI”) framework, namely, Teaching, Cognitive, and Social Presence. Inter-rater reliability was computed to assess the risk of bias of the two reviewers. The resulting data, in the form of pieces of “evidence” of the CoI categories, were tabulated and described.</p>
Contribution	<p>This research has contributed to providing a synthesis of online ELT teaching practice in Indonesia during the pandemic, specifically in describing the way teachers enacted the Teaching, Cognitive, and Social Presence online through the use of technology. This paper also describes how such deployment of technology should be accompanied by a selective choice of activities and explicit guidance from teachers, as well as teachers’ supportive attitude. Consequently, this study is probably among the first to carry out a systematic review of emergency online ELT practice during the pandemic from the CoI perspective, addressing a methodological gap of extant online ELT systematic review studies.</p>
Findings	<p>The results show that Teaching Presence constituted the highest number of pieces of evidence, with a caveat that the application of technology should be combined with clear instruction and task requirements. Next, Cognitive Presence needs to be fostered through activities that promote problem solving and critical thinking, such as online discussions, problem- or project-based learning, and self-reflection. Lastly, teachers need to make use of technologies to convey genuine concern for students and create a warm and friendly online environment as part of teaching activities that build Social Presence, although some affective expressions will need to be managed well to prevent some possible undesirable effects.</p>
Recommendations for Practitioners	<p>English teachers in Indonesia, or elsewhere with a similar context to that in the country, can gain insights on the good practice of online learning in terms of teaching methods, media, platforms, assessments, etc. Besides, the online English teaching practices can also inform pre- and in-service teacher education programs, so as to provide technology integration training that has already been tried and empirically tested.</p>
Recommendations for Researchers	<p>For future research, the seemingly fewer pieces of evidence found in Cognitive and Social Presence might be fertile ground for Indonesian ELT scholars to carry out research focusing on those aspects. Much research outside of Indonesia has been conducted around the theme of the application of CoI principles in online English classes, while only a few studies in this respect have been found in the Indonesian context.</p>
Impact on Society	<p>The findings of this study may help inform educational policies with regards to blended/hybrid or restricted face-to-face meetings in schools.</p>
Future Research	<p>This paper has contributed to exemplifying the application of CoI framework as a tool of systematic review in research. Hence, in view of the impending blended, hybrid, or limited face-to-face learning, this type of CoI-framed systematic review research can be replicated in the future to assess the effectiveness of such blended or hybrid teaching mode. Besides, future research could also inquire whether ELT teachers sustain the use of technology in the post-pandemic, on-site learning.</p>

Keywords community of inquiry, COVID-19, ELT, Indonesia, PRISMA, systematic review

INTRODUCTION

The onslaught of the COVID-19 pandemic brought the entire world to a halt. Indonesia is no exception. Apart from dealing with health emergencies, the Indonesian government had to hasten to put “distant learning” in place (Makarim, 2020). English Language Teaching (ELT), which forms part of this educational endeavor, suffered the same fate. Teachers, students, and parents grappled with the somber reality of teaching and learning English online (Mahmud & German, 2021). Within the vast expanse of the archipelago, there is a varying gradation of this supposed distant learning; the more affluent cities managed to set up, within a relatively short time, online English learning classes, making use of free repository platforms (Google Classroom, Schoology) and existing channels of communication, like WhatsApp or Line (Atmojo & Nugroho, 2020). In remote regions, “distant learning” might mean teachers visiting students’ houses, or parents going to schools to get handouts (Lie et al., 2020). In attempts to bridge the gaping inequality, the government has provided various forms of support like airing lessons through the National TV/TVRI (Azzahra, 2020) and giving out free internet data to teachers and students.

Now, more than two years since the report of the first COVID-19 case in March 2020, the health emergency situation has somewhat abated, aided by intensive vaccination drives and differing degree of movement restrictions. With the sloping down of the COVID-19 case curve, the Ministry of Education urged schools and universities to resume the face-to-face or in-person learning (Makarim, 2020), albeit in stages and with strict health protocols (Karana, 2021). Different modes of learning have been envisaged, like hybrid or blended learning, where online and offline learning happen at the same time. Thus, it is safe to presume that online learning will not be completely abandoned but will continue to be in place as part of health measures or even to enhance independent learning, as several studies claim (Busa et al., 2020; Fatonina et al., 2020; Kusumaningrum et al., 2020).

With more than two years of online learning experience at hand, the time is ripe to look back and take stock of what the country has achieved when it comes to integrating technology into English teaching and learning. Indeed, online teaching during the pandemic has generated a plethora of interest from scholars of the nation to carry out research and publish scientific articles under this topic. A quick online academic database search in Lens.org with “online English class pandemic Indonesia” as the keywords generated close to 240 articles, a feat for a span of 20 months when the search took place. Those articles constitute a treasure trove of information of the various teaching methodology, media, platform, and assessment used by English teachers all over Indonesia to tide them over during this emergency remote learning situation. Therefore, at this juncture, it seems propitious for a review of research to be carried out with the aim of synthesizing the best practices of online ELT classes by Indonesian educators and researchers thus far.

Before going further, key terms and definitions used in this study, namely the concept of “ELT” and “online learning framework”, are presented first, followed by a glance at past research related to research review on online courses. The Methodology section is structured following the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) framework, with the headings representing the PRISMA steps. Lastly, the Results and Discussion parts are elaborated from the perspective of the Community of Inquiry’s Teaching, Cognitive, and Social Presences.

KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

English Language Teaching (ELT)

Appearing for the first time in Autumn 1946, “English Language Teaching”, and its acronym “ELT”, was the title of a new journal by the British Council (Howatt & Widdowson, 2004). Since then, owing to

migration, internationalization of education, globalization, and online communication, ELT has emerged as a distinct and recognizable entity (Hall as cited in Enever, 2016). For this paper, ELT is regarded as a focus of study in which research and discussion are aimed at developing the field, with topics such as classroom methodology, assessment and curriculum design, and technology integration. (Hall as cited in Enever, 2016). Other emerging ELT issues, such as ‘World Englishes’, ‘English as Lingua Franca’, or ‘Linguistic Imperialism’, are outside the scope of this study. In accord with the status of English in Indonesia as ‘the expanding circle’ (Kachru, 1990), the definition of ELT in this research also includes “English as Foreign Language” (EFL).

Online learning framework

There are several conceptual frameworks and guidelines that inform online education design and evaluation, such as the Seven Principles developed by Chickering and Gamson (1987), Community of Practice (“CoP”) by Etienne Wenger (1999), and Community of Inquiry (“CoI”), inspired by John Dewey (1897/1959) and developed by several scholars such as Garrison et al. (1999). This study will conform to the CoI principles, comprising Teaching Presence, Cognitive Presence, and Social Presence (Swan et al., 2009). In the first place, Teaching Presence comprises Design and Organization, Facilitating Discourse, and Direct Instruction, needed to direct the activities of Cognitive and Social Presence in order to achieve the desired learning outcome. Cognitive Presence consists of four phrases (Triggering Events, Exploration, Integration, and Resolution) whereby students learn to construct and confirm meaning through personal reflection and discussion. Lastly, Affective Expression, Open Communication, and Group Cohesion constitute the Social Presence, which enable students to feel comfortable and have a sense of belonging to the class, even while learning online. (Swan et al., 2009). The diagrammatic representation of the framework is depicted in Figure 1.



Figure 1. Community of Inquiry framework (Garrison et al., 1999)

The CoI model is deemed most adequate for framing online learning experience due to its strong grounding on social constructivism (Vygotsky, 1991); online learners build knowledge while socially collaborating with peers as they are taking part in activities orchestrated by the instructors. Coupled with John Dewey’s philosophy of education, CoI has been proposed as the model for online learning setting, notably in higher education (Swan et al., 2009). Thus, this study proposes to be guided by the CoI principles, specifically in reviewing the selected articles of EFL online learning in Indonesia, in order to offer a synthesis and recommendation of best possible practices of online ELT classes.

The CoI framework is typically utilized as assessment criteria in the form of survey instruments. Arbaugh et al. (2008) were perhaps among the first to develop and test such instruments. They noted that Teaching Presence was made up of two constructs, one related to the design and organization of the online course and the other to the teachers' behavior during the online class (Arbaugh et al., 2008). Stewart (2019) developed a similar survey, focusing specifically on online English writing course. Recently, Smidt et al. (2021) made use of the survey to examine how Malaysian Global English users experienced the three presences of CoI in their online course. The CoI instruments used in those cited studies constitute valuable input for the present work, in particular for the categorization of the data.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Past research reviews on online education provided a sketch of works done by scholars in this field. Sun and Chen (2016) employed a qualitative content analysis approach and reviewed 47 articles on online teaching and learning since 2008. They utilized the CoI principles in their data analysis, categorizing the emerging themes into Cognitive Presence, Social Presence, and Teaching Presence. The authors concluded that the factors determining the success of an online course are (1) well-designed course content, motivated interaction between the instructor and learners, well-prepared and fully-supported instructors; (2) creation of a sense of online learning community; and (3) rapid advancement of technology. Another qualitative research review of online courses was done by Zhu et al. (2020), who surveyed 541 empirical research on Massive Open Online Courses (MOOC) published between 2009 and 2019. They utilized Cooper's (1988) Taxonomy of Literature Review as the review design. The outcome of their review includes a description of the research method, data collection, data analysis, research topics, and research affiliation of those MOOC papers. Although the purposes of the previous research studies differ from this present work, they provide valuable insights into the field of systematic review of online learning.

In more recent times, several other review studies specifically addressed online learning during the pandemic. Toquero (2021) in the Philippines employed document analysis to determine the effectiveness of the Emergency Remote Education (ERE) in her country during the pandemic, described the various challenges besetting this effort, and offered various recommendations on learning platforms and policies. She also listed several challenges to ERE such as internet connectivity, technological skills, choice of platforms, and the lack of innovative strategies, among others. As for learning platforms, having content repositories has proven useful for students and teachers in the country. Bond (2021) conducted a thorough systematic review on K-12 online teaching and learning during the pandemic, making use of the bioecological model of student engagement as the framework of reference to analyze the 89 articles. She uncovered several features of the emergency remote learning among the K-12 research, such as the predominance of online survey as the research instrument, the research loci focused in Europe and Asia, and the domination of the Teacher aspect (73 studies) within the microsystem of the bioecological model. Similarly, Ibna Seraj et al. (2022) reviewed 45 studies conducted between March 2020 and April 2021, in order to examine the online pedagogical and assessment practices during the pandemic. Through thematic analysis and descriptive statistic, they unveiled the benefits and challenges of the online teaching and assessment, as well as the popular technological platforms to support the remote teaching.

Focusing on English teaching and learning, two review studies attempted to paint the picture of the impact of the pandemic on the global ELT scene. Erarslan (2021) investigated 69 research studies conducted between March 2020 and February 2021 in order to unearth the research features, the effectiveness of online learning implementation, and the teachers'/students' attitudes and motivations. Through thematic analysis, the author identified poor internet connectivity and unequal access to gadgets as the predominant challenges that frequently surfaced among the papers reviewed. Moorhouse and Kohnke (2021) likewise performed a systematic review on 55 empirical studies undertaken after January 2020. Besides providing the research metrics, such as research location, methodology, and educational context, the thematic analysis unveiled three main features: the potentials and affordances of technology, challenges in terms of pedagogical adaptation, and the unequal access to technological infrastructure or the so-called digital divide.

In the context of Indonesia, Prestiadi et al. (2020) carried out a review of 60 research articles to examine the online learning implementation and effectiveness during the early stage of the pandemic. The result of the descriptive analysis revealed that online learning is less effective compared to face-to-face mode due to various factors coming from the teachers and students as well as the technological tools. However, they also identified several advantages of online learning, such as flexibility of time and ease of material access for the students. Faridah (2022) performed a systematic review of 58 journal articles and proceedings related to online learning in Indonesia published between 2017 and 2021, in order to unravel the pre- and post-pandemic ELT challenges from four perspectives: technical, pedagogical, socio-economic, and institutional. The findings listed down the four-pronged challenges, together with the respective, proposed strategies to overcome them.

The aforementioned review studies of emergency remote learning in Indonesia and other countries, while being valuable in presenting the research features and listing down the various aspects of online learning during the pandemic, somewhat lack a conceptual framework that enables the integration of the differing online learning features into a best practice in enacting online ELT practice. A further step is needed to distil the lessons learned during the pandemic (Moorhouse & Kohnke, 2021), framing it against online learning design principles. We attempt to address this methodological gap by carrying out a systematic review of online ELT research in Indonesia during the pandemic from the perspective of the CoI framework, with the aim of presenting a synthesis of Indonesian teachers' online learning practice in the aspect of Teaching, Cognitive, and Social Presences. In other words, we intend to portray to what extent the online teaching practice by Indonesian teachers reflect sound learning theories.

In sum, this study seeks to carry out a qualitative research review concerning the practices of online ELT classes, in particular online classes enacted due to the Emergency Remote Learning condition, in Indonesia during the pandemic framed from the CoI Principles. From the emerging trends being mapped out and identified by the CoI framework, suggestions and recommendations for the upcoming face-to-face or hybrid/blended learning are made, in order to effectively integrate technology in offline settings or other learning modes in ELT classes, particularly in Indonesia and other countries with similar contexts and characteristics. In other words, this study aims at answering the question of how online ELT classes have been carried out in Indonesia in reference to the principles of the CoI framework.

METHODOLOGY

As with many works employing Systematic Review Methodology, this study is guided by the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) framework, originally published by Moher et al. in 2009 and subsequently updated in 2020 (Page et al., 2021). Adhering to a reporting guideline is crucial in ensuring transparent, clear, and comprehensive systematic review articles. This study adopts the PRISMA guideline due to its rising popularity among systematic review scholars as evidenced by the numerous endorsements and citations (Page et al., 2021). Besides, the guideline is regularly reviewed and updated by experts in methodologies and journal editors (Sohrabi et al., 2021), and thus ensuring its relevance and rigor. In recent times, several studies in the field of education employed PRISMA to guide their systematic review (Bond, 2021; Crompton et al., 2021; Khashaba, 2020; Mohamed et al., 2020; Na & Jung, 2021), with one pertaining specifically to ELT, investigating the trends and issues in the use of the Flipped Classroom model for teaching English (Turan & Akdag-Cimen, 2020). These studies provide an invaluable point of reference for this research. The following subsections describe how the PRISMA framework was applied to this study.

ELIGIBILITY CRITERIA

In the first stage of the data collection process, the inclusion and exclusion criteria were established. This study included peer-reviewed, open access journal articles written in English, having Indonesia as the geographical context of research, and published from 2020 onwards. Hence, book chapters, dissertations, and conference proceedings were considered not eligible, so as to provide a uniform focus to the study.

The resulting articles found were grouped and analyzed within each category of the CoI framework and will be explained further in the Synthesis Method sub-section.

INFORMATION SOURCES

The database search was conducted in mid-October 2021, drawing from two sources. The first was Harzing's Publish or Perish (PoP) software (Harzing, 2007) with Google Scholar (<https://scholar.google.com>) as the database of choice. Secondly, Scopus database, with its well-curated and high-quality collection of abstracts and citations (Baas et al., 2020), was also consulted. By drawing from these two sources, it is believed that the extensive collection of Google Scholar could complement the fewer but more choice selection of Scopus (Harzing & Alakangas, 2016).

SEARCH STRATEGY

In line with the research question, the following search string with the Boolean operators was applied to the query space in the database: ("english teaching" OR "english language teaching" OR "english as a foreign language" OR "EFL" OR "english learning" OR "ELT") AND ("pandemic" OR "COVID-19" OR "COVID 19" OR "online learning" OR "remote learning" OR "online teaching") AND ("Indonesia" OR "Indonesian").

In PoP, the search string was entered into the Title Words and Keywords queries. Similarly, a Document search was performed in Scopus, within the Article title, Abstract, and Keywords. For Subject Area or Field of Study, it was left unrestricted in all of the searches, without specifying it to, for example, English Language, to include the possibility of the teaching of English in other fields. All the search process was filtered by year (2020-now), publication type (journal article), and when available, language (English).

SELECTION PROCESS

The initial search in PoP returned 430 articles, while a total of 47 articles were retrieved from Scopus. After duplicate removal, the resulting list of articles was 458. A quick scanning of the article's title and abstract resulted in more removal of ineligible articles, namely those which do not pertain to Indonesia nor ELT, are not written in English, and do not belong to empirical research work (e.g., research review, meta-analysis, conceptual paper). The remaining number of articles were 292. In this process, two of the authors worked independently to screen the articles, with one doing the first round of selection, and the other verifying the resulting list of articles selected.

DATA COLLECTION PROCESS

In accordance with CoI framework, a simple data coding system was created to enable the data collection process from the articles gathered. Table 1 shows the CoI elements, categories, and sample indicators as depicted in Garrison et al. (1999) and the proposed coding system for this study.

Table 1. CoI categories and indicators with the proposed codes

CoI ELEMENTS	CATEGORY	INDICATORS (EXAMPLES ONLY)	CODES
Teaching Presence	Design and organization	Setting curriculum and activities	T1
	Facilitating discourse	Shaping constructive exchange	T2
	Direct instruction	Focusing and resolving issues	T3
Cognitive presence	Triggering events	Sense of puzzlement	C1
	Exploration	Information exchange	C2
	Integration	Connecting ideas	C3
	Resolution	Applying new ideas	C4
Social presence	Affective expression	Self-projection, expressing emotion	S1
	Open communication	Learning climate/risk-free expression	S2
	Group cohesion and col-laboration	Group identity/collaboration	S3

In order to provide a more explicit guideline for the “Indicators”, the instrument developed and validated by Arbaugh et al. (2008) and another employed by Smidt et al. (2021) were used to further breakdown the indicators to several concrete acts. In particular, the questionnaire items of Smidt et al. (2021) were paraphrased (e.g., from “Course activities piqued my curiosity” to “Course activities piqued students’ curiosity”) and modified to include the perspective of Arbaugh et al. (2008) regarding the “bifurcation” of pre-course and in-course activities in the construct of Teaching Presence. The resulting indicators and the grouping can be seen in Appendix A, which was then used to guide the coding process in this study.

All articles, particularly the Method, Results and Discussion sections therein, were then read carefully and tagged manually with the relevant codes whenever they contain evidence of one or more categories or elements of CoI. For example, an article showing the evidence of teachers using online database (<http://en.childrenslibrary.org>) to encourage students to read a book and review the book was tagged as C4, namely, Cognitive Presence at the level of Resolution, since this activity enabled the students to find new information and represent it in a different way. This process was carried out for all the articles, and the result was tabulated in Microsoft Excel. Two of the authors divided this coding process among them, and the third reviewed the result. Measures to ensure inter-rater reliability are detailed in the “Bias Assessment” sub-section.

The closer reading and inspection of the articles resulted in more elimination of some since they were found not to suit the purpose of this research. Examples of articles removed were those that involved online classes before the pandemic, covered multiple countries (not just in Indonesia), only studied perceptions of teachers/students, or were written in a manner which renders the description of the procedures ambiguous, thus lacking potentiality in fulfilling the CoI categories. The final number of articles used in this study was 94. The entire search and selection process are represented diagrammatically as Figure 2.

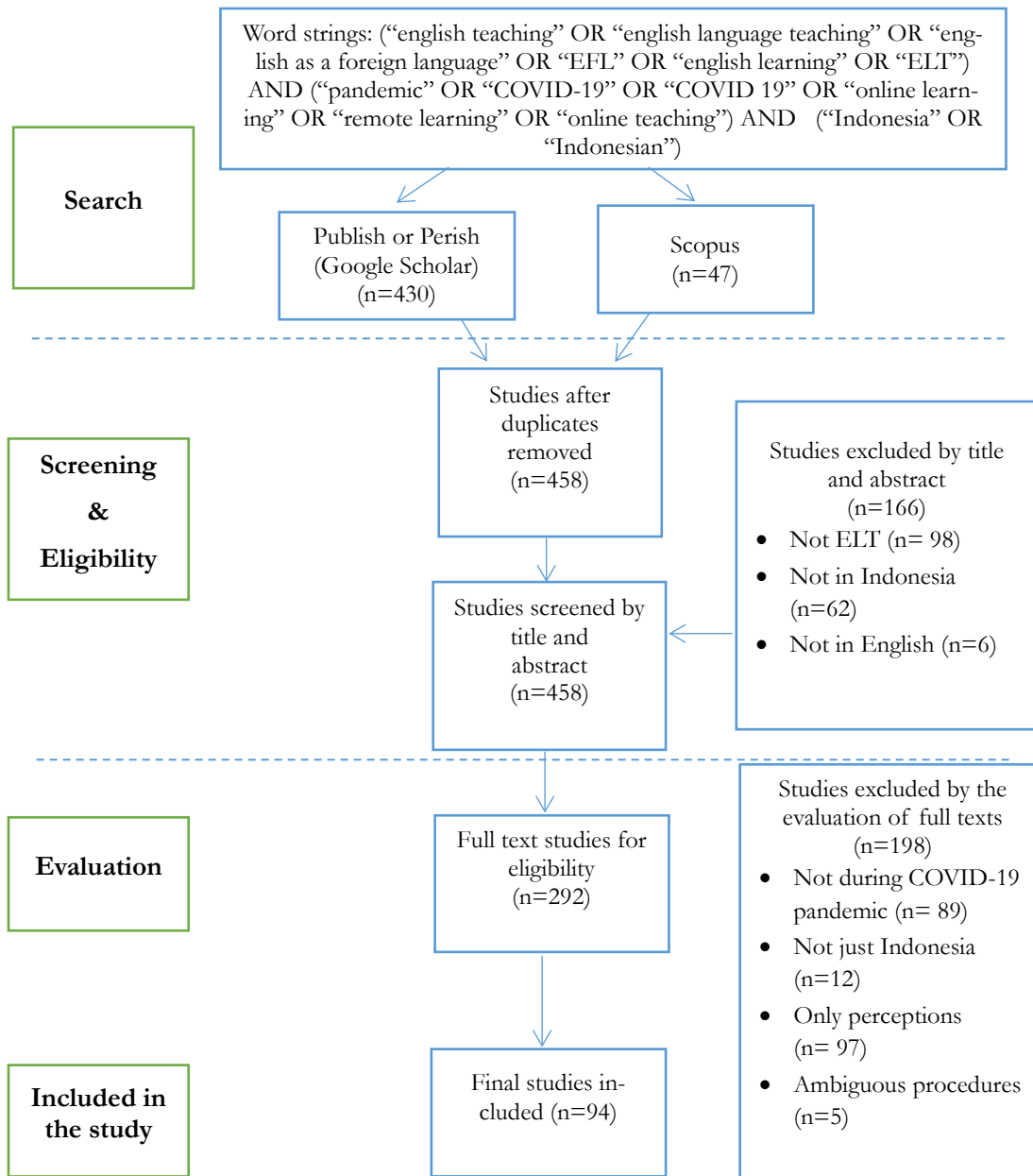


Figure 2. The flow diagram of the search process based on PRISMA 2020

DATA ITEMS

Data items were made up of pieces of “evidence”, namely, any description in the article that matches any one or more of the Indicators and Categories as presented in Table 1 and Appendix A. Hence, one article may contain one or more pieces of evidence. The evidence was tabulated in Microsoft Excel, under the heading indicating the corresponding codes (T1, T2, T3, C1, C2, ...). The data were also categorized as positive or negative. A positive sign signifies the presence of the category which proves beneficial for the community in question (students, teachers, the schools). An example would be the use of comics to teach narrative essay in the online class that was perceived to be useful by the students. On the other hand, a negative sign indicates the absence of the evidence in a particular category, or a deviation of it, which is seen to cause adverse impact to the learning community. For example, the absence of direct teaching through synchronous sessions by a teacher was claimed by the students to contribute to their inability to comprehend the materials well. The negative evidence was marked red in the Excel file for quick identification. Finally, any evidence regarded as unique or outstanding, be it positive or negative, would be highlighted in bold.

Two of the authors held frequent discussions to decide whether or not to include particular data as evidence, based on the context in which they were reported in the article. Both authors reached an agreement, for example, to exclude evidence lying outside the control of students and teachers (e.g., technical problems, poor network connection, or insufficient internet load), as well as evidence in the form of only quantitative survey results (e.g., majority of students voted “strongly agree” and “agree” when asked whether teaching using WhatsApp was effective). Hence, data in the form of interview result were deemed to be more valuable and substantial.

In order to show samples of the data items (evidence) and the way they are tabulated, the tabulation and coding for five randomly-selected articles are presented as Table 2.

Table 2. A sample of the data items (evidences) and their tabulation

No.	Articles with Article No, Authors, Year of Publication, and Title	EVIDENCES									
		T1	T2	T3	C1	C2	C3	C4	S1	S2	S3
1	1. Atmojo, A. E. P, & Nugroho, A. (2020). EFL classes must go online! Teaching activities and challenges during COVID-19 pandemic in Indonesia.	Google classroom and School-ogy, TedED and Fast Stone Capture (video making apps) YouTube, Kahoot, Quizziz, Google Form, Ruang-guru	WhatsApp Group (WAG) used for online discussion	Zoom, Audodesk Sketchbook (like an online white-board). Personalized feedback through Google Classroom		WhatsApp (WA) used for online discussion		Find a book from an online library site and review it			

2	3. Nartiningrum, N., & Nugroho, A. (2020). Online learning amidst global pandemic: EFL students' challenges, suggestions, and needed materials.	(Negative) need more music and games to learn in a relaxed way. No clear task deadline		(negative) Cannot see the teacher directly, No Zoom. No feedback given.						(negative) students missed their friends
3.	6. Tamah, SM, Triwidayati, KR, & ... (2020). Secondary school language teachers' online learning engagement during the COVID-19 pandemic in Indonesia.	Google Classroom, Schoology, Microsoft 365, Edmodo to store learning materials	WAG and Line for online instruction and discussion	Zoom, Microsoft Teams for teaching						

4.	7. Octaberlina, LR, Anggarini, IF, & Muslimin, AI (2020). Virtual English teaching in remote area: a case study.	YouTube, homemade videos, Google form for quizzes	WA, Facebook for online discussion	Zoom for direct teaching		Use google voice to check pronunciation				
5.	8. Sugianto, A, & Ulfah, N (2020). Construing the challenges and opportunities of intercultural language teaching amid Covid-19 pandemic: English teachers' voices.	YouTube, Google form, games, crossword, Google Classroom	WA, WA voice note (for students to ask questions) Twitter	Zoom, Skype. Google Meet, Cisco WebEx. WA to give feedback.		Video and picture were used for questions and discussions		Students had to present about their own culture, but not so clear how		

Bias assessment

Although two authors divided the 94 articles between them and worked independently to code the data, several meetings were held to discuss the results. Besides, to determine the inter-rater reliability of the data-coding process, 12 articles were selected at random and coded by both authors separately, following Turan and Akdag-Cimen (2020). Both sets of codes were then entered into SPSS 23 to find the Cohen's Kappa. The resulting value of 0.501 ($p < 0.01$) indicated "moderate" agreement, as per Viera and Garrett (2005). For coding results that were not in agreement, further review by all three authors ensured full alignment of the data collected.

Synthesis method

To synthesize the data collected, the evidence in each category was analyzed manually in each column, in order to obtain a general description or the dominant theme of the teaching practice within that category, while highlighting some practices that seem unique or outstanding. For example, under T1, it could be seen that, in general, English teachers made use of a Learning Management System (Google Classroom, Schoology, Edmodo, Moodle), cloud sharing platform (Google Drive, Dropbox), and educational applications (Kahoot!, Quizziz, Padlet, etc.), and various teaching media (YouTube videos) in designing and organizing their online class. However, an article described the ingenious use of a digital comic in a grammar class. This data was highlighted and reported in the synthesis. The same process was repeated for the other categories. The resulting summary is presented in a tabulated form, each table for each of the "presence" (Teaching Presence, Cognitive Presence, and Social Presence), which is shown in the Result section. Both authors reviewed the resulting synthesis to ensure the comprehensiveness of both the general summary and the highlights.

RESULTS

This study set out to find the ELT teaching practice in Indonesia during the pandemic, through the perspective of Community of Inquiry (CoI), a framework for online learning design. Hence, it attempts to synthesize the various research that provided evidence of Teaching Presence, Cognitive Presence, and Social Presence that make up the categories of CoI. To illustrate the result, the number of pieces of evidence found in each category was first tallied and depicted in a bar chart, as shown in Figure 3. The complete list of the articles used in this study is given in Appendix B.

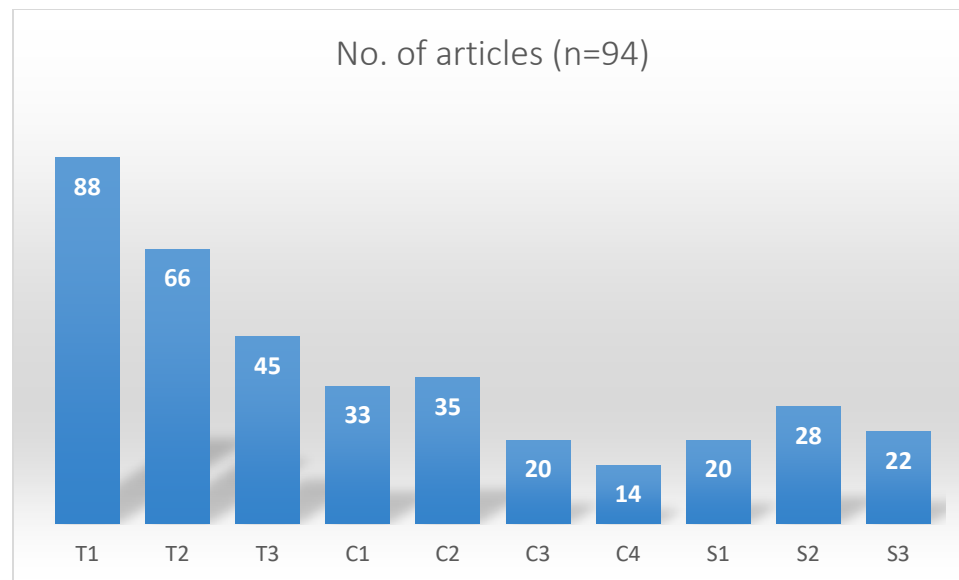


Figure 3. The tabulated result of the Number of Articles vs CoI Codes

It can be seen from Figure 3 that the evidence for Teaching Presence (T1, T2, T3) is the one appearing the greatest number of times, in a total of 199 occurrences. This is understandable since it is the main criteria of selecting the articles, and it is in line with the aim of this study, namely, to reveal the various online teaching practices during the pandemic. As for the other categories, the pieces of evidence for Cognitive Presence (C1, C2, C3, C4) were identified in a total of 102 occurrences, while the indications of Social Presence (S1, S2, S3) were found in 70 occurrences.

It should be noted that, although the pieces of evidence for Cognitive and Social Presence individually appear to be less than those of Teaching Presence, it does not necessarily mean that, in practice, English teachers in Indonesia did not carry out teaching activities that bear cognitive and social imprint on the students; it might simply mean that they were not reported, not described, nor studied.

TEACHING PRESENCE

The synthesis result for Teaching Presence is shown in Table 3. The complete list of articles indicating Teaching Presence category is given in Appendix B.

Table 3. The synthesis result for Teaching Presence

COI ELEMENTS	CATEGORY	DESCRIPTION	SAMPLE ARTICLES
Teaching Presence	Design and organization (T1)	Positive: teachers used free Learning Management Systems (“LMS”) (Google Classroom, Schoology, Edmodo, Microsoft 365, Moodle, SPADA, Canvas, etc) or LMS provided by the schools. Teaching media: YouTube/TEDEd videos, images, PowerPoint, pdf files, songs. Social media: Facebook, Instagram. Instant messaging service: WhatsApp and Telegram. Quiz applications: Google Form, Kahoot!, Quizziz, EdPuzzle, etc. Cloud storage: Google Drive. Educational website: Ruangguru, Grammarly, Duplilchecker, BBC podcast, Powtoon, Screen-castify, Canva, Flipgrid, Quipper, etc. Mobile	(Atmojo & Nugroho, 2020), (Syahrizal & Pamungkas, 2021), (Suprayogi & Eko, 2020), (Tathahira & Sriayu, 2020), (Sundarwati & Pahlevi, 2021), (Maulidiawati & Mulyani, 2021), (Ria, 2021), (Lie et al., 2020), (Octaberlina et al., 2020), (Sugianto et al., 2020), (Pasaribu

		phone applications: Busuu, ELLO English, English Speaking and Listening, English Podcast. English programs on National TV (TVRI). Teaching activities: workshop, voice notes recording, virtual tourism exhibition. Teaching model: Flipped Classroom, Extensive Listening, Dialogic Journal Writing. Teachers kept reminding students to attend online classes or of important deadlines/due dates. Teachers adjusted the curriculum based on the situation.	& Dewi, 2021), (Maru et al., 2020)
		<u>Negative:</u> the absence of video-conferencing tool made it difficult to provide extended explanation. Students got bored due to the lack of variety in teaching method/media. Learning materials, applications, and assignments were given without clear instructions.	(Nartiningrum & Nugroho, 2020), (Virgin et al., 2021), (Maulidiawati & Mulyani, 2021)
	Facilitating discourse (T2)	<u>Positive:</u> Teachers used instant messaging service (WhatsApp (“WA”) and its Voice Notes, Telegram, Line), social media (Facebook walls, Twitter), direct phone/video call, synchronous session (Zoom, Google Meet) and the Discussion features in LMS to ask questions to students, and to discuss issues. Teachers used educational applications (games, polls) to engage students.	(Atmojo & Nugroho, 2020), (Ermawati et al., 2021). (Lie et al., 2020), (Octaberlina et al., 2020), (Sugianto & Ulfah, 2020)
		<u>Negative:</u> Lack of interaction in WA; it’s only used to send materials. No discussion, only giving assignments. Students felt bored when watching long videos or long texts. Students felt they only received answers from fellow students, not from teachers.	(Ariyanti, 2020). (Haryanto, 2021). (Muslimin & Harintama, 2020)
	Direct instruction (T3)	<u>Positive:</u> Teacher did synchronous teaching session through Zoom, Google Meet, Jitsi, Microsoft Teams, Cisco WebEx, Skype, Discord, Big Blue Button. Some only through WhatsApp Groups. Students like the ‘raise hand’ feature of Zoom. Students were happy that the Zoom lessons were recorded for re-watching. Teachers used instant messaging service and LMS to give feedback and to clarify matters. Teachers and students gave feedback and peer feedback respectively to audio/video files sent by the students or posted on the LMS/cloud sharing platform.	(Atmojo & Nugroho, 2020), (Lie et al., 2020), (Octaberlina et al., 2020), (Rabbianty & Wafi, 2021), (Sugianto & Ulfah, 2020), (Mutiaraningrum & Nugroho, 2020)
		<u>Negative:</u> the absence of direct instruction made it harder for students to understand the materials. Students were more anxious during synchronous meeting. Students still felt that explanation given through Zoom has less efficacy than face-to-face meeting. Students got bored in Zoom. Time	(Nartiningrum & Nugroho, 2020), (Rahman, 2020), (Suryana et al., 2021), (Mutiaraningrum & Nugroho, 2021), (Muslimin &

		constraint when using non-Zoom Pro account. Students reported no feedback was given to assignments submitted. Teachers were unable to give feedback to all students. Feedback got buried under other WhatsApp messages.	Harintama, 2020), (Rabbianty & Wafi, 2021)
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Table 3 shows that English teachers across Indonesia utilized a variety of teaching applications and media for the Design and Organization (T1) of their classes, as indicated by the “positive” evidence. In instances where there are limitations in the use of some teaching platform or a variety of teaching media, the adverse effect on the students can be gleaned from their comments as summarized in the “negative” evidence, such as the inability to provide an extended explanation in the absence of video-conferencing tools (Budianto & Arifani, 2021), or the feeling of monotony felt by the students when there was little variety in the use of teaching media (for example, Anggrarini & Faturokhman, 2021; Nartiningrum & Nugroho, 2020; Virgin et al., 2021).

Several teachers also evidenced creativity in the use of media or in the course design, such as using Flipgrid (a video-sharing platform) to teach Speaking (Syahrizal & Pamungkas, 2021) or conducting a virtual tourism exhibition project in an ESP (English for Tourism) program, in which students showcased interesting features of their hometown at home (Suprayogi & Eko, 2020).

Besides employing various technological tools as described above, teachers’ actions that represent good practice in the category of Design and Organization include giving clear submission due dates (Tathahira & Sriayu, 2020) and frequent reminders to the students of class schedules and important deadlines (Ria, 2021; Sundarwati & Pahlevi, 2021). Other teachers also allowed for flexibility in curriculum implementation, in the light of the pandemic situation (Tathahira & Sriayu, 2020). These gestures were appreciated by the students, who seem to be overwhelmed by various online activities and assignments (Maulidiawati & Mulyani, 2021).

As for facilitating discourse (T2), teachers typically make use of instant messaging services (WhatsApp, Line, Telegram), social media (Facebook walls, Twitter), video-conferencing platforms (Zoom, Google Meet) and the Discussion features in the various Learning Management Systems to ask questions to students and to discuss issues. A teacher was even reported to call his students via phone to find out if they understand the lessons (Ermawati et al., 2021). Teachers also made use of various educational applications like games, quizzes, and polls to engage students.

However, in other cases, teachers only used instant messaging platforms and LMS to send materials and assignments, without giving sufficient explanation (Ariyanti, 2020; Haryanto, 2021; Muslimin & Harintama, 2020). In instances when there was a lack of variety in teaching approaches and media, students felt bored and disengaged (Nartiningrum & Nugroho, 2020).

Lastly, the majority of teachers carried out direct instruction (T3) through video-conferencing tools like Zoom, Google Meet, Jitsi, Microsoft Teams, Cisco WebEx, Skype, Discord, and Big Blue Button (for example, Atmojo & Nugroho, 2020; Lie et al., 2020). Due to financial constraint, some teachers carried out the entire teaching through WhatsApp or recorded voice notes (Budianto & Arifani, 2021; Rabbianty & Wafi, 2021). There were positive evidences on students’ satisfaction with Zoom and its features, coupled with the fact that the sessions can be recorded for re-watching (Budianto & Arifani, 2021). In other articles, the absence of direct instruction was seen to lessen the comprehension of the materials on the part of the students (Nartiningrum & Nugroho, 2020; Rahman, 2020; Suryana et al., 2021).

Another aspect of Direct Instruction is feedback provision, and this was done by giving feedback to students’ works or posts, either by the teachers or peers. In other instances, teachers were either too overwhelmed with works, or faced technological challenges, such that they were seen as not

providing feedback at all, or only to selected students (Muslimin & Harintama, 2020; Nartiningrum & Nugroho, 2020; Rahman, 2020). The use of instant messaging service also caused feedback messages to be ‘buried’ in the chats (Rabbianty & Wafi, 2021). This “negative” evidence showed that students really appreciate feedback and will miss it when it is absent.

COGNITIVE PRESENCE

Table 4 shows the synthesis result for Cognitive Presence. The complete list of the articles containing Cognitive Presence categories can also be found in Appendix B.

Table 4. The synthesis result for Cognitive Presence

COI ELEMENTS	CATEGORY	DESCRIPTION	SAMPLE ARTICLES
Cognitive Presence	Triggering events (C1)	<u>Positive</u> : Teachers activated students’ prior knowledge through discussion or activities at the beginning of the lesson. Students were encouraged to listen to English news independently after being taught using English news. Teachers showed a comic at the beginning of the lesson to check if the students understand comic humour. Teacher used a variety of learning applications that made the students curious to try them on their own.	(Utomo & Ahsanah, 2020), (Taopan & Siregar, 2021), (Zaini & Triyana, 2021), (Virgin et al., 2021), (Situmorang et al., 2020). (Setyowati et al., 2020)
		<u>Negative</u> : Students felt bored and disengaged during online learning. Students felt that the course activities were beyond their capability.	(Usemahu & Fernandita, 2021). (C. T. Hapsari, 2021)
	Exploration (C2)	<u>Positive</u> : Students used google translate to find the words’ meaning or to check the right pronunciation. Students explored the various links or references provided by the teacher. Students used the subtitle feature in YouTube video to learn English. Students felt helped by discussion, posts, and translations. The use of FB Poll feature to know the nationality of students’ international friends. Students can choose the text type to discuss, or the application to make the pamphlets.	(F. R. Hapsari, 2021), (Octaberlina et al., 2020). (Muslimin & Harintama, 2020), (Vidhiyasi et al., 2021), (Suwartono, 2021), (Santoso, 2021), (Muth-mainnah, 2020)
		<u>Negative</u> : Students were only given the theory and text to read. Students didn’t get motivated to learn from YouTube if the videos were long.	(Haryanto, 2021), (Anggrarini & Fatur-okhman, 2021)
	Integration (C3)	<u>Positive</u> : Students made mind maps, summarised notes or books. Problem- or project-based learning: making videos, digital trailers. creating a virtual exhibition booth, interviewing foreign students. Self-reflection on students’ own works (writing, videos)	(Yundayani et al., 2021), (Lisa et al., 2021), (Al-Munawwarah et al., 2021), (Suwartono, 2021)
		<u>Negative</u> : students were only given “theories” and were told to self-study. Students felt there is not enough speaking practice.	(Haryanto, 2021), (Mahmud & German, 2021)
	Resolution (C4)	<u>Positive</u> : Students made a video when learning about ‘process essay’ and posted it on YouTube. Students retell the story of the comic in their own words. Students made presentation about their city’s culture.	(Setyowati et al., 2021). (Utomo & Ahsanah, 2020), (Sugianto & Ulfah, 2020)

		<u>Negative:</u> students were only given “theories” and were told to self-study	(Haryanto, 2021), (Mahmud & German, 2021)
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As can be seen in Table 4, for Cognitive Presence, the Triggering Events (C1) were primarily achieved through online discussions or activities that motivated the students to be interested in the subjects. Some of the ways used to arouse students’ curiosity and interest were by inserting questions in a video file for students to watch and answer (Virgin et al., 2021), showing a comic and getting students to appreciate the humor behind it (Utomo & Ahsanah, 2020), or utilizing various learning applications (Taopan & Siregar, 2021). From the negative evidence, it appears that the lack of such activities caused the students to disengage (Usemahu & Fernandita, 2021) or to feel overwhelmed by the seemingly complex learning materials (Ria, 2021).

Next, activities that triggered the students’ cognitive experience of Exploration (C2) were tasks that enabled students to use a variety of learning resources (Google Translate and its pronunciation audio, YouTube Auto-translate feature (F. R. Hapsari, 2021)), online discussion (Suwartono, 2021), or activities that necessitate them to interact with people outside the class (Santoso, 2021). Exploratory experience was also obtained by giving the students freedom to choose, such as selecting the types of text (email, report, procedural text) that they prefer to prioritize in (Ariebowo, 2021) or choosing the application to make a pamphlet (Muthmainnah, 2020). On the other hand, there were also voices from students stating that they were unmotivated when told to only read articles (Haryanto, 2021) or watch videos of long duration (Anggrarini & Faturakhman, 2021), perhaps suggesting that the sense of exploration was either missing or quickly evaporating.

In the category of Integration (C3), students were asked to create mind-maps (Yundayani et al., 2021), to take note and to subsequently summarize the notes (Arianto, 2020), and to review books in a digital library (Atmojo & Nugroho, 2020). Other types of activities that typically create a sense of integration are problem or project-based learning, such as making videos (Lisa et al., 2021), creating digital short story trailers (Al-Munawwarah et al., 2021), and interviewing foreign students (Santoso, 2021). Teachers also conducted reflection activities for students to analyze the strength and weakness of their written works (Suwartono, 2021) or video products (Syahrizal & Pamungkas, 2021). On the other hand, the absence of such activities is perhaps indicated by students who lamented that they were just “learning the theories” (Haryanto, 2021), were simply told to do self-study (Mahmud & German, 2021), or not given enough opportunities to practice (Maulidiawati & Mulyani, 2021).

Lastly, the positive evidence in the category of Resolution (C4) can be seen in the forms of activities where students could apply what they learn in situations close to real life. Examples of such activities were students making presentations about their own culture (Sugianto & Ulfah, 2020; Suprayogi & Eko, 2020), making a video on a process after learning about process essays (Setyowati et al., 2021), or retelling comics in their own words (Utomo & Ahsanah, 2020). The negative evidence in this category seems similar to the preceding categories, namely the sense of boredom and monotony experienced by the students, when the Resolution kind of activity is not carried out.

SOCIAL PRESENCE**Table 5. The synthesis result for Social Presence**

COI ELEMENTS	CATEGORY	DESCRIPTION	SAMPLE ARTICLES
Social Presence	Affective expression	<u>Positive</u> : Students were asked to press 'like', give "reactions", or provide comments to friends' posting. Teacher gave encouragement via emoticons	(Setyowati et al., 2021). (E. Wulandari & Mandasari, 2021)
		<u>Negative</u> : Students posted harsh and unbecoming comments. Redundant posts in WhatsApp 'drowned' important messages. Students get discouraged if they received few 'likes'. The more introverted students enjoyed online learning more than offline.	(Setyowati et al., 2020), (Kholili, 2021), (Syahrizal & Pamungkas, 2021), (Rahman, 2020)
	Open Communication	<u>Positive</u> : Teacher cared for students who had technical difficulties. Teacher appreciated students' effort. Peers could give feedback and comments freely. Students talked about whatever topic they like freely and joked with each other. Teacher was available 24/7 on WA. Students did not hesitate to ask questions.	(Mutiaraningrum & Nugroho, 2020), (Pasaribu & Dewi, 2021), (Setyowati et al., 2021), (Tukan (2020). (Lisa et al., 2021)
		<u>Negative</u> : Students were passive/reluctant to give negative comments. Students were hesitant to ask the teachers because they had never met in person. Teachers only communicated with the class rep, not with all students. Jokes were distracting. No class chat groups.	(Maulidiawati & Mulyani, 2021), (Santoso, 2021), (Sundarwati & Pahlevi, 2021), (Prastikawati, 2021)
	Group Cohesion and Collaboration	<u>Positive</u> : Group discussion. Group projects (comic, video, poster, etc.). Collaborative essay. Information sharing. Students made a smaller WA Group with closer friends to study together. Students chose their own pair to make a poster, so as to have a more solid bonding and teamwork.	(Utomo & Ahsanah, 2020), (Taopan & Siregar, 2021), (Paramita & Tjahjadi, 2021)
		<u>Negative</u> : Students missed their friends. Students preferred to study alone. Students couldn't share with each other.	(Nartiningrum & Nugroho, 2020), (Sinaga & Pustika, 2021)

Finally, the third element in the Community of Inquiry (CoI) framework is the Social Presence, the synthesis of which is shown in Table 5. Under the category of Affective Expression (S1), English teachers created social experience online by getting students to press the "like" button, to give "reactions" (e.g., in Zoom) and to comment on friends' posts or works, or by giving informal feedback using emoticons or encouraging phrases (Setyowati et al., 2021; Suwartono, 2021; E. Wulandari & Mandasari, 2021). Students also appreciated the warm greeting by the teachers at the beginning of online

class (Rahman, 2020; Santoso, 2021). Besides, teachers also paid more attention to students who experienced technological problems (Pasaribu & Dewi, 2021).

Unfortunately, the effort to create an affective experience was undermined by the postings of unbecoming nature or harsh comments (Setyowati et al., 2020) or lack of organization in the group chats, such that important messages were buried under the affective expressions (Kholili, 2021; Setyowati et al., 2020). Interestingly, students who are more introverted were comfortable with studying alone and do not require affective expressions (Rahman, 2020). Another adverse side effect experienced by some students was that they got discouraged if they received fewer “likes” from their peers (Syahrizal & Pamungkas, 2021).

The second category under Social Presence is Open Communication (S2). This is evidenced by the degree to which students feel free to ask questions (Al-Munawwarah et al., 2021; Kholili, 2021; Lisa et al., 2021; Setyowati et al., 2020) and to disagree or give feedback to one another (Arinda & Sadikin, 2021; Ermawati et al., 2021; Mutiaraningrum & Nugroho, 2020; Prastikawati, 2021; Setyowati et al., 2021; Suprayogi & Eko, 2020; Suwartono, 2021; Syahrizal & Pamungkas, 2021; Zaini & Triyana, 2021). Another form of practicing Open Communication is by providing opportunities for questions (Tathahira & Sriayu, 2020) and being available to answer students’ questions even outside of class hours, especially for students who used their parents’ gadgets and had to wait till the parents returned home (Tukan, 2020). It also seems that humor and laughter are also essential ingredients in creating the sense of Open Communication (Nurjannah & Lestari, 2021; Usemahu & Fernandita, 2021; Utomo & Ahsanah, 2020). A teacher also made use of a particular teaching model called Dialogue Journal Writing, in which students could write about their reactions, thoughts, and experiences on a particular topic, and the teacher responded with similar reactions, thoughts, and experiences, while modelling the correct usage (Sukanaya, 2021). Yet another way to create a fun learning atmosphere was the use of Course Review Horay technique, in which students in groups had to exclaim ‘horay’ before answering questions (Zuhriyah & Fajarina, 2021).

Similarly, the attempt on the part of teachers to create an open communication atmosphere was also beset with difficulties. There were instances when students were still passive despite all the efforts (Santoso, 2021; Sundarwati & Pahlevi, 2021) and hesitant to give negative comments (Prastikawati, 2021). Jokes that went overboard also distracted the class (Muthmainnah, 2020). At other times, teachers did not provide an open communication channel, by, for example, only communicating with the class captain instead of to the whole class (Maulidiawati & Mulyani, 2021) or only relying on LMS without messaging services like WhatsApp (Octaberlina & Muslimin, 2020). Besides, lack of clarity in instruction and information made students felt nervous (C. T. Hapsari, 2021).

Finally, Group Cohesion and Collaboration (S3) comprises the last category in Social Presence. This was effected by teachers through various kinds of collaborative activities, such as group discussion using the Breakout Room feature of Zoom (Al-Munawwarah et al., 2021; Paramita & Tjahjadi, 2021; Zuhriyah & Fajarina, 2021), making a group essay draft through Google Docs (Prastikawati, 2021), doing a group project (Budianto & Arifani, 2021; Pasaribu & Dewi, 2021; Utomo & Ahsanah, 2020), sharing of information in the form of videos or other files (Lisa et al., 2021; F. D. Wulandari, 2021), the formation of online study group (Mandasari & Wulandari, 2021; Ria, 2021; Virgin et al., 2021), as well as giving help for students who do not have gadgets at home (Rinekso et al., 2021). A teacher also explicitly stated that he purposely made his students chose their own group members so they can have more solid bonding and teamwork (Taopan & Siregar, 2021). In one instance, the group creation, the choice of leader, division of tasks, and determination of deadlines stemmed from the initiative of the students (Ratnawati & Nurhasanah, 2021).

On the other hand, the absence of those kinds of activity apparently caused the students to miss group works (Anggrarini & Faturokhman, 2021), miss each other (Nartiningrum & Nugroho, 2020), or moments when they were able to share their knowledge (Maulidiawati & Mulyani, 2021;

Octaberlina & Muslimin, 2020; Suryani et al., 2021). The more introverted students also prefer to study alone (Sinaga & Pustika, 2021)

DISCUSSION

This study set out to carry out a qualitative research review concerning the practices of online ELT classes in Indonesia during the pandemic using the Community of Inquiry (CoI) framework, with the hope of synthesizing the studies into a body of best practice that can provide insight into the upcoming blended or hybrid learning in post-pandemic situation. Guided by the PRISMA 2020 in the methodology for searching the database, screening, and refinement of article selection, a final list of 94 eligible articles were chosen. The articles were coded in a deductive way with a-priori labels following the elements and categories of CoI, to find evidence of Teaching, Cognitive, and Social Presence. The results were tabulated and synthesized into a summarized description.

Firstly, Teaching Presence constituted the category with the highest number of evidences ($T1 + T2 + T3 = 199$), although this is not unexpected since teaching activity is the key criteria for selecting the articles based on the research question. It also appears that Teaching Presence is one that students perceived the most in an online class (Herrera Diaz & Gonzales Miy, 2017; Smidt et al., 2021)

Under the category of Design and Organization (T1), it can be concluded from the body of evidence that an ideal online English class design will be one that employs complementary technology, namely, Learning Management System (Moodle, Google Classroom, etc.), video conferencing application (Zoom, Google Meet, etc.), instant messaging service (WhatsApp or “WA”, Telegram, etc.), and other educational applications for assessment and engagement (quizzes, polls, games, etc.). Some articles studying the use of one sole application (e.g., only WA, only Moodle, etc.) revealed that students noticed the gap afforded by other applications (Ariyanti, 2020; Muslimin & Harintama, 2020). However, simply employing those technologies is insufficient; teachers should also be able to clearly communicate the topic, learning goals, tasks instruction, and deadlines (Ria, 2021; Sundarwati & Pahlevi, 2021) for effective course design and organization. Sheridan and Kelly (2010) identified “making course requirements clear” as the type of Teaching Presence that students valued the most in online courses.

Under Facilitating Discourse (T2), videoconferencing tools, the Discussion Forum feature in LMS, social media, or instant messaging services, are commonly used by teachers for this purpose. They also engage students or keep them on-task through various educational applications in the forms of games, quizzes, and polls. When these were absent, students felt the tedium of one-way communication or perceived monotonous teaching activities. Indeed, as has been asserted by Sun and Chen (2016) after reviewing 47 studies on online classrooms since 2008, successful online teaching hinge upon well-designed course content and motivated interaction between students and instructors.

The last part of Teaching Presence pertains to Direct Instruction (T3). Here, the use of videoconferencing platform such as Zoom or Google Meet appears to be ideal, as compared to employing only instant messaging service or the discussion feature of LMS. Students also appreciate the fact that online meeting can be recorded for subsequent review, as mentioned also in the finding of Zhang (2020). Teachers can also make use of the various features in Zoom like Breakout Room, Whiteboard, or Annotate, to engage students during online learning. Many students view direct instruction as crucial to their material comprehension during online learning, although it can never replace face-to-face instruction. A study conducted in Mexico investigated the relationship between the CoI categories and students’ speaking achievement in an English online class conducted through the university LMS and video conference. It was found that Teaching Presence is directly related to the development of grammar accuracy and vocabulary of the students’ speaking skill (Herrera Diaz & Gonzales Miy, 2017), suggesting the importance of T3 and the Teaching Presence in general.

Teacher and peer feedback are also placed under Direct Instruction category. Timely feedback seems to be one of the themes mentioned frequently by students in the articles analyzed and is therefore

indicative of their high value in students' eyes. Similarly, the absence of or infrequent feedback was something that students regretted. The study of Sheridan and Kelly (2010) also highlighted the great appreciation students had for timely information and instructors' feedback, coupled with clear course requirements. Hence, the application of technology to facilitate discourse should also be accompanied by a diligent effort on the part of the teachers to respond to or to give feedback to students' questions or performances, respectively.

The second category in CoI is Cognitive Presence, with Triggering Events (C1) being the first element. In online learning, English teachers in this study employed activities or technological applications which piqued students' curiosity and interest, such as posing problems, discussing issues, showing pictures or comics, as well as getting students to try out various educational apps. Students indicated their interest by saying that they found the lesson "fun" and "not boring". On the contrary, when there seems to be a lack of cognitive engagement, students felt disengaged. Likewise, students in the study of Alavi and Taghizadeh (2013) exhibited little evidence in the Triggering Event due to the use of outdated learning materials and the Grammar Translation Method as the teaching approach. At the other extreme, students felt overwhelmed when they felt that the material presented was beyond their cognitive capability.

The second element in Cognitive Presence is Exploration (C2). The sense of exploration happens when students are encouraged to search for more information, use a variety of resources for learning, and engage in online discussion and brainstorming. The pieces of evidence in this element were along the line of topics, tasks, or projects that enabled students to explore the internet for English resources, experiment with the features of some applications, make friends with people from other nationalities, and be engaged in online synchronous and asynchronous discussion. Hence, it is important for teachers to give a certain degree of freedom for students to choose and explore other forms of learning materials, to provide a form of practice beyond the boundary of theory. In the same way, Alavi and Taghizadeh's study (2013) also cited the lack of time to conduct information exchange activities, as well as inability to organize team project, that contributed to the low indication of Exploration in their students' perceptions.

For Integration (C3), English teachers enacted activities that will help students to combine information, construct solution, and do self-reflection. This is typically done through note-taking and summarizing, journal or diary writing, reflecting on one's own strength and weakness, and a variety of group or individual projects (video trailer, comic, virtual exhibition booth) that require students to think through the process from beginning to end. Students in Canada were found to exhibit the highest level of Cognitive Presence when they were engaged in web-search and debate activities (Kanuka et al., 2007), suggesting the effectiveness of student-initiated internet search and confronting others' opinions in promoting the level of Integration in the Cognitive Presence.

Lastly, for Resolution (C4) which is the last element in Cognitive Presence, the indicators are activities or tasks that allow students to apply the knowledge gained, in the course work or outside. Somewhat similar to C3, evidences found here are in the form of project works, such as making a comic, making video trailer, and presenting the culture of one's city in virtual exhibition booth. And just like in C3, the absence of such activities caused students to lose interest in the subject. Kilis and Yildirim (2019) argued that the students in their study managed to reach the Resolution level in their online posts due to the use of real-life examples and case studies as the discussion topic. It is also worth noting that, similar to Swan et al. (2009), the evidences of C4 are the fewest (only in 14 articles), which might imply that more Integration type of activities need to be explored by teachers and researchers. Indeed, cognitively engaging practices have been found to correlate directly with students' academic performance and satisfaction (Choy & Quek, 2016).

The third and last category of CoI is the Social Presence. Online Affective Expression (S1) is typically given in the form of "likes", "heart", "emojis," or "stickers" in social media postings, comments in the posts of friends' works, and encouragement or praise from the teachers, be them orally during

the synchronous meetings or in social media and instant messaging platforms. This type of actions is in line with the Pedagogy of Care (Noddings, 2008) and is highly appreciated by the students (Kilis & Yildirim, 2019; Moorhouse & Tiet, 2021). Moorhouse and Tiet (2021), for example, conducted a simple poll at the beginning of some lessons, just to ask their students how they are doing at home. However, teachers need to exercise certain control so that the affective expressions don't go overboard, either in tone or in quantity. Besides, the psychological interplay between those who get more and less "likes" will also need to be managed.

Open Communication (S2) is signified by the degree of comfort in which students converse, interact, and participate in discussion through an online medium. In the articles reviewed, there were evidences of students being able to talk freely, choose the topic of conversation, crack jokes, ask all sorts of questions, give feedback to one another, etc. Thus, English teachers will need to ensure that a certain portion of online teaching hours affords this kind of opportunities. Besides, students in some articles are appreciative of the teachers' effort to be available 24/7 to answer their questions or to show care when students have technical difficulties. Granted, despite all the teachers' attempt at creating an open communication atmosphere, some students will still be passive, and they will need to be paid attention to. Besides, just like in Affective Expression, jokes could go overboard, or the written ones can bury more important messages in the instant messaging service. It is also advisable that teachers communicate with all students, instead of simply passing messages through the class representatives. Students in an ESP (English for Special Purpose) in China similarly expressed their satisfaction for being able to communicate with their friends and teacher online, to ask questions, receive answers, and obtain feedback (Zhang, 2020).

Finally, the Group Cohesion and Collaboration (S3) constitutes the last category in the Social Presence element. This happens when teachers conduct activities that activate the sense of belonging and collaboration in the course. Somewhat similar to Resolution (C4), evidences in this category are in the form of group project (making comic, poster, or video trailer together) and collaborative work (writing essay draft in a group through Google Docs). A teacher also purposely let his students choose their own group mates for stronger bonding. Other teachers also got their students to help each other, with the more capable students helping the others in smaller groups. Students even made the initiative to form their own smaller groups to study together. All these activities are necessary to prevent students from feeling isolated and lonely during the online classes. Overall, Social Presence has been shown to have a significant correlation with Cognitive Presence, suggesting that online communication can potentially benefit students' learning (Zhang, 2020).

Even as Indonesia is preparing itself for face-to-face meetings or blended learning when the COVID-19 pandemic is better controlled, the lessons learned in these months of online English learning will still profit any kind of class set-up, whether online, hybrid, or face-to-face, while taking into consideration the three Presences of CoI (Smidt et al., 2021). Even in conventional classrooms, the technological advances afforded by the pandemic can still be enacted in class, such as bringing in international guests in speaking lesson through Zoom or exploring virtual library content in a reading class. The flipped classroom model will also be greatly facilitated with the various Learning Management Systems and online resources, as also demonstrated by Wu et al. (2017). The skills acquired by students and teachers, such as video editing or social media handling, will still be useful for collaborative projects or to reach out to audiences outside of the school bounds. In sum, any activity that enables students to be creative, autonomous, and independent learner should still be maintained in any class setting.

The result of this systematic review also has some implications in the pedagogical field. It suggests that, besides possessing the skill of technological integration, teachers should be cognizant of how the various platforms and applications enhance both the cognitive and social experience of the students. This should also be taken into accounts in pre-service teacher education programs or professional development of in-service teachers. Indeed, teachers' TPACK (Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge) competence should also encompass the XK (Contextual Knowledge) (Mishra,

2019), one of which pertains to Knowledge of Students, such as students' needs, attitudes, perception, and interest (Porrás-Hernández & Salinas-Amescua, 2013).

For future research, the seemingly fewer evidences found in Cognitive and Social Presence might be a fertile ground for scholars of the country. Some research outside of Indonesia has been conducted around the theme of the application of CoI principles in online English classes (Alavi & Taghizadeh, 2013; Herrera Diaz & Gonzales Miy, 2017; Smidt et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2016; Wu et al., 2017; Zhang, 2020). Only a few studies in this respect have been found in the Indonesian context (Farani, 2019; Hatmanto & Pratolo, 2020).

This study is limited in several ways. For the data collection, a more exhaustive list of articles could have been obtained from other databases, as compared to this present study's use of only Google Scholar (through Publish or Perish) and Scopus. Databases such as Web of Science or Microsoft Academic Graph, as well as the supposed "grey literature" found in research community databases such as Research Gate (Bond, 2021), could potentially enhance the variety of articles, especially since COVID-19 was a rapidly evolving research theme at that moment. In terms of data analysis, an iterative reading of the articles would have yielded more accurate coding process, by either having more than one researcher coding an article, or one coder reading the article several times. Lastly, in the attempt to capture the entire spectrum of online teaching practice, some articles with poor research design or analysis were still included, while only coding the evidence of Teaching, Cognitive, or Social Presences. Further refinement to the selection process of the articles listed in this study, by limiting the search criteria to peer-reviewed articles, could have been done to ensure the academic rigor of the articles reviewed.

CONCLUSION

This study systematically reviewed articles containing online EFL classroom practices in Indonesia during the pandemic, as framed by the CoI categories (Teaching Presence, Cognitive Presence, and Social Presence). From the articles synthesized, the greatest number of evidences come from the Teaching Presence, as is expected. English teachers in Indonesia were able to use a variety of technological platforms, services, and applications to support the design and organization of the class, online discourse, and direct teaching. However, the deployment of such technology should still be accompanied by sound pedagogy in terms of comprehensive instruction, clear expectation, and timely feedback. For Cognitive Presence, there were pieces of evidence of activities that engage the students cognitively, through problem- or project-based tasks or any activity that necessitates reflection and critical thinking. The lack of such activity caused students to be disengaged and bored. Lastly, under Social Presence, English teachers in Indonesia managed to create a sense of group cohesion and collaboration, through their sincere concern for the students, fostering warm and friendly online environment, as well as enacting teamwork that resulted in collaboration and a sense of camaraderie. Nonetheless, affective expressions also need to be managed well so as not to go overboard.

This study adds a fresh perspective to the body of research on online ELT systematic review studies during the pandemic, by framing the review against the CoI principles and, thus, synthesizing the best possible practice of online ELT experiences from the Teaching, Cognitive, and Social Presences aspects. On the pedagogical front, the results of this study could shed a little light on the future hybrid, blended, or face-to-face learning in the country if the pandemic subsides, by exemplifying the technological integration into the EFL classroom for an optimal learning experience even in onsite class setting. Besides, all of the above online English practices can also inform pre- and in-service teacher education program, so as to provide technological integration training that is already tested in practice. Lastly, there is a need for more research on the application of the CoI framework, specifically on Cognitive and Social Presence, in online English classes in Indonesia in the future.

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APPENDIX A. COI ELEMENTS WITH DETAILED INDICATORS AND CODES

Adapted from Arbaugh et al (2008) and Smidt et al. (2021)

COI ELEMENTS	CATEGORIES	INDICATORS	CODE
Teaching Presence	Design and organization	The instructor clearly communicated important course topics.	T1
		The instructor clearly communicated important course goals.	
		The instructor provided clear instructions on how to participate in course learning activities.	
		The instructor clearly communicated important due dates/time frames for learning activities.	
		The instructor selected teaching platform and media appropriate for the course.	

COI ELEMENTS	CATEGORIES	INDICATORS	CODE
	Facilitating discourse	The instructor was helpful in identifying areas of agreement and disagreement on course topics that helped students to learn.	T2
		The instructor was helpful in guiding the class towards understanding course topics in a way that helped students clarify their thinking.	
		The instructor helped to keep students engaged and participating in productive dialogue.	
		The instructor helped keep the students on task in a way that helped me to learn	
		The instructor encouraged students to explore new concepts in this course	
		Instructor's actions reinforced the development of a sense of community among students	
	Direct Instruction	The instructor helped to focus discussion on relevant issues in a way that helped students to learn.	T3
		The instructor provided feedback that helped students understand their strengths and weaknesses relative to the course's goals and objectives.	
		The instructor provided feedback in a timely fashion.	
Cognitive Presence	Triggering Events	Problems posed increased my interest in course issues.	C1
		Course activities piqued students' curiosity.	
		Students felt motivated to explore content related questions.	
	Exploration	Students utilized a variety of information sources to explore problems posed in this course.	C2
		Brainstorming and finding relevant information helped students resolve content related questions.	
		Online discussions were valuable in helping students appreciate different perspectives.	
	Integration	Combining new information helped students answer questions raised in course activities.	C3
		Learning activities helped students construct explanations/solutions.	
		Reflection on course content and discussions helped students understand fundamental concepts in this class.	
	Resolution	Students can describe ways to test and apply the knowledge created in this course.	C4

COI ELEMENTS	CATEGORIES	INDICATORS	CODE
		Students have developed solutions to course problems that can be applied in practice	
		Students can apply the knowledge created in this course to their works or other non-class related activities	
Social Presence	Affective expression	Getting to know other students gave students a sense of belonging in the course.	S1
		Students were able to form distinct impressions of some other students.	
		Online or web-based communication is an excellent medium for social interaction.	
	Open communication	Students felt comfortable conversing through the online medium.	S2
		Students felt comfortable participating in the course discussions.	
		Students felt comfortable interacting with other students.	
	Group cohesion and collaboration	Students felt comfortable disagreeing with other students while still maintaining a sense of trust.	S3
		Students felt that their points of view were acknowledged by other students.	
		Online discussions help students to develop a sense of collaboration.	

APPENDIX B. LIST OF ARTICLES AND CODES WITHIN EACH COI CATEGORY

No	List of Articles	Teaching presence			Cognitive presence				Social presence		
		T1	T2	T3	C1	C2	C3	C4	S1	S2	S3
1.	Adeliani, C., Harahap, A., Sofyan, D., Kurniawan, I., & Lubis, A. A. (2021). The Access to and use of ICT in learning English: A case of university students. <i>SALTeL Journal (Southeast Asia Language Teaching and Learning)</i> , 4(2), 37-48.	√	√			√	√				
2.	Algiovan, N., & Roza, A. S. (2020). English teaching materials during global pandemic: A survey on online learning at vocational schools in Lampung. <i>Getsempena English Education Journal</i> , 7(2), 307-316	√									

No	List of Articles	Teaching presence			Cognitive presence				Social presence		
		T 1	T 2	T 3	C 1	C 2	C 3	C 4	S1	S2	S3
3.	Al-Munawwarah, S. F., Gustine, G. G., & Musthafa, B. (2021). The praxis of literacy learning through creating digital short story trailers in EFL context. <i>Turkish Journal of Computer and Mathematics Education (TURCOMAT)</i> , 12(13), 5575-5586.	√		√		√	√			√	√
4.	Amelia, R., & Istianah, T. N. (2021, July). Teaching strategies: How do teachers in remote area survive during remote learning? In <i>ELT Forum: Journal of English Language Teaching</i> (Vol. 10, No. 2, pp. 146-153).	√	√								
5.	Anggrarini, N., & Faturokhman, I. (2021). Students' perception on the use of YouTube in English language learning during pandemic in Wiralodra university. <i>JELLT (Journal of English Language and Language Teaching)</i> , 5(1), 86-99.	√	√	√		√			√		√
6.	Ariani, S., & Tawali, T. (2021). Problems of online learning during Covid-19 pandemic in speaking for professional context class. <i>Jo-ELT (Journal of English Language Teaching)</i> Fakultas Pendidikan Bahasa & Seni Prodi Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris IKIP, 8(1), 32-37.	√			√						
7.	Arianto, Y. (2020). Teaching reading online for a small class: an instructional design for teaching reading online. <i>Education and Linguistics Knowledge Journal (EDULINK)</i> , 2(2), 63-86.	√	√		√		√	√			
8.	Ariebowo, T. (2021). Autonomous learning during COVID-19 pandemic: Students' objectives and preferences. <i>Journal of Foreign Language Teaching and Learning</i> , 6(1), 56-77.	√		√	√	√					
9.	Arinda, P., & Sadikin, I. S. (2021). Dialogic feedback to promote deep learning for EFL speaking learners in online learning environment: students' voices. <i>PROJECT (Professional Journal of English Education)</i> , 4(5), 803-813.			√	√				√	√	
10.	Ariyanti, A. (2020). EFL students' challenges towards home learning policy during Covid-19 outbreak. <i>IJELTAL (Indonesian Journal of English Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics)</i> , 5(1), 167-175.	√	√	√							
11.	Atmojo, A. E. P., & Nugroho, A. (2020). EFL classes must go online! Teaching activities and challenges during COVID-19 pandemic in Indonesia. <i>Register Journal</i> , 13(1), 49-76.	√	√	√		√	√				
12.	Budianto, L., & Arifani, Y. (2021). Utilizing WhatsApp-driven learning during covid-19 outbreak: EFL users' perceptions and practices. <i>Computer-Assisted Language Learning Electronic Journal (CALL-EJ)</i> , 22(1), 264-281.	√	√	√		√					√

No	List of Articles	Teaching presence			Cognitive presence				Social presence		
		T 1	T 2	T 3	C 1	C 2	C 3	C 4	S1	S2	S3
13.	Dewi, L. P. R. P., Juniarta, P. A. K., & Pratiwi, N. P. A. (2021). The Challenges of EFL teacher in conducting online learning at SMA Candimas Pancasari. <i>Journal of Educational Study</i> , 1(2), 73-86.	√									
14.	Ermawati, E., Nurchalis, N. F., & Sardi, A. (2021). Online EFL teaching and learning: different skills, different challenges. <i>IDEAS: Journal on English Language Teaching and Learning, Linguistics and Literature</i> , 9(1).	√	√							√	
15.	Estisari, K. (2021). The perception of semester 4 accounting students on learning English through WhatsApp Application. <i>Journal of Research on Language Education</i> , 2(2), 75-82.	√									
16.	Fatriana, N. (2021). Flip-classroom English material design for post pandemic practices to provision reading literacy skill. <i>English Journal Literacy Utama</i> , 6(1), 432-443.	√						√			
17.	Fauzan U., & Nadia (2021). The reformation discourse of internet-based learning of Madrasah Aliyah English teachers in Kalimantan. <i>Asian EFL Journal</i> , 28 (1), 101-121	√	√			√					
18.	Fitria, T. N. (2020). Teaching English through online learning system during Covid-19 Pandemic. <i>Pedagogy: Journal of English Language Teaching</i> , 8(2).	√	√	√							
19.	Ginaya, G., Somawati, N. P., & Mataram, I. G. A. B. (2021). Implementation of E-Learning for ESP in tourism during the Covid-19 Pandemic. <i>Journal of Language Teaching and Research</i> , 12(4), 572-578.	√	√	√							
20.	Hadianti, S., & Arisandi, B. (2020). The role of online English community during Covid-19 pandemic. <i>Language Literacy: Journal of Linguistics, Literature, and Language Teaching</i> , 4(2), 271-279.	√	√		√	√			√		
21.	Hamid, S. M. (2020). Online digital platforms during covid-19 in EFL classes: Visual impairment student'perception. <i>ETERNAL (English, Teaching, Learning, and Research Journal)</i> , 6(2), 328-339.	√	√	√							
22.	Hapsari, C. T. (2021, March). Distance learning in the time of Covid-19: Exploring students' anxiety. In <i>ELT Forum: Journal of English Language Teaching</i> (Vol. 10, No. 1, pp. 40-49).	√	√	√	√					√	
23.	Hapsari, F. R. (2021). A remote reading literacy for senior high school: A voice from students. <i>International Journal of Research in Education</i> , 1(2).	√	√			√			√		
24.	Harahap, R. (2021). The tilizing of Whatsapp application for teaching Speaking. <i>ETANIC (Journal Of English Language Teaching And Applied Linguistics)</i> , 1(1), 20-26.	√		√							

No	List of Articles	Teaching presence			Cognitive presence				Social presence		
		T1	T2	T3	C1	C2	C3	C4	S1	S2	S3
25.	Haryanto, E. (2021). Emergency education policy: EFL undergraduate students' views on online learning during the COVID-19 Pandemic. <i>IRJE Indonesian Research Journal in Education</i> , 5(1), 142-158.	√	√		√	√			√		
26.	Kholili, A. (2021). Prior to and in the course of Covid-19 Pandemic: Exploring learners' experiences of learning English through narrative lens. <i>Elsya: Journal of English Language Studies</i> , 3(3), 195-204.	√	√						√	√	
27.	Kholis, A. (2020). The use of WhatsApp app in distance language learning in pandemic Covid-19: A case study in Nahdlatul Ulama university of Yogyakarta. <i>LET: Linguistics, Literature and English Teaching Journal</i> , 10(2), 24-43.	√	√	√	√	√			√	√	
28.	Kurniawan, D., & Suganda, L. A. (2020). Cloud collaboration: Its effect toward writing achievement and impact toward attitude to learning. <i>IRJE Indonesian Research Journal in Education</i> , 466-482.	√		√	√	√	√				
29.	Kusumawati, W. A., & Sumardi, S. (2020). Exploring Indonesian EFL teachers' perception on students' speaking assessment in distance learning. <i>International Journal of Educational Research Review</i> , 6(4), 382-392.	√	√	√							
30.	Lestari, T., & Azizah, D. M. (2021). Implementing performance-based formative assessment in grammar class during remote teaching. <i>Wiralodra English Journal</i> , 5(1), 45-55.	√	√	√				√			
31.	Lisa, A., Faridi, A., Bharati, D. A. L., & Saleh, M. (2021). A TPACK-in practice model for enhancing EFL students' readiness to teach with Ed-Tech Apps. <i>International Journal of Interactive Mobile Technologies</i> , 15(17).	√					√	√		√	√
32.	Mahmud, Y. S., & German, E. (2021). Online self-regulated learning strategies amid a global pandemic: insights from Indonesian university students. <i>Malaysian Journal of Learning and Instruction</i> , 18(2), 45-68.	√	√			√	√				
33.	Mandasari, Y. P., & Wulandari, E. (2021, July). Teaching ESP during emergency remote learning (ERL): Best practices. In <i>ELT Forum: Journal of English Language Teaching</i> (Vol. 10, No. 2, pp. 154-162).	√	√	√	√	√		√			√
34.	Maru, M. G., Nur, S., & Lengkoan, F. (2020). Applying video for writing descriptive text in senior high school in the covid-19 pandemic transition. <i>International Journal of Language Education</i> , 4(3).	√		√							

No	List of Articles	Teaching presence			Cognitive presence				Social presence		
		T1	T2	T3	C1	C2	C3	C4	S1	S2	S3
35.	Maulana, N. R., & Lintang Sari, A. P. (2021). The use of Moodle in English language learning during the pandemic: the students' voice. <i>The Journal of English Literacy Education: The Teaching and Learning of English as a Foreign Language</i> , 8(1), 27-41.	√	√			√					
36.	Maulidiawati, V., & Mulyani, M. (2021). The struggles of the senior high school students to cope with online EFL learning during pandemic of COVID-19. <i>JELA (Journal of English Language Teaching, Literature and Applied Linguistics)</i> , 3(1), 46-63.	√	√			√	√		√	√	√
37.	Meliala, E. P., Purba, P. W. R., Panjaitan, L., Doloksaribu, L., & Tarigan, N. W. P. (2021). An analysis of English teachers' creativity in media-based learning at the tenth-grade students. <i>Journal of Languages and Language Teaching</i> , 9(1), 105-110.	√		√							
38.	Muhammad, R. N. (2021). EFL students' perception of distance learning practice in a vocabulary Class. <i>J-SHMIC: Journal of English for Academic</i> , 8(1), 75-85.	√	√	√							
39.	Muslimin, A. I., & Harintama, F. (2020). Online learning during pandemic: Students' motivation, challenges, and alternatives. <i>Loquen: English Studies Journal</i> , 13(2), 60-68.		√			√					
40.	Muthmainnah, N. (2020). EFL-writing activities using WhatsApp group: students' perceptions during study from home. <i>LET: Linguistics, Literature and English Teaching Journal</i> , 10(2), 1-23.	√	√		√	√				√	
41.	Mutiaraningrum, I., & Nugroho, A. (2020). Social construction of knowledge in synchronous text-based discussion during English language learning. <i>Journal on English as a Foreign Language</i> , 10(2), 315-336.	√	√			√					√
42.	Mutiaraningrum, I., & Nugroho, A. (2021). Smartphone-based mobile assisted language learning application in higher vocational education in Indonesia. <i>JEES (Journal of English Educators Society)</i> , 6(1).	√		√			√				
43.	Nadia, H., Yansyah, Y., & Rafidiah, D. (2021). Designing an online work-related language skill for nursing students: a developmental research. <i>JEES (Journal of English Educators Society)</i> , 6(1), 163-170.	√		√			√				
44.	Nartiningrum, N., & Nugroho, A. (2020). Online learning amidst global pandemic: EFL students' challenges, suggestions, and needed materials. <i>ENGLISH FRANCA: Academic Journal of English Language and Education</i> , 4(2), 115-140.	√	√	√						√	
45.	Nisa, E. K. (2021). Photovoice activities to teach writing for high school students. <i>Borneo Educational Journal (Borju)</i> , 3(1), 8-17.	√			√		√				

No	List of Articles	Teaching presence			Cognitive presence				Social presence		
		T 1	T 2	T 3	C 1	C 2	C 3	C 4	S1	S2	S3
46.	Nugroho, A. D., Naâ, L. N., Pamungkas, T. B., Puspita, O. W., & Rizal, R. (2021). Developing vocational school students' reading skill using question-answer relationships through Google Classroom. <i>JELLT (Journal of English Language and Language Teaching)</i> , 5(1), 75-85.	√	√				√				
47.	Nurjannah, N., & Lestari, S. (2021). The teaching practicum experience of pre-service English language teachers through synchronous Learning. <i>Education And Linguistics Knowledge Journal (EDULINK)</i> , 3(2), 93-115.	√	√							√	
48.	Nurkhamidah, N. (2021). University students' perspective on material and activities in English listening class during pandemic. <i>Elsya: Journal of English Language Studies</i> , 3(2), 94-105.	√	√	√	√	√					
49.	Octaberlina, L. R., Anggarini, I. F., & Muslimin, A. I. (2020). Virtual English teaching in remote area: a case study. <i>Journal of Critical Reviews</i> , 7(19), 9707-9713.	√	√	√		√					
50.	Octaberlina, L. R., & Muslimin, A. I. (2020). EFL students perspective towards online learning barriers and alternatives using Moodle/Google Classroom during COVID-19 pandemic. <i>International Journal of Higher Education</i> , 9(6), 1-9.	√	√			√			√	√	√
51.	Paramita, N., & Tjahjadi, B. (2021). Indonesian students' experience in online learning process and interaction during COVID-19. <i>Journal of Cultura and Lingua</i> , 2(2), 55-65.	√			√						√
52.	Pasaribu, T. A., & Dewi, N. (2021). Indonesian EFL students' voices on online learning during COVID-19 through Appraisal Analysis. <i>LEARN Journal: Language Education and Acquisition Research Network</i> , 14(1), 399-426.	√	√			√			√		√
53.	Prastikawati, E. F. (2021, July). Pre-service EFL teachers' perception on technology-based formative assessment in their teaching practicum. In <i>ELT Forum: Journal of English Language Teaching</i> (Vol. 10, No. 2, pp. 163-171).	√	√	√	√					√	√
54.	Purnamaningwulan, R. A. (2021). Video-assisted extensive listening program to improve pre-service EFL teachers' listening skills. <i>Celtic: A Journal of Culture, English Language Teaching, Literature and Linguistics</i> , 8(1), 33-43.	√			√	√	√				
55.	Rabbianty, E. N., & Wafi, A. (2021). Maximizing the use of WhatsApp in English remote learning to promote students' engagement at Madura. <i>LET: Linguistics, Literature and English Teaching Journal</i> , 11(1), 42-60.	√	√	√							
56.	Rahman, K. (2020). Learning amid crisis: EFL students' perception on online learning during COVID-19 outbreak. <i>ETERNAL (English, Teaching, Learning, and Research Journal)</i> , 6(2), 179-194.	√	√	√	√	√			√	√	

No	List of Articles	Teaching presence			Cognitive presence				Social presence		
		T1	T2	T3	C1	C2	C3	C4	S1	S2	S3
57.	Ratnawati, R., & Nurhasanah, I. (2021). Investigating students' experiences and preferences on tools and activities in emergency remote learning amidst Covid-19 Pandemic. <i>Al-Lisan: Jurnal Bahasa (e-Journal)</i> , 6(1), 36-57.	√	√								√
58.	Ria, N. S. (2021). Teaching during COVID-19 Pandemic: What should educators do to save nations' educational crisis? <i>Lectio: Journal of Language and Language Teaching</i> , 1(1), 29-40.	√	√	√	√	√					√
59.	Rianto, A (2021), Indonesian EFL university students' metacognitive online reading strategies before and during the covid-19 pandemic. <i>Studies in English Language and Education</i> , 8(1), 16-33.					√					
60.	Rinekso, A. B., Muslim, A. B., & Lesagia, O. (2021). Teaching online in pandemic time: the experience of Indonesian EFL teachers. <i>ETERNAL (English, Teaching, Learning, and Research Journal)</i> , 7(1), 117-134.	√			√						√
61.	Robiasih, H., & Lestari, T. (2020). Formative assessment performed by high school teachers in the pandemic era. <i>Loquen: English Studies Journal</i> , 13(2), 80-87.	√						√			
62.	Rosyada, A., & Sundari, H. (2021). Learning from home environment: Academic writing course for EFL undergraduates through Google Classroom application. <i>Studies in English Language and Education</i> , 8(2), 710-725.	√	√								
63.	Safira, Y. F., Hadi, M. S., & Zaitun, Z. (2021). An analysis of English language teaching activities during COVID-19 pandemic at SMP Purnama Jakarta. <i>Journal of Languages and Language Teaching</i> , 9(2), 212-219.	√	√								
64.	Santoso, M. N. (2021). Utilizing a Facebook closed group for EFL e-learning environment: Students' views. <i>Studies in English Language and Education</i> , 8(3), 1026-1044.	√	√	√		√	√	√	√	√	√
65.	Sari, D. R. (2021). Rural EFL teachers' emotions and agency in online language teaching: I will survive. <i>Vision: Journal for Language and Foreign Language Learning</i> , 10(1), 1-16.	√	√	√							
66.	Septyani, N. L. P. V., Purnamika, I. L., & Wedhanti, N. K. (2021). A Study of ELE students' perception of Undiksha Moodle e-learning in pedagogical courses. Metathesis: <i>Journal of English Language, Literature, and Teaching</i> , 5(2), 120-128.	√			√						
67.	Setyowati, L., Mujaddidah, A., Sukmawan, S., & El-Sulukiyyah, A. A. (2020). Comparing the high and low achiever students' difficulties in learning writing during remote learning. <i>Academic Journal Perspective: Education, Language, and Literature</i> , 8(2), 107-121.		√		√				√	√	

No	List of Articles	Teaching presence			Cognitive presence				Social presence		
		T1	T2	T3	C1	C2	C3	C4	S1	S2	S3
68.	Setyowati, L., Sukmawan, S., & El-Sulukkiyah, A. A. (2021). Learning from home during pandemic: A blended learning for reading to write activity in EFL setting. <i>JEEES (Journal of English Educators Society)</i> , 6(1), 9-17.	√	√	√	√	√		√	√	√	
69.	Sinaga, R. R. F., & Pustika, R. (2021). Exploring students' attitude towards English online learning using Moodle during COVID-19 pandemic at SMK Yadika Bandarlampung. <i>Journal of English Language Teaching and Learning</i> , 2(1), 8-15.	√									√
70.	Situmorang, K., Nugroho, D. Y., & Pramusita, S. M. (2020). English teachers' preparedness in technology enhanced language learning during Covid-19 pandemic—students' voice. <i>Jo-ELT (Journal of English Language Teaching)</i> , 7(2), 57-67.	√	√	√	√				√		
71.	Sugianto, A., & Ulfah, N. (2020). Construing the challenges and opportunities of intercultural language teaching amid Covid-19 Pandemic: English teachers' voices. <i>Journal of English Language Teaching and Linguistics</i> , 5(4), 363-381.	√	√	√		√		√			
72.	Suharsih, S., & Wijayanti, M. A. (2021). Online learning for EFL learners: Perceptions, challenges, and expectations. <i>Journal of English Language Studies</i> , 6(2), 244-257.		√		√	√					
73.	Sukanaya, G. (2021). Dialogue journal writing in emergency remote teaching: effect on writing competency and students' perception towards implementation. <i>Psychology and Education Journal</i> , 58(2), 924-929.	√	√	√						√	
74.	Sundarwati, E., & Pahlevi, M. R. (2021). EFL teachers' challenges and opportunities of emergency remote teaching during the Covid-19 Pandemic: Narrative inquiry. <i>Language and Education Journal Undiksha</i> , 4(2), 74-85.	√	√		√	√				√	
75.	Suprayogi, S., & Eko, P. B. (2020). The implementation of virtual exhibition project in English for tourism class for university students. <i>Academic Journal Perspective: Education, Language, and Literature</i> , 8(2), 87-97.	√	√	√				√		√	
76.	Suryana, I., Hidantikarnillah, V., & Murwantono, D. (2021). A narrative inquiry of language teachers' perceptions and experiences in using WhatsApp during New Normal Post-Covid-19 era. <i>EdnLite: Journal of English Education, Literature and Culture</i> , 6(1), 55-70.	√	√								
77.	Suryani, D., Yunita, W., & Harahap, A. (2021). EFL teachers' reasons, problems and solutions of using Google Classroom in teaching and learning English during COVID-19 pandemic in Bengkulu. <i>Edu-Ling: Journal of English Education and Linguistics</i> , 4(2), 1-19.	√		√							√

No	List of Articles	Teaching presence			Cognitive presence				Social presence		
		T1	T2	T3	C1	C2	C3	C4	S1	S2	S3
78.	Suwartono, T. (2021). FbG as an around the clock support for an essay writing course amidst the pandemic. <i>EduLite: Journal of English Education, Literature and Culture</i> , 6(2), 238-255.	√	√			√	√		√	√	
79.	Syahrizal, T., & Pamungkas, M. Y. (2021). Revealing students' responses on the use of Flipgrid in speaking class: Survey on ICT. <i>Acuity: Journal of English Language Pedagogy, Literature and Culture</i> , 6(2), 96-105.	√		√			√	√	√	√	
80.	Tamah, S. M., Triwidayati, K. R., & Utami, T. S. D. (2020). Secondary school language teachers' online learning engagement during the COVID-19 pandemic in Indonesia. <i>Journal of Information Technology Education: Research</i> , 19, 803-832.	√	√	√							
81.	Taopan, L. L., & Siregar, R. A. (2021). Promoting pre-service English teachers' technological awareness in ELT: narratives from a border area of Indonesia. <i>Journal on English as a Foreign Language</i> , 11(2), 400-421.	√	√		√	√	√	√	√		√
82.	Tathahira, T., & Sriayu, S. (2020). The implementation of online learning during Covid-19 Pandemic: English teachers' perceptions at senior high schools in South Aceh. <i>Indonesian Journal of Curriculum and Educational Technology Studies</i> , 8(2), 113-122.	√	√		√					√	
83.	Tukan, F. M. E. (2020). Challenges and strategies using application in teaching online classroom during Pandemic Covid-19. <i>Elite Journal</i> , 2(2), 155-172.	√	√							√	
84.	Tuzahra, F., Sofendi, S., & Vianty, M. (2021). Technology integration of the in-service EFL teachers: a study at a teacher profession education program. <i>Indonesian Journal of EFL and Linguistics</i> , 6(1), 317-339.	√									
85.	Usemahu, N. A. M., & Fernandita, Y. (2021). Administering classes in virtual learning environment: facilitations, principles, educators' roles and interactions. <i>ETERNAL (English, Teaching, Learning, and Research Journal)</i> , 7(1), 180-200	√	√	√	√					√	
86.	Utomo, D. T. P., & Ahsanah, F. (2020). Utilizing digital comics in college students' grammar class. <i>Journal of English Language Teaching and Linguistics</i> , 5(3), 393.	√	√	√	√		√	√		√	√
87.	Vidhiyasi, D. M., Hakim, M. A., Humardhiana, A., Ikawati, L., & Aisyiyah, M. N. (2021). Asynchronous learning: An answer in the era of pandemic. <i>Journal of English as A Foreign Language Teaching and Research</i> , 1(2), 33-43.	√	√			√				√	

No	List of Articles	Teaching presence			Cognitive presence				Social presence		
		T1	T2	T3	C1	C2	C3	C4	S1	S2	S3
88.	Virgin, N. F., Qalyubi, I., & Qamariah, Z. (2021). The challenges of English teachers in remote areas toward online teaching during COVID-19 pandemic. <i>PROJECT (Professional Journal of English Education)</i> , 4(4), 728-737.	√	√		√						√
89.	Wulandari, F. D. (2021). Teaching speaking and the teachers role for EFL learner in emergency remote teaching (a qualitative study on non-English department students). <i>JETLe (Journal of English Language Teaching and Learning)</i> , 2(2), 23-33.	√	√	√	√	√	√				√
90.	Wulandari, E., & Mandasari, Y. P. (2021). WhatsApp in emergency remote learning: The students' perception. <i>JEEES (Journal of English Educators Society)</i> , 6(2), 228-236.	√							√		
91.	Yulianto, D., & Muhtahid, N. M. (2021). Online assessment during Covid-19 Pandemic: EFL teachers' perspectives and their practices. <i>JET (Journal of English Teaching)</i> , 7(2), 229-242.	√	√	√							
92.	Yundayani, A., Abdullah, F., Tandiana, S. T., & Sutrisno, B. (2021). Students' cognitive engagement during emergency remote teaching: Evidence from the Indonesian EFL milieu. <i>Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies</i> , 17(1).						√	√			
93.	Zaini, A., & Triyana, T. (2021). Using YouTube news amid Covid-19 pandemic at senior high school to enhance listening and writing skills. <i>TEFLA Journal (Teaching English as Foreign Language and Applied Linguistic Journal)</i> , 3(1), 7-12.	√	√	√	√					√	
94.	Zuhriyah, M., & Fajarina, M. (2021). Course review horay and critical thinking skills: the effective teaching model for students' grammar competence in remote EFL classrooms. <i>Journal on English as a Foreign Language</i> , 11(2), 297-317.	√	√	√	√				√	√	√

AUTHORS



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