

CHAPTER II LITERATUR REVIEW

2.1 Definition of Textbook

According to Suryani (2018), a textbook is one of the educational materials most commonly used as a teaching tool in schools and educational institutions worldwide. Suryani (2018) also states that textbooks function as foundation and reference materials that support both students and teachers in the learning process.

Textbooks are among the most crucial instructional resources in the educational process. Cunningsworth (1995) explains that textbooks are essential because they support learning objectives and provide organized content in a systematic manner. Cunningsworth's (1995) explanation also indicates that textbooks can be regarded as primary resources that instructors and students use to gather and organize information in both formal and informal education. Based on Cunningsworth's (1995) view, textbooks serve not only as instructional aids but also as guides that help students comprehend and master the content provided.

Behnke (2018) asserts that textbooks are useful tools for communication between teachers and students, as well as foundations for designing educational activities. Behnke (2018) also states that textbooks provide practical examples that help students acquire new skills, particularly in English language learning. Furthermore, Akbari and Razavi (2015) found that the inclusion of real-world texts and authentic materials in textbooks can enhance students' motivation and engagement in the learning process.

Behnke (2018) explains that the use of textbooks in the classroom is influenced by various factors, including content relevance, book design, and students' needs. According to Behnke (2018), textbooks should be systematically organized and aligned with the applicable curriculum standards.

Wang and Chen (2023) propose that textbook evaluation involves two key components: impressionistic analysis, which evaluates the book's initial design and content, and in-depth analysis, which assesses whether the content aligns with learning objectives and meets students' needs. In this study, the quality of the "Speaking Partner Basic 01" textbook as a resource for beginner English language learners will be assessed using these two methodologies.

2.2 Definition of English Speaking

Chou (2021) defines English speaking as the ability to construct and communicate meaning through spoken English in real time. Chou (2021) also explains that speaking involves producing understandable utterances, organizing ideas, responding to other speakers, and adjusting language to a particular purpose, audience, and social context. From Chou's (2021) perspective, speaking is not limited to pronouncing words or reproducing memorized sentences, but is a multidimensional communicative skill that combines linguistic knowledge, speech processing, discourse organization, interaction, and communication strategies.

According to the Council of Europe (2020), the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages conceptualizes a language learner as a social agent who uses language to perform actions and co-construct meaning with others. The Council of Europe (2020) further explains that spoken language use includes oral production, oral interaction, and mediation. The Council of Europe (2020) describes oral production as activities such as describing experiences, giving information, presenting ideas, and addressing an audience. The Council of Europe (2020) also explains that oral interaction includes conversation, discussion, interviews, information exchange, obtaining services, turn-taking, cooperation, and clarification, while mediation involves explaining, summarizing, or reformulating information so that other people can understand it.

Foster (2020) states that speaking is cognitively demanding because speakers must formulate ideas, select words, construct grammatical patterns,

articulate sounds, and monitor the listener's response within a limited period. Foster (2020) explains that, unlike writing, spoken communication normally provides little time for extensive revision before the message is delivered. Based on Foster's (2020) explanation, speaking proficiency depends not only on knowledge of grammar and vocabulary but also on the ability to retrieve and use that knowledge efficiently during communication.

Crowther and Isbell (2024) argue that a useful definition of speaking must distinguish effective communication from imitation of a native-speaker accent. Crowther and Isbell (2024) explain that contemporary research gives greater attention to intelligibility and comprehensibility. According to Crowther and Isbell (2024), intelligibility concerns whether listeners accurately recognize the words and intended message, whereas comprehensibility concerns how easy or difficult the speech is to understand. Crowther and Isbell (2024) further note that a noticeable accent does not automatically indicate poor speaking ability when the message remains clear and appropriate for the communicative situation.

Based on these perspectives, English speaking in this research refers to the learner's ability to express and negotiate meaning orally by using appropriate vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, discourse organization, fluency, and interactional strategies. This definition is relevant to the analysis of Speaking Partner Basic 01 because a beginner speaking textbook should not merely present language forms. It should provide structured opportunities for learners to use English for meaningful oral production and interaction.

2.1 Components of English Speaking Skill

Chou (2021) and Goh and Aryadoust (2025) state that speaking proficiency consists of several related components. Chou (2021) and Goh and Aryadoust (2025) also indicate that speaking quality cannot be represented by grammar or fluency alone. Based on their explanation, a comprehensive analysis should examine fluency, accuracy, lexical resources, pronunciation, discourse management, interactional competence, and strategic competence.

2.1.1 Fluency

Foster (2020) defines fluency as the capacity to maintain speech at a reasonable pace with manageable hesitation and sufficient continuity for the listener to follow the message. Foster (2020) explains that fluency includes speed fluency, breakdown fluency, and repair fluency. According to Foster (2020), speed fluency concerns the rate and amount of speech produced, breakdown fluency concerns silent and filled pauses, and repair fluency concerns repetitions, reformulations, false starts, and self-correction.

Tavakoli et al. (2023) indicate that fluency should not be interpreted simply as speaking rapidly because excessive speed may reduce comprehensibility, while occasional pauses and self-repairs are normal characteristics of spontaneous speech. Tavakoli et al. (2023) further state that listeners form judgments of fluency from the combined effects of speech rate, pausing, hesitation, and the efficient delivery of meaning. Yan et al. (2025) found that fluency measures are meaningfully related to second-language proficiency, although the strength of the relationship varies across fluency dimensions, task types, and proficiency measures.

2.1.2 Accuracy and Grammatical Range

Accuracy refers to the extent to which spoken language follows appropriate grammatical, lexical, and phonological patterns. Grammatical accuracy supports clarity because errors in tense, word order, agreement, articles, or sentence structure may obscure the intended meaning. However, speaking instruction should not pursue accuracy by preventing learners from taking communicative risks. Beginner learners need manageable language patterns that they can first practice accurately and later use more independently.

According to the Council of Europe (2020), grammatical range concerns the variety of structures that a learner can use to express relationships among ideas. The Council of Europe (2020) explains that, at the A1 level, the expected grammatical range remains limited and generally includes simple clauses, basic questions, common verb forms, pronouns, possessives, and frequently used expressions. Based on the Council of Europe's (2020) level description, a speaking textbook should match grammatical demand with the target level and provide oral tasks that allow the same forms to be recycled across different topics.

2.1.3 Vocabulary and Lexical Resource

Vocabulary enables speakers to identify people and objects, describe experiences, express preferences, ask questions, and respond to information. Lexical resource in speaking involves more than the number of words known. It also includes appropriate word choice, common collocations, formulaic expressions, and the ability to paraphrase when a precise word is unavailable. For beginner learners, functional phrases such as greetings, requests, clarification questions, and short response formulas reduce processing demands and support participation in conversation.

Chou (2021) states that the vocabulary presented in a speaking textbook should be relevant to the communicative goal of each unit and should reappear in dialogues, prompts, and freer tasks. Chou (2021) also indicates that lists of isolated words are insufficient when learners do not receive opportunities to retrieve and combine those words during actual speech. Based on Chou's (2021) view, the relationship among language input, guided practice, and communicative output is central to the quality of speaking materials.

2.1.4 Pronunciation, Intelligibility, and Comprehensibility

Pronunciation includes segmental features, such as consonants and vowels, and suprasegmental features, such as word stress, sentence stress, rhythm, linking, and intonation. These features influence whether listeners can identify words and interpret the speaker's attitude or communicative intention. Pronunciation work in a beginner textbook should therefore include both the articulation of high-frequency words and the prosodic patterns used in questions, statements, requests, and short conversations.

Crowther and Isbell (2024) argue that the principal instructional target should be understandable speech rather than the elimination of a learner's accent. Crowther and Isbell (2024) state that comprehensibility is influenced by linguistic, listener, task, and social factors. Based on Crowther and Isbell's (2024) explanation, pronunciation materials should connect sound practice to meaningful communication. Their view also implies that repetition may be useful at an early stage, but it should progress toward short utterances and interaction in which learners use stress and intonation to communicate meaning.

2.3.5 Coherence and Discourse Management

Coherence concerns the logical organization and connection of ideas. In speaking, discourse management includes introducing a topic, maintaining it, sequencing information, giving examples, and closing an exchange. Even beginner learners need simple discourse markers and organizational expressions, such as first, then, because, but, and finally. These expressions help learners move beyond isolated sentences and produce short, connected stretches of speech.

The Council of Europe (2020) indicates that learners should be guided to organize and connect ideas in spoken communication. Based on this view, a speaking textbook develops discourse

competence when it asks learners to extend answers, explain reasons, narrate events in sequence, or connect questions and responses. The Council of Europe's (2020) description also implies that activities requiring only one-word answers provide limited evidence of communicative development. Therefore, the material should gradually move from controlled sentence patterns to connected speaking that reflects the learners' level and available language resources.

2.1.5 Interactional, Pragmatic, and Strategic Competence

Interactional competence refers to the ability to participate jointly in spoken communication. It includes initiating and closing conversations, taking and yielding turns, producing relevant responses, asking follow-up questions, showing attention, and repairing misunderstanding. Speaking is jointly constructed; therefore, success depends partly on how speakers respond to each other rather than solely on the grammatical quality of individual sentences.

Chou (2021) explains that pragmatic competence concerns the appropriateness of language for a particular purpose and relationship. Chou (2021) states that learners need to recognize differences between direct and polite requests, formal and informal expressions, and language used with friends, instructors, customers, or unfamiliar people. Chou (2021) also emphasizes that strategic competence supports communication when linguistic knowledge is incomplete. Based on Chou's (2021) explanation, useful strategies include paraphrasing, using examples, asking for repetition, requesting clarification, checking understanding, and correcting one's own speech. Chou (2021) further notes that strategy instruction is particularly important for beginners because it allows communication to continue despite limited grammar and vocabulary.

Table 2.1 Components of English-Speaking Competence

Component	Operational Description	Indicators in a Speaking Textbook
Fluency	Continuity, reasonable pace, and manageable hesitation.	Timed speaking, repeated speaking, extended answers, and progressive reduction of excessive pauses.
Accuracy and grammatical range	Correct and level-appropriate use of spoken grammar.	Clear patterns, oral drills with meaning, recycling, and movement from controlled to freer use.
Vocabulary	Relevant words, collocations, functional expressions, and paraphrasing.	Topic vocabulary, useful phrases, contextual examples, and reuse in communicative tasks.
Pronunciation	Understandable sounds, stress, rhythm, linking, and intonation.	Explicit pronunciation focus followed by sentence-level and conversational practice.
Coherence and discourse	Logical sequencing and connection of ideas.	Prompts for reasons, examples, sequencing, storytelling, and short presentations.
Interaction and pragmatics	Turn-taking, responsiveness, politeness, and contextual appropriateness.	Pair work, follow-up questions, role-play, interviews, clarification, and formal/informal models.
Strategic competence	Maintaining communication despite limited language resources.	Paraphrasing, self-repair, asking for help, repetition requests, and comprehension checks.

2.2 Functions and Forms of Speaking

According to the Council of Europe (2020), speaking tasks differ according to their communicative function and the number of participants involved. The Council of Europe (2020) organizes oral communication around interpersonal, transactional, and evaluative functions. The Council of Europe (2020) explains that interpersonal speaking develops and maintains social relationships through greetings, small talk, personal exchanges, and expressions of interest. The Council of Europe (2020) further explains that transactional speaking focuses on obtaining or conveying information, goods, or services, while evaluative speaking requires speakers to express opinions, compare alternatives, provide reasons, and discuss a problem or proposal.

Speaking can also be classified as oral production or oral interaction. Oral production is primarily monologic and includes describing a person, telling a story, giving information, presenting a topic, or making a public announcement. Oral interaction is dialogic and includes conversation, interviews, question-and-answer exchanges, discussions, and collaborative problem-solving. A speaking coursebook should include both forms because monologic tasks develop idea organization and sustained speech, while dialogic tasks develop responsiveness, turn management, and negotiation of meaning.

For A1 learners, these functions should be realized through familiar and concrete situations. Appropriate examples include introducing oneself, exchanging personal information, talking about family and routines, stating likes and dislikes, asking about prices or locations, ordering food, arranging a meeting, and responding to simple questions. The language demand should remain limited, but learners should still have a clear communicative purpose and a reason to listen to their partner.

2.3 English Speaking Materials

English speaking materials are the language input, models, prompts, tasks, visual support, and assessment guidance used to develop oral communication. High-quality materials should connect learning objectives with observable speaking performance. They need to identify what learners are expected to communicate, provide appropriate language support, and create opportunities for learners to use that support in meaningful interaction.

Chou (2021) states that speaking materials should show a clear progression. Chou (2021) explains that a common instructional sequence begins with a model, continues with attention to vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, or discourse features, and then moves through guided practice to freer production. According to Chou (2021), this progression provides scaffolding without allowing the lesson to end at mechanical repetition. Chou (2021) also found that an integrated teaching-speaking cycle can develop speaking performance and strategy awareness when instruction combines input, guided practice, communicative tasks, reflection, and assessment.

Tran et al. (2024) explain that authenticity in speaking materials does not require the unmodified reproduction of difficult real-world conversations. Tran et al. (2024) report that, for beginners, authenticity can be understood as a credible communicative purpose, recognizable social roles, and language that could reasonably be used outside the classroom. Tran et al. (2024) also found that authentic online conversations created opportunities for EFL learners to improve speaking and listening, motivation, and confidence. The implication for textbook analysis is that tasks should resemble purposeful communication rather than decontextualized sentence production.

The topics and cultural representations in a speaking textbook should be relevant, inclusive, and appropriate to learners' age and experience. Topics should provide enough familiarity to reduce cognitive overload while still inviting personal responses. Cultural content should avoid stereotypes and should represent people, occupations, families, and social roles fairly.

Materials may introduce intercultural differences, but they should give learners adequate explanation and language support.

Table 2.3 Recommended Types of English-Speaking Materials

Material Type	Examples of Activities	Primary Learning Purpose
Dialogue and conversation	Model dialogue, substitution, pair conversation, and follow-up questions.	Develop basic interaction patterns, functional expressions, and pronunciation.
Information-gap task	Partners exchange missing schedules, pictures, directions, or personal details.	Create a genuine need to ask, listen, clarify, and respond.
Role-play and simulation	Restaurant, shop, interview, telephone call, and service encounter.	Practice language appropriate to a social role and realistic situation.
Interview	Prepared and spontaneous questions followed by a short report.	Develop question formation, active listening, and extended responses.
Storytelling and description	Picture sequence, personal experience, daily routine, or weekend story.	Develop coherence, sequencing, vocabulary retrieval, and sustained speech.
Discussion and problem-solving	Choose an option, plan an activity, or solve a familiar problem.	Develop reasoning, turn-taking, agreement, disagreement, and negotiation.
Presentation	Short individual or group presentation supported by notes or visuals.	Develop organization, audience awareness, pronunciation, and confidence.
Recorded or online speaking	Audio diary, video response, online conversation, or e-portfolio.	Support repeated practice, reflection, feedback, and documentation of progress.

2.4 Teaching English Speaking

Chou (2021), explains that teaching speaking requires planned movement from language support toward independent communication. Chou (2021), states that an effective lesson can begin by establishing the communicative context and activating prior knowledge. Chou (2021), further explains that the teacher then provides a model and draws attention to useful vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, and interactional features. According to Chou (2021), learners practice the language with guidance before completing a communicative task, and feedback and task repetition follow so that learners can improve both the clarity and efficiency of their performance.

Namaziandost et al. (2020) state that interaction is central because learners develop speaking by participating in exchanges that require them to understand and produce meaning. Namaziandost et al. (2020) explain that pair and group tasks increase the amount of learner talk and create opportunities to ask questions, respond, clarify, and reformulate ideas. Namaziandost et al. (2020) also found that cooperative learning can improve speaking fluency when learners receive structured roles and shared communicative goals rather than being placed in groups without clear procedures.

For beginner learners, scaffolding should be explicit and gradually reduced. Useful forms of scaffolding include vocabulary boxes, sentence starters, question frames, model responses, visual prompts, pronunciation cues, rehearsal time, and examples of communication strategies. The material should not provide so much written language that students merely read aloud. Its purpose is to enable learners to produce a personally meaningful response with increasing independence.

Peng (2025) explains that affective conditions influence whether learners use the language that they know. Peng (2025) states that willingness to communicate is dynamic and can change according to confidence, anxiety, topic familiarity, interlocutor, classroom climate, and perceived task difficulty. According to Peng (2025), supportive feedback, preparation time, pair rehearsal, and appropriately challenging topics can increase participation. Peng

(2025) also indicates that correction that interrupts every utterance may increase self-consciousness and reduce communication. Based on Peng's (2025) explanation, teachers should distinguish between feedback needed during accuracy-focused practice and feedback better delayed until after a fluency-focused task.

Goh and Aryadoust (2025) note that digital tools may extend speaking practice through voice recording, video conferencing, automated transcription, or conversational systems. Goh and Aryadoust (2025) explain that these technologies can provide additional practice and individualized feedback, but they should not replace meaningful human interaction or professional judgment. Goh and Aryadoust (2025) also state that artificial intelligence offers potential for task development, oral interaction, and assessment, while also raising concerns regarding authenticity, validity, privacy, and inaccurate generated feedback. Based on their view, a textbook may recommend digital practice, but the learning objective and evaluation criteria must remain clear.

2.5 Assessment of English Speaking

Speaking assessment is a systematic process for eliciting oral performance and judging the quality of that performance according to stated criteria. A valid assessment should represent the speaking ability taught in the course. When a course aims to develop both oral production and interaction, assessment should not rely only on reading aloud, memorized dialogue, or isolated pronunciation. It should include tasks that require learners to formulate and communicate meaning.

Speaking can be assessed through interviews, picture descriptions, personal narratives, role-plays, presentations, paired discussions, group problem-solving, and integrated tasks based on brief listening or reading input. Different tasks elicit different features of proficiency. Monologues provide evidence of organization and sustained speech, while paired tasks provide evidence of turn-taking, responsiveness, and clarification. Using more than one task increases the representativeness of the assessment.

Tavakoli et al. (2023) state that analytic assessment separates performance into criteria rather than assigning only one general score. Based on this principle, the most relevant criteria for the present research context are task achievement, fluency and coherence, vocabulary, grammatical range and accuracy, pronunciation and comprehensibility, and interactional competence. Tavakoli et al. (2023) explain that fluency judgments should consider the combined effects of pace, pauses, hesitation, and message delivery rather than penalizing every filled pause or self-correction. Crowther and Isbell (2024) argue that pronunciation should be judged primarily through comprehensibility and intelligibility rather than native-like accent.

Table 2.3 Analytical Criteria for Assessing English Speaking

Assessment Criterion	Main Focus	Observable Indicators
Task achievement and content	Relevance and development of the response.	Answers the prompt, communicates the required information, and adds appropriate details or examples.
Fluency and coherence	Continuity, pace, pausing, and organization.	Maintains speech, uses manageable pauses, connects ideas, and avoids excessive repetition that obstructs meaning.
Vocabulary	Range, precision, appropriateness, and paraphrasing.	Uses topic-related words and functional expressions and can explain meaning when a word is unavailable.
Grammar	Range and accuracy of spoken structures.	Uses structures appropriate to the level; errors do not consistently obscure the message.
Pronunciation and comprehensibility	Ease of understanding and meaningful use of prosody.	Produces recognizable words and uses stress and intonation sufficiently to support meaning.

Assessment Criterion	Main Focus	Observable Indicators
Interactional competence	Responsiveness and joint management of conversation.	Takes turns, responds relevantly, asks follow-up questions, clarifies, and repairs misunderstanding.
Pragmatic appropriateness	Suitability of language to purpose and social context.	Uses appropriate politeness, formality, and expressions for the assigned situation.

According to the Council of Europe (2020), scores should be interpreted in relation to the learners' target level. The Council of Europe (2020) explains that a beginner may demonstrate successful A1 speaking by using short, familiar expressions and simple connected utterances even though the performance contains noticeable pauses and grammatical limitations. Based on the Council of Europe's (2020) level-based descriptors, assessment should compare learners with explicit learning outcomes, not with an idealized native speaker. The Council of Europe (2020) also provides descriptors that can be adapted into classroom criteria for oral production and oral interaction.

Winke et al. (2023) found that self-assessment and portfolio assessment can complement teacher assessment. Winke et al. (2023) also state that carefully designed self-assessment can provide meaningful information about oral proficiency and progress, although it should not automatically replace external performance evidence. Rezadoust Siah Khaleh Sar et al. (2024) reported that e-portfolios allow learners and teachers to compare recordings over time, document revisions, and reflect on strengths and weaknesses. Rezadoust Siah Khaleh Sar et al. (2024) also found that participants viewed e-portfolios positively because they supported motivation, confidence, engagement, and the documentation of learning outcomes.

For high-stakes or summative decisions, reliability requires clear task instructions, an analytic rubric, representative speaking samples, rater training, and, when possible, more than one rater or performance. For formative assessment, feedback should identify a limited number of priorities that learners

can act on in the next performance. In both cases, assessment should remain aligned with the speaking objectives, activities, and level of the textbook.

2.6 Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR)

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) is an international standard developed by the Council of Europe to describe language proficiency in a systematic and transparent way. It is widely used in language education to design curricula, assess learners' competence, and evaluate instructional materials.

CEFR divides language proficiency into six levels: A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, and C2. These levels represent a progression from basic users to proficient users of a language. Each level is defined through “can-do descriptors” that describe what learners are able to perform in real communicative situations across four language skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing (Council of Europe, 2018).

2.6.1 CEFR A1 LEVEL

The A1 level is the lowest level in the CEFR framework and is categorized as a basic user level. At this stage, learners are able to understand and use very simple language related to personal information and everyday needs.

According to the Council of Europe (2018), A1 learners can:

1. Understand and use familiar everyday expressions
2. Introduce themselves and others
3. Ask and answer simple questions about personal details
4. Interact in a simple way provided the interlocutor speaks slowly and clearly

At this level, communication is highly dependent on repetition, support from interlocutors, and contextual clues.

Learners mainly rely on memorized phrases and formulaic expressions rather than creative language production.

2.6.2 CEFR A1 Speaking Descriptors

Speaking competence at A1 level focuses on the ability to engage in very simple communication. The main emphasis is not on grammatical accuracy but on the ability to convey basic meaning in familiar contexts.

2.6.2.1 Spoken Interaction

At the A1 level, learners are able to:

1. Introduce themselves and others
2. Ask and answer simple personal questions
3. Use basic expressions for immediate needs such as greetings and requests
4. Interact only when the interlocutor speaks slowly and clearly
5. Ask for repetition or clarification when needed

Interaction at this level is highly structured and dependent on support from the conversation partner.

2.6.2.2 Spoken Production

A1 learners are able to:

- Use simple phrases and sentences to describe themselves, their family, and surroundings
- Talk about daily routines in a basic way
- Provide simple personal information

Examples of A1 speech include:

- “I am a student.”
- “I live in Indonesia.”
- “I like music.”

2.6.2.3 Linguistic Characteristics of A1 Speaking

CEFR A1 speaking is characterized by:

- Very simple sentence structures
- Limited and high-frequency vocabulary
- Frequent use of present tense
- Reliance on memorized expressions
- Frequent errors that do not hinder communication
- Focus on meaning rather than grammatical accuracy

2.6.2.4 Interaction Conditions

- Slow and clear speech from interlocutors
- Strong contextual support
- Structured and predictable conversations
- Assistance or scaffolding during interaction

Learners are generally not able to sustain extended conversations independently.

2.6.2.5 CEFR A1 in Language Learning

In language learning contexts, CEFR A1 serves as a benchmark for beginner-level instruction. Teaching materials at this level should emphasize simple communicative tasks that are closely related to learners' daily lives.

Brown (2007) states that beginner learners require controlled input and meaningful exposure to basic language forms to build foundational communicative competence. This aligns with CEFR A1 principles, which prioritize functional language use over grammatical complexity.

Similarly, Harmer (2007) emphasizes that speaking instruction for beginners should progress from controlled practice to freer production to reduce cognitive overload and support gradual language development.

2.6.3 Relevance of CEFR A1 for Textbook Evaluation

CEFR A1 is frequently used as a reference framework in evaluating language textbooks for beginner learners. It provides clear criteria for assessing whether instructional materials are appropriate for learners' proficiency level.

According to Cunningsworth (1995), a textbook must match learners' level of ability to ensure effective learning outcomes. Therefore, CEFR A1 descriptors can be used as an evaluative benchmark to determine whether speaking materials are suitable for beginner users in terms of task complexity, language input, and communicative demands.

2.7 Speaking Partner Club

In the all-digital world, it is very easy for everyone to access learning, one of which is the online course Speaking Partner Club, an English language course institution in Kampung Inggris, Pare, Kediri, which has become a popular solution. This course not only focuses on mastering language theory but also emphasizes the active improvement of speaking skills through direct interaction and practical teaching materials.

One of the flagship products of Speaking Partner is the textbook from the class priced at Rp49,000,- for beginners, namely Speaking Partner Basic 01, which is designed to help course participants improve their speaking skills at the basic level. This textbook covers everyday conversation topics that participants can use in real life, such as self-introduction, talking about family, hobbies, and work. Considering the importance of the teaching materials used, it is essential to conduct an in-depth evaluation of the TextBook to ensure that the presented materials can meet the desired learning objectives.

According to Cunningsworth (1995), an evaluation checklist can be used to analyze the quality of teaching materials, including the textbook Speaking

Partner Basic 01. Cunningsworth (1995) also indicates that evaluation can be conducted for both formal and non-formal institutions. Cunningsworth's (1995) checklist provides a comprehensive guide to assess various aspects of a textbook, such as alignment with learning objectives, relevance of the material, and clarity of information presentation. Based on this framework, the evaluation is expected to provide insights into the strengths and weaknesses of the teaching materials, as well as recommendations for the improvement and development of the materials in the future.

2.8 Content Analysis

2.8.1 Definition of Content Analysis

According to Rohmani et al. (2020), content analysis is a systematic method used to evaluate and assess educational resources by applying specified criteria to determine their quality and relevance. Xuan Mai et al. (2021), citing Cunningsworth (1995), state that the evaluation of educational resources should consider how well the content aligns with learning objectives, the accuracy of the information, and the quality of the presentation. Based on this procedure, educators can ensure that their course materials are well organized and beneficial for students.

To ensure that educational resources adequately meet students' needs, it is crucial to assess their alignment with learning objectives, as highlighted in this study's content analysis. This comprehensive analysis will clarify how the materials contribute to achieving the intended educational outcomes.

Tyas et al. (2019) state that the use of an evaluation checklist is an essential part of content analysis because it provides a structured approach for evaluating various components of lesson plans. Tyas et al. (2019) also explain that teachers can use this checklist to assess their teaching materials in a more organized and systematic manner. Nurhamsih and Syahrial (2018) state that Cunningsworth's checklist allows evaluation to be effectively carried out by considering established criteria, which provides a clearer understanding of the

quality of teaching materials. Based on their explanation, this methodical approach helps minimize subjectivity when evaluating instructional materials.

In conclusion, the use of a comprehensive evaluation checklist in this study will ensure a standardized and thorough examination of course materials. It will assist in identifying the strengths and weaknesses of the materials, leading to a more objective and reliable evaluation of the Speaking Partner Club's online classes.

Akbari and Razavi (2015) state that the authenticity of materials is an important aspect of content analysis. According to Akbari and Razavi (2015), authentic instructional materials can enhance student motivation and engagement. Akbari and Razavi (2015) also mention that the use of real-world resources in EFL courses can improve students' learning experiences and communication skills. Based on their view, students must engage with authentic materials that reflect real-world language use in order to transfer classroom learning to real-life contexts.

2.9 Evaluation by Cunningsworth

2.9.1 Cunningsworth's Coursebook Evaluation Framework

Cunningsworth (1995) proposes a comprehensive framework for evaluating the efficacy of pedagogical resources in English language instruction. The primary goal of this research is to examine the resources employed by Speaking Partner Club Kampung Inggris for their online English language classes. According to Cunningsworth (1995), several factors should be considered when assessing educational resources, such as how well they convey information, how relevant the content is, and how well they match learning goals. Asrun Lio and Kamaluddin (2019) support this view by emphasizing the importance of such criteria in evaluating instructional materials. Based on these views, ensuring that lessons are both engaging and useful for students is crucial.

Cunningsworth (1995) explains that the use of real materials is a crucial part of assessing educational resources. According to Cunningsworth (1995), students' interest and motivation in learning the language can be enhanced by authentic teaching resources, which include texts and materials generated from real-world contexts. Akbari and Razavi (2015) reinforce this view by demonstrating that authentic materials in EFL classes can help students become more competent communicators. As a result, it is crucial to assess the amount of authentic components utilized in Speaking Partner Club's instructional materials in order to facilitate students' speaking development.

Based on the framework proposed by Cunningsworth (1995), the evaluation process of educational resources consists of three phases: before, during, and after use. Asrun Lio and Kamaluddin (2019) state that the purpose of conducting a pre-use evaluation is to help educators choose the most appropriate resources for their classrooms prior to implementation.

Nurhamsih and Syahrial (2018) demonstrate that a comprehensive evaluation of vocational high school course materials can be achieved by employing Cunningsworth's checklist. Based on their findings, the content analysis in this research will include evaluating online course materials in light of the standards established by Cunningsworth.

Cunningsworth (1995) states that educational resources should address both the curriculum and the individual needs of students. Purwanti (2019) emphasizes that this alignment ensures instructional relevance and effectiveness. Therefore, this study's content analysis will determine whether the Speaking Partner Club Kampung Inggris lesson plans are appropriate for the students' needs and the class's context.

Cunningsworth (1995) offers a firm groundwork for analyzing and evaluating instructional materials in the field of English language instruction. Based on Cunningsworth's (1995) theory, teaching materials can be evaluated more effectively by incorporating transparent evaluation criteria and taking the practical context into consideration.

2.9.2 Impressionistic Analysis

Cunningsworth (1995, p. 1) asserts that impressionistic analysis is a method for understanding and evaluating data based on the researcher's initial perceptions. Cunningsworth (1995, p. 1) explains that this method enables researchers to acquire a concise synopsis of a textbook by carefully reading and highlighting its most salient features. According to Cunningsworth (1995, p. 1), researchers can use this method to assess a textbook's visual quality, layout, overall structure, and order of material presentation when they receive a preview copy of a new textbook.

María del Río Carral and Marie Santiago Delefosse (2015) highlight that the researcher's initial impressions can provide insight into a book's merits and shortcomings. María del Río Carral and Marie Santiago Delefosse (2015) explain that the layout, typography, and images on a textbook cover contribute to the overall impression and evaluative context.

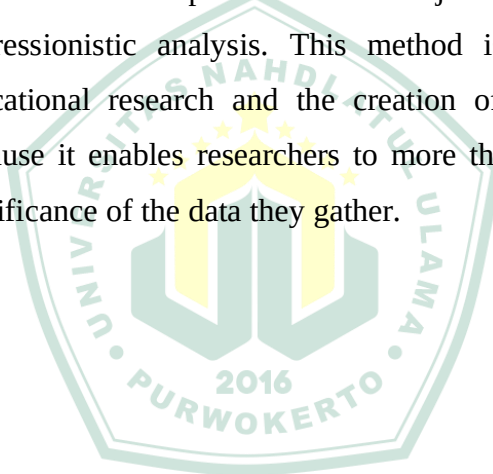
Coldwell et al. (2022) state that an essential component of impressionistic analysis is the recognition of the researcher's subjectivity. Coldwell et al. (2022) explain that researchers do not merely collect data from the sidelines, but also bring their own experiences and viewpoints into the interpretation process.

Abdirahman et al. (2023) state that impressionistic analysis allows the researcher to assess the organization and quality of

supplemental materials, as well as content sequencing. Abdirahman et al. (2023) also explain that this approach helps identify areas within the textbook that may require improvement in order to enhance its effectiveness.

Niasse (2023) and Febriyanti et al. (2023) show that educational research, particularly textbook creation and evaluation, can benefit from impressionistic analysis. Niasse (2023) and Febriyanti et al. (2023) also indicate that preliminary textbook analyses can reveal valuable insights into the textbook's potential utility in classroom settings.

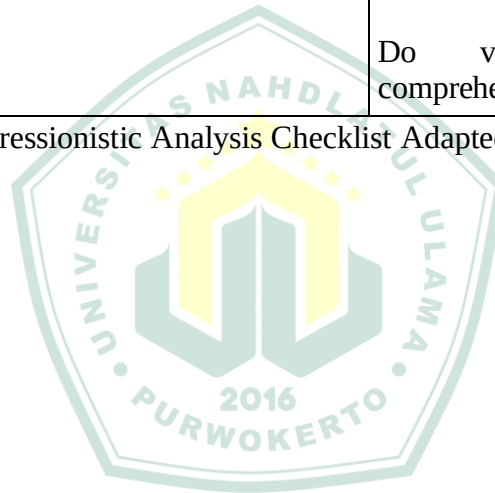
Researchers can gain a better understanding of qualitative data based on first impressions and subjective interpretations using impressionistic analysis. This method is highly beneficial for educational research and the creation of instructional materials because it enables researchers to more thoroughly understand the significance of the data they gather.



No	Aspect	Score 1-2	Observation Guide
1	Cover	1 = Plain or less engaging; irrelevant to theme. 2= Attractive, informative, and thematically relevant.	Does the cover give a professional impression and suit beginner students? Does it visually represent the book's content? Is it overly simple or too crowded?
2	Content Design	1=Monotonous format, lacks variety or clarity. 2=Varied, clear, and supports learning.	Are the content formats diverse and engaging? Do students receive clear guidance? Are content types integrated effectively?
3	Developable Learning Activities	1 = Limited or unsuitable for students' level. 2 = Varied, challenging, and promotes active learning	Do activities follow a logical difficulty progression? Are all language skills addressed? Do tasks encourage critical thinking and participation?
4	Organization of the Book	1 = Poor or inconsistent structure. 2 = Well-organized and easy to follow.	Are chapters ordered logically? Are there clear introductions and conclusions? Is the book easy to navigate for students?

No	Aspect	Score 1-2	Observation Guide
5	Layout and Visuals	1 = Confusing layout, cluttered or irrelevant visuals. 2 = Clean, clear, and supportive of understanding.	Are visual elements (images, tables, icons) relevant? Is the page easy to read and not overly dense? Do visuals support student comprehension?

Table 2.9.11 Impressionistic Analysis Checklist Adapted Based on Cunningsworth



2.9.3 In-Depth Analysis

Cunningsworth (1995) presents in-depth analysis as a thorough way to examine instructional materials in language learning. Cunningsworth (1995) explains that this framework assesses textbooks through several factors, including aims and approaches, language content, skills, topics, and methodology. Febraningrum (2023), Alkhateeb (2013), and Aryani (2016) state that this framework emphasizes the harmony between the text and educational objectives while also considering individual student needs. Based on these views, in-depth analysis is important to ensure that a coursebook can serve as an effective tool for both instructors and students.

2.10 Theoretical Synthesis for the Present Study

The literature reviewed in this chapter establishes that a speaking textbook for A1 learners should align its objectives, language input, activities, topics, and assessment with observable oral communication. The material should develop fluency, accuracy, vocabulary, comprehensible pronunciation, coherence, interactional competence, pragmatic appropriateness, and communication strategies through a progression from models and guided support to meaningful production and interaction. In the present study, these speaking-specific principles are interpreted through Cunningsworth's coursebook evaluation categories: aims and approaches, design and organization, language content, language skills, topics and cultural content, and methodology. This synthesis provides the theoretical basis for judging whether Speaking Partner Basic 01 offers suitable and sufficiently supported speaking development for beginner learners.