

CHALLENGES AND STRATEGIES OF NON-ENGLISH LECTURERS IN ONLINE ENGLISH TEACHING

TANTANGAN DAN STRATEGI DOSEN NON-BAHASA INGGRIS DALAM PENGAJARAN DARING

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Abstract

The expansion of online learning has changed the delivery of English courses in higher education, especially when English is taught by lecturers whose academic background is outside English language education. This study investigated how non-English major lecturers experienced and responded to the challenges of conducting online English classes at a private university in Jakarta. One research question guided the study: how do non-English major lecturers experience and respond to the challenges of conducting online English classes? The study employed a qualitative case study design involving three lecturers, classroom observation videos, and questionnaire responses from twenty-seven students. Data were analysed using Miles and Huberman's interactive model consisting of data condensation, data display, and conclusion drawing. The findings show that the main difficulty was not simply technological. The dominant challenge was a pedagogical and psychological breakdown of interaction, reflected in silent synchronous meetings, closed cameras, low attendance, large heterogeneous classes, weak social bonding, and uneven student readiness. In response, lecturers used pragmatic strategies rather than fully developed online language pedagogy. These strategies included calling students by name, assigning read-aloud turns, checking comprehension directly, enforcing rules and sanctions, preparing backup materials, and using alternative platforms such as Google Meet and WhatsApp. The study concludes that online English teaching by non-English major lecturers depends heavily on individual improvisation unless institutions provide clearer attendance policy, smaller class structures, training in online language pedagogy, and reliable technical support.

Keywords: higher education; instructional strategies; non-English major lecturer, online English teaching; teaching challenges

Abstrak

Perkembangan pembelajaran daring telah mengubah pelaksanaan mata kuliah bahasa Inggris di perguruan tinggi, terutama ketika bahasa Inggris diajarkan oleh dosen yang latar belakang akademiknya bukan pendidikan bahasa Inggris. Penelitian ini mengkaji bagaimana dosen non-bahasa Inggris mengalami dan merespons tantangan dalam mengajar kelas bahasa Inggris daring di sebuah universitas swasta di Jakarta. Satu pertanyaan penelitian digunakan, yaitu bagaimana dosen non-bahasa Inggris mengalami dan merespons tantangan dalam pelaksanaan kelas bahasa Inggris daring. Penelitian ini menggunakan desain studi kasus kualitatif dengan melibatkan tiga dosen,

video observasi kelas, dan respons kuesioner dari dua puluh tujuh mahasiswa. Data dianalisis menggunakan model interaktif Miles dan Huberman yang meliputi kondensasi data, penyajian data, dan penarikan kesimpulan. Temuan menunjukkan bahwa tantangan utama bukan sekadar masalah teknologi, melainkan kegagalan interaksi pedagogis dan psikologis yang tampak melalui kelas yang pasif, kamera tertutup, kehadiran rendah, kelas besar yang heterogen, lemahnya ikatan sosial, dan kesiapan mahasiswa yang tidak merata. Strategi dosen meliputi pemanggilan nama mahasiswa, tugas membaca bergiliran, pengecekan pemahaman, penegakan aturan, sanksi, persiapan materi cadangan, serta penggunaan Google Meet dan WhatsApp. Penelitian ini menyimpulkan bahwa pengajaran bahasa Inggris daring oleh dosen non-bahasa Inggris membutuhkan dukungan kebijakan, pelatihan pedagogi bahasa daring, dan sistem kelas yang lebih terkendali.

Kata kunci: dosen non-bahasa Inggris; pendidikan tinggi; pengajaran daring; strategi instruksional ;tantangan mengajar

Introduction

Online learning has become a normal part of higher education rather than an emergency arrangement. The COVID-19 pandemic accelerated this shift and forced universities to move many courses into virtual platforms with limited preparation. English courses were also affected by this transition. In many universities, the problem was not only how to move materials from a classroom to a learning management system. The more difficult problem was how to maintain interaction, speaking practice, feedback, confidence, and social presence when students and lecturers were physically separated. This issue becomes more complicated when the course is taught by lecturers whose academic background is not English language education.

In the context of English language teaching, online instruction requires more than the ability to operate a platform.

Lecturers must design interaction, manage participation, scaffold language use, provide feedback, and reduce anxiety. Baran, Correia, and Thompson (2011) argue that online teaching changes the lecturer's role because the lecturer must become a facilitator, designer, and manager of interaction. Fidalgo-Blanco et al. (2017) also show that active online learning depends on motivation, guidance, and facilitation. These demands are already challenging for trained English lecturers. For non-English major lecturers, the challenge becomes heavier because they must manage a language class while also negotiating their own confidence, pedagogical knowledge, and technological readiness.

The literature on online English teaching has repeatedly reported issues such as limited student engagement, weak interaction, poor internet connection, lack of digital readiness, and difficulty in managing

assessment. Aldayel (2024) found that online English lecturers faced communication problems, low student involvement, unfamiliar content preparation, and technological constraints. Bond et al. (2021) and Klusmann et al. (2022) also show that emergency remote teaching increased pressure on lecturers because they had to manage unfamiliar digital environments while maintaining student learning. In Indonesian higher education, similar obstacles appear in the form of unstable connectivity, uneven access to devices, and inconsistent participation (Dewi, 2020; Rohmadani, 2020).

Online English teaching is also different from many content-based subjects because the medium and the target of learning are closely connected. In an accounting, management, or science class, English may function only as a medium of explanation. In an English class, however, English is simultaneously the content, the medium, and the performance expected from students. This creates a higher interactional burden. A lecturer cannot simply explain the topic and end the class. The lecturer must create repeated opportunities for students to use English, make mistakes, repair meaning, and receive feedback. When this process moves online, the lecturer must build those

opportunities through digital interaction, not through ordinary classroom proximity.

However, most studies still discuss online English teaching from the perspective of English lecturers, general teachers, or students. Fewer studies examine lecturers from non-English academic disciplines who are assigned to teach English courses online. This gap matters because non-English major lecturers occupy an unusual instructional position. They may have adequate general English competence or long professional experience, but they may not have formal preparation in second language pedagogy, communicative language teaching, feedback strategies, pronunciation support, task sequencing, or classroom language scaffolding. Treating them as ordinary online lecturers ignores the specific burden attached to teaching a language course outside their disciplinary training.

The thesis data used in this article show that the institutional context is also important. At the private university in Jakarta examined in this study, English courses were supported by standardized modules, videos, assignments, quizzes, and an online learning system. This support reduced the burden of content preparation because lecturers did not have to design every material independently. Yet the same system also

created a paradox. Because materials were already available asynchronously, students could assume that attending synchronous sessions was unnecessary.

This mindset weakened attendance and interaction. The lecturers then became less like full course designers and more like online tutors expected to animate a class that students did not always treat as socially or academically necessary.

The Indonesian higher education context makes this problem more complex. Many universities provide compulsory English courses for students from different study programs. The intention is reasonable because graduates need English for academic reading, professional communication, digital information, and future employment. Yet the implementation is often administratively difficult. Students from different majors are combined into large classes, English proficiency levels are uneven, and course delivery may be centralized through a support unit. This system can be efficient, but efficiency is not the same as pedagogy. A large standardized online course may deliver content, but it may not automatically create the conditions needed for language development.

This situation reveals a serious pedagogical problem. The presence of standardized material does not automatically produce meaningful learning. In language

learning, students need practice, feedback, and interaction. If students attend passively, close their cameras, ignore questions, or rely only on uploaded materials, the online English class becomes an empty administrative event. The lecturer may be present, the platform may function, and the module may be complete, but communicative learning does not happen. This is why the so-called ghost class phenomenon is central in this study. It is not a minor classroom inconvenience. It is evidence that the basic interactional condition of language learning has collapsed.

Previous research has recommended several ways to improve online teaching, such as interactive learning, professional development, digital platform mastery, better content design, and reliable technical support (Aldayel, 2024; Kearns, 2015; Mohamad, Salleh, & Salam, 2015). These recommendations are useful, but they need to be read carefully in this case. The lecturers in this study did not mainly need another abstract discussion about online education. They needed immediate operational strategies to make students answer, attend, read, speak, and continue learning when the system failed. Their strategies were therefore pragmatic, directive, and sometimes disciplinary. They called students by name, asked them to read, checked comprehension

directly, threatened sanctions, prepared backup links, and used WhatsApp for coordination.

The novelty of this article lies in its focus on the relationship between structural online class conditions and the survival strategies used by non-English major lecturers. Instead of presenting challenges and strategies as two separate lists, the article argues that the strategies are shaped by the type of challenge lecturers face. When students disappear behind closed cameras, lecturers use interaction-forcing. When attendance policy is weak, lecturers create their own governance. When the platform is unstable, lecturers prepare technical backup. When class members come from different majors and do not know one another, lecturers struggle to build accountability. This relationship is important because it shows that the problem is not lecturer weakness alone. The problem is produced by the interaction of platform design, institutional policy, class structure, student motivation, and lecturer background.

Therefore, this article is guided by one research question: how do non-English major lecturers experience and respond to the challenges of conducting online English classes at a private university in Jakarta? The objective is to identify the main challenge patterns and explain the strategies lecturers

use to keep online English instruction functioning. By focusing on one integrated question, the article avoids a shallow separation between problem and solution and instead shows how lecturers construct practical responses under institutional and pedagogical pressure. The findings are expected to inform faculty development, online course governance, and the design of English courses for students from non-English academic programs.

Method

This study employed a qualitative case study design. A case study was suitable because the research focused on a bounded phenomenon, namely the experience of non-English major lecturers teaching online English classes in one private university in Jakarta. Yin (2018) defines a case study as an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundary between the phenomenon and context is not clearly visible. In this study, the phenomenon of online English teaching could not be separated from the institutional system, standardized modules, class size, student attendance policy, and lecturer background.

The participants consisted of three lecturers from non-English academic

backgrounds who were assigned to teach online English courses. Their backgrounds varied, including accounting, management, and other non-English disciplines. The selection was purposive because the study required participants who had direct

experience teaching English online without being formally trained as English language education specialists. The student perspective was also included through questionnaire responses from twenty-seven students.

Table 1. Research Design and Data Sources

Component	Description
Design	Qualitative case study of online English teaching by non-English major lecturers.
Participants	Three non-English major lecturers and supporting questionnaire responses from twenty-seven students.
Data sources	Semi-structured interviews, classroom observation videos, and student questionnaires.
Analysis	Miles and Huberman interactive model: data condensation, data display, and conclusion drawing.
Trustworthiness	Source triangulation and member checking.

This additional data helped the researcher understand whether lecturer-reported challenges were visible from the learner side. The data were collected through three sources: semi-structured interviews, video-based classroom observations, and student questionnaires. The semi-structured interviews allowed lecturers to describe their experience, difficulties, preparation, interaction management, technological problems, assessment practices, and support needs.

The observation videos provided direct evidence of how online classes were

conducted, especially how students responded to lecturer prompts. The questionnaire offered supporting information about student participation and perceptions. The use of three sources was necessary because relying only on lecturer interviews would have made the findings too dependent on self-report.

The interview data were transcribed and coded using a deductive and inductive procedure. The initial coding was informed by the literature on online English teaching challenges and strategies, particularly Aldayel's (2024) categorization of online

teaching challenges and pedagogical responses. However, the coding was also open to patterns that emerged from the participants' own accounts. The challenge codes included interaction breakdown, low attendance, class structure barriers,

Data analysis followed the interactive model proposed by Miles and Huberman (1991), consisting of data condensation, data display, and conclusion drawing or verification. During data condensation, the researcher selected relevant interview segments, observation notes, and questionnaire tendencies related to the research question. During data display, the coded data were organized into thematic tables and visual charts. During conclusion drawing, the researcher interpreted how the challenges and strategies were connected. The final interpretation was not based only on frequency but also on the salience of each theme across participants and data sources.

To strengthen trustworthiness, this study used triangulation and member checking. Source triangulation was achieved by comparing lecturer interviews, student questionnaire responses, and observation evidence. Member checking was conducted by allowing selected participants to confirm whether the interpretation reflected their experience. These steps were important because the study dealt with sensitive issues

curriculum and level mismatch, affective barriers, and relevance problems. The strategy codes included interaction-forcing, rule enforcement, sanctions, technical mitigation, alternative platforms, and communication channels.

such as lecturer confidence, institutional support, student passivity, and classroom control. The study was limited by its small participant number and single-institution context. Therefore, the findings should not be generalized statistically, but they provide an analytic understanding of a specific and underexplored teaching situation.

Result and Discussion

The findings show that online English teaching by non-English major lecturers was shaped by a dual pressure. On the one hand, lecturers had to deliver English content and maintain students' communicative engagement. On the other hand, they had to work within an online system where attendance was weak, students were heterogeneous, materials were mostly standardized, and social connection among class members was limited. The result was not simply a technical problem. The deeper issue was the breakdown of online classroom presence.

The first and strongest challenge was student engagement breakdown during

synchronous meetings. Lecturers repeatedly described sessions where students were logged in but did not respond when called. One lecturer explained that when she asked students to read, 'No one answer and they

are closed the camera, so it means they are disappear from my class.' This statement is important because it captures the ghost class phenomenon. Students were technically present but interactionally absent.

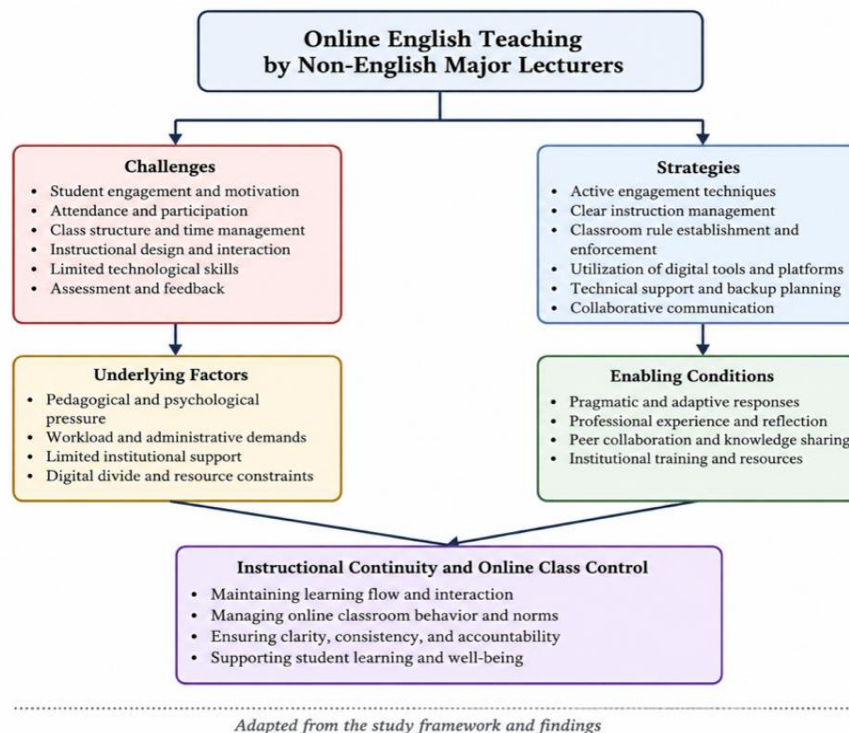


Figure 1. Conceptual framework of online English teaching challenges and strategies.

In a language class, such absence is destructive because speaking, listening, pronunciation practice, and feedback depend on visible and audible participation. This finding is consistent with research showing that online classes often reduce social presence and weaken interaction. Martin and Bolliger (2018) argue that learner engagement in online environments must be deliberately designed because it does not

emerge automatically. Aldayel (2024) also found that online English classes suffered from student disengagement and communication barriers. The present study extends those findings by showing that the problem becomes sharper when the lecturer is not an English education specialist. The lecturer must manage silence while also sustaining confidence as a language instructor. The problem is therefore

pedagogical and psychological at the same time.

The second challenge was low synchronous attendance and weak attendance governance. One respondent reported that attendance was sometimes 'not even close to half' of the class. The same respondent explained the reason directly: there was 'no punishment' and therefore 'there is no need' to attend. This finding indicates that student absence was not only caused by technical difficulty or personal constraints. It was also produced by a policy environment in which synchronous participation was not strongly tied to consequence, value, or accountability.

The asynchronous sufficiency mindset intensified this problem. Because videos, modules, quizzes, and assignments were already available in the system, some students appeared to treat synchronous meetings as optional. From a content-delivery perspective, this may seem efficient. From a language-learning perspective, it is dangerous. Language learning requires interactional use. Students cannot develop speaking confidence only by completing quizzes or watching videos. The data therefore suggest that a complete digital module does not guarantee a functioning online English class. The class still needs a social and pedagogical reason for students to appear, listen, speak, and respond.

The third challenge was class structure. Lecturers taught large and heterogeneous classes consisting of students from different faculties, study programs, and class schemes. One lecturer described a class of around sixty students from various majors who 'do not even know each other.' Another lecturer described the class as highly heterogeneous, with students coming from regular, parallel, and executive programs. This structure created three consequences. First, lecturers found it difficult to monitor individual students. Second, students had uneven English readiness. Third, weak social bonding reduced accountability because students did not know one another and did not feel socially visible.

This finding supports the argument that online engagement is shaped by social structure, not only by lecturer technique. If students come from different majors, do not share a class identity, and meet only through a screen, the lecturer cannot easily build a communicative community. Online language teaching requires psychological safety and group familiarity. Without these conditions, students who are afraid of making mistakes can hide behind camera-off participation. The heterogeneous class structure therefore interacts with affective barriers such as anxiety, low confidence, and fear of speaking English.

The fourth challenge was curriculum and readiness mismatch. One lecturer noted that students in English 3 did not always complete English 1 or English 2 before entering the course. Another lecturer reported students from programs such as visual communication design and physiotherapy questioning why they had to learn English. These comments show a mismatch between institutional expectation and student readiness or motivation. In theory, English courses at university level are intended to develop minimum communicative competence. In practice, some students entered the class with low perceived relevance, uneven prerequisites, and resistance toward English.

The questionnaire and observation data supported the interview findings. Observation showed that students did not always respond immediately during live meetings, and lecturers had to initiate nearly every interaction. This confirms that the

challenge was not imagined by lecturers. It appeared in the actual classroom process. The questionnaire data were not used to generalize statistically, but they helped situate the lecturers' accounts within the students' learning environment. Together, the three sources show a consistent pattern: online English learning in this setting required more active management than the system itself provided.

This mismatch matters because it affects participation. Students who do not see English as relevant to their major are less likely to invest energy in synchronous participation. Students who feel underprepared are more likely to remain silent. Students who believe the course is only an administrative requirement may finish assignments but avoid genuine language use. The challenge is therefore not only that lecturers lack an English education background.

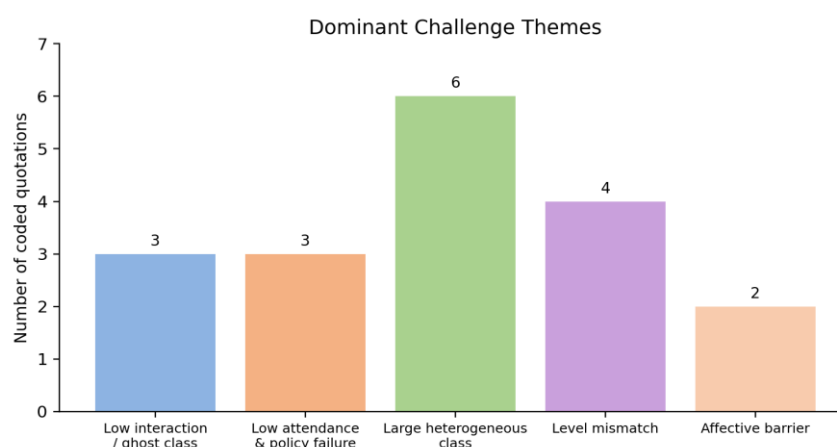


Figure 2. Distribution of dominant challenge themes.

Table 2. Dominant Challenges and Representative Evidence

Theme	Representative evidence	Interpretive point
Engagement breakdown	No one answered and students closed their cameras.	Presence did not guarantee interaction.
Low attendance	Attendance was not even close to half and no punishment was attached.	Weak governance normalized absence.
Class structure	Around sixty students came from different majors and did not know each other.	Large heterogeneous classes weakened social bonding.
Level mismatch	Students entered higher English levels without adequate prerequisite learning.	Course expectations were not aligned with readiness.

Students also bring unequal motivation and readiness into the online environment. The online format makes these differences easier to hide and harder to diagnose. The lecturers' first major strategy was interaction-forcing. This strategy included calling students by name, asking students to read aloud, assigning turn-taking tasks, and checking comprehension with questions such as 'Do you understand?' One respondent described repeatedly calling one student to read a paragraph and asking another student to respond. This method functioned as an accountability mechanism. When students would not volunteer, lecturers created participation by selecting students directly.

Interaction-forcing is pedagogically imperfect but contextually understandable. In an ideal communicative language class, students participate because tasks are meaningful, the atmosphere is safe, and interaction is routine. In the observed

context, that ideal condition was not available. The lecturer faced silence, closed cameras, large classes, and weak attendance rules. Calling students by name became a survival strategy. It forced a minimal level of response and allowed lecturers to assess pronunciation, comprehension, and attention. However, the strategy also carries risk. If used without support, it may increase anxiety among students who already fear speaking English.

The second strategy was rule enforcement and sanctions. One respondent stated that she warned inactive students and deleted names when they refused to participate. After that action, the remaining students became more active. This strategy reveals that lecturers created their own classroom governance when institutional enforcement was weak. The sanction was not merely punitive. It was an attempt to signal that online presence must involve

participation. In that sense, the lecturer was trying to redefine attendance from physical or digital presence into active engagement.

The need for sanctions also exposes a policy weakness. If a university offers online English classes but does not clearly connect synchronous participation with assessment, lecturers must carry the burden of enforcement alone. This creates inconsistency. Some lecturers may be strict, others may tolerate silence, and students learn to negotiate the system instead of engaging with the course. A better institutional policy would define participation requirements, attendance consequences, and minimum synchronous activities from the start of the semester. Without such policy, lecturers are forced to improvise discipline.

Student silence should also be interpreted carefully. The data show that silence was sometimes connected to low confidence and fear of using English. Lecturers did not always interpret student passivity as laziness. One respondent suggested that students might be scared because they had to use English. Another respondent described lack of confidence as a typical reason behind non-response. This matters because the wrong interpretation can lead to the wrong solution. If silence is treated only as disobedience, the response

will be punishment. If silence is also understood as anxiety, the response must include scaffolding, reassurance, and low-risk practice. Effective online English teaching requires both accountability and psychological safety.

The lecturers' position as non-English major lecturers also shaped how they responded to student anxiety. Some lecturers were aware that their own English was not native-like, yet they used this condition productively. Instead of hiding their non-native identity, they framed English as a practical communication tool. This is a useful stance in Indonesian higher education because many students mistakenly assume that English competence means flawless grammar or native pronunciation. A lecturer who communicates effectively despite imperfect fluency can model realistic English use. However, this strength should not be romanticized. It still requires continuous development, especially in pronunciation feedback, classroom language, task design, and ways of correcting students without increasing anxiety.

The strategies observed in this study should therefore be understood as compensatory strategies. They compensate for missing social presence, missing attendance enforcement, missing class

cohesion, and occasional technical instability. Compensatory strategies are necessary, but they are not the same as high-quality pedagogy. A lecturer who constantly calls names and threatens sanctions may keep a class alive, but that does not automatically create meaningful communicative competence. The challenge for the institution is to convert these emergency practices into a more principled online language teaching model.

The third strategy was technical mitigation and backup planning. One lecturer prepared materials before class, downloaded videos, created Google Meet links, and shared them through WhatsApp groups so the class could continue when the server went down. She described Google Meet as an escape route to keep learning running outside the main system. This strategy is important because it shows a practical form of resilience. Instead of waiting for technical problems to be solved institutionally, the lecturer prepared alternative channels to

protect learning time.

Technical mitigation was especially important for executive or working students who invested time and money to attend the course. The lecturer framed students as customers who should not be left without learning when a system failed. This view may sound managerial, but it points to a legitimate issue in online education: reliability is part of teaching quality. If students gather online and the platform fails, the lecturer needs a backup system. The findings therefore suggest that online English teaching requires not only pedagogy but also operational planning.

Another strategy was reliance on standardized content provided by the university support unit. The lecturers used modules, videos, assignments, quizzes, and learning management system features already prepared by the institution. This helped them because they did not have to design all English materials independently.

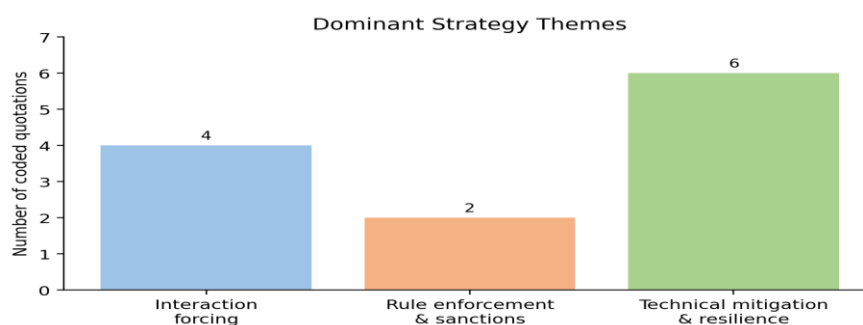


Figure 3. Distribution of dominant strategy themes.

For non-English major lecturers, standardized content can reduce anxiety about accuracy and scope. It ensures that the course has a common structure across classes. Yet standardized content also created limitations. Some lecturers felt that their role became closer to tutoring than full teaching because the core materials were already provided. One respondent even questioned what the lecturer should do when the video and module already explained the lesson. This comment is revealing. It shows that standardized content can unintentionally reduce lecturer agency if the lecturer is not trained to transform materials into interaction. Materials do not teach by themselves. Lecturers still need to use them as prompts for explanation, practice, discussion, feedback, and reflection.

The standardized course system also requires sharper interpretation. It gave lecturers prepared materials, but it did not automatically give them pedagogical scripts. A module can state the grammar point; a video can explain vocabulary; a quiz can measure recognition. None of these automatically produces spontaneous language use. The missing layer is the lecturer's transformation of content into interaction. In practical terms, lecturers need guidance on what to do before the video, during the discussion, after the quiz, and

when students do not answer. Without this guidance, a non-English major lecturer may either repeat the module mechanically or rely on personal improvisation.

This is where online language pedagogy training becomes essential. General training on how to operate the learning management system is not enough. Lecturers need specific training on how to design warm-up questions, create pair or small-group speaking tasks, manage breakout rooms, use chat for low-pressure participation, provide corrective feedback, assess speaking, and sequence interaction from controlled to freer production. These competencies are not optional accessories. They are central to language teaching. For lecturers outside English education, targeted training would reduce dependence on coercive participation and help them move toward more supportive communicative practice.

The data also point to a tension between flexibility and responsibility. Online learning is often valued because it allows students to access materials at different times and from different locations. However, in a language course, too much flexibility without accountability can weaken practice. Students may choose the easiest route: watching later, submitting tasks quickly, avoiding live interaction, and treating the class as a requirement rather than a learning

space. The lecturers' directive strategies emerged because flexibility had not been balanced with responsibility. A better design would preserve flexibility while still requiring visible participation and regular language use.

Assessment practices also need attention. Several lecturers relied on system scores, quizzes, attendance records, and submitted assignments to monitor progress. These indicators are useful, but they measure completion more easily than communicative growth. In an online English class, students may submit written tasks with external help, including translation tools or artificial intelligence, while still avoiding speaking practice. Therefore, assessment should include short oral checks, recorded speaking tasks, peer response, and reflective evidence of learning. This would make the assessment more aligned with the communicative purpose of the course rather than merely documenting that students clicked, uploaded, or completed a quiz.

Technology was present in the findings, but it was not the only or even the deepest challenge. Some lecturers had stable personal connections and knew how to use Google Meet or the learning management system. The harder problem was what happened after the class started: students

did not respond, did not turn on cameras, and did not treat synchronous meetings as necessary.

This distinction is important. If the university responds only by improving servers, the ghost class problem will remain. Technical infrastructure is necessary, but online pedagogy, attendance policy, and classroom culture are equally decisive.

Peer support is another necessary layer. The participants reported different levels of support. Some discussed problems with the institutional support unit, while others felt they managed the class alone. This unevenness is a problem. Non-English major lecturers need a community of practice where they can share classroom cases, difficult student responses, useful digital tools, assessment rubrics, and language teaching strategies. Hermansen (2017) and Ryminn, Weston, and Lytle (2017) emphasize the value of collaborative professional learning in digital teaching contexts. A structured peer forum would prevent each lecturer from repeatedly solving the same problems in isolation.

The findings also show that lecturers attempted to manage their own English proficiency concerns in different ways. Some used their status as non-native speakers to model realistic English use. One lecturer

explained that students should see that communication with non-native speakers does not require perfect fluency. This is pedagogically valuable because it challenges the unrealistic belief that only native-like English is acceptable. However, the same finding also implies that lecturers need institutional support to maintain their confidence and competence. Training such as TESOL, TOEFL refreshment, peer sharing, and online language pedagogy workshops would be directly relevant.

The relationship between challenge and strategy is shown in Figure 4. The figure illustrates that online English teaching problems begin with structural conditions such as large mixed classes and weak social bonding. These conditions produce engagement failure, which increases lecturer burden. Lecturers then respond through immediate interaction control and technical continuity planning. However, these individual responses are not enough. The model ends with the need for institutional response, including attendance policy, pedagogical training, and manageable class design.

The policy implication is direct. If the institution wants synchronous online English sessions to matter, active participation must

be designed into the assessment system. Mere attendance is too weak. Students can enter a meeting, turn off the camera, and disappear. A better policy would include participation rubrics, minimum speaking or response tasks, short reflective submissions after synchronous meetings, and transparent consequences for repeated non-participation. This does not mean turning the class into surveillance. It means making participation academically visible. Without visible value, many students will continue to prioritize asynchronous completion over synchronous engagement.

Overall, the discussion suggests that non-English major lecturers are not passive victims of online teaching problems. They actively adapt. The problem is that their adaptation tends to prioritize control, compliance, and continuity rather than deeper communicative language learning. This is not because the lecturers are lazy or incapable. It is because the system places them in a difficult position. They must teach English online to large, mixed, sometimes passive classes with uneven readiness and limited social bonding. Under such conditions, survival strategies dominate. For quality improvement, the institution must move the system beyond survival.

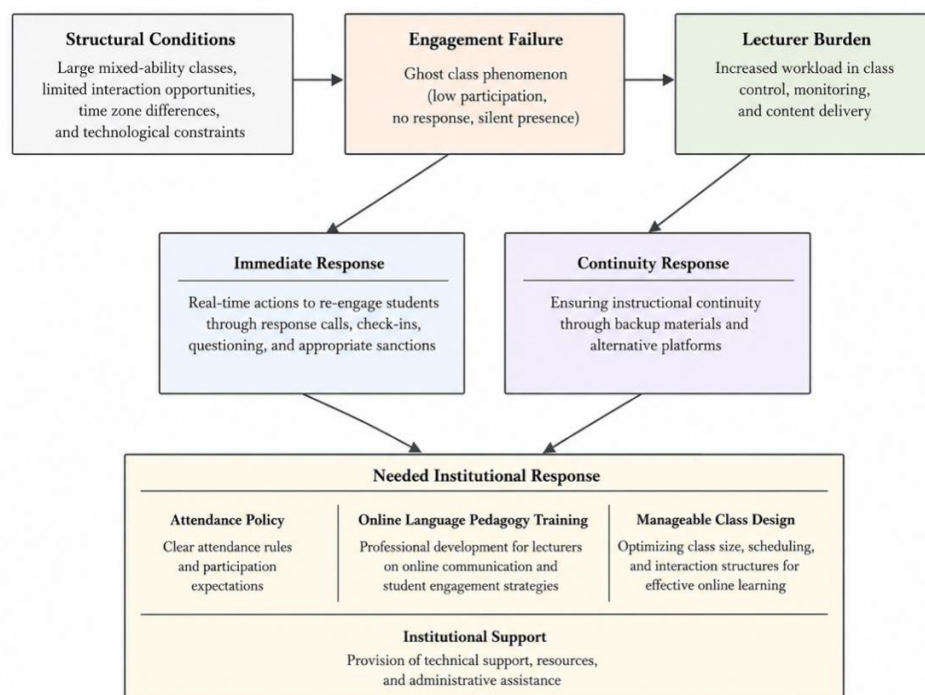


Figure 4. Integrated response model from challenge to institutional support.

Conclusion

This article concludes that non-English major lecturers experience online English teaching as a complex interaction of pedagogical, psychological, technological, and institutional challenges. The central problem is not merely the use of digital platforms. The deeper problem is the collapse of interaction in synchronous classes, visible in silent students, closed cameras, low attendance, and limited speaking practice. Large heterogeneous classes, weak social bonding, uneven prerequisites, and low perceived relevance of English further intensify the problem.

The lecturers respond through pragmatic strategies. They call students by

name, ask them to read aloud, check comprehension directly, enforce rules, apply sanctions, prepare backup materials, and use alternative platforms and WhatsApp groups to keep the class running. These strategies are useful for maintaining continuity and minimum participation. However, they also show that lecturers are often left to solve structural problems individually. When online English teaching depends too much on lecturer improvisation, course quality becomes unstable.

The implication is clear. Universities should not assign non-English major lecturers to online English classes and assume that standardized modules are enough. They must provide targeted training in online language

pedagogy, clear policies on synchronous participation, smaller or more coherent class groupings, reliable technical infrastructure, and regular peer-sharing forums. Without these supports, online English classes risk becoming administrative routines rather than communicative learning spaces. Future research should compare non-English major lecturers with English education lecturers across different universities and examine whether specific interventions can reduce the ghost class phenomenon over a full semester.

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