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Editorial

English language teaching (ELT) is always on the shifting stands of politics, ideology and practice. Such global shift is clearly found in educational plannings, policies, curricula, teaching learning processes, assessment systems and in overall modes and modalities of teacher education. The perspectives and practices in English language teaching have been amalgamated due to both intensive and extensive research works which unlocked the crossroads to march ahead in the domain. English language teaching in Nepal is also directing and moving ahead on the way of catching such global trends. In this context, we are pleased to bring second volume of Journal of NELTA Gandaki (JONG) as the sphere of all these activities.

This volume of JONG becomes a meeting point of ELT practitioners, who are in different phases of professional development. It addresses multiple facets of linguistics, literature and English language teaching. It is an open access, online indexed journal and, therefore, can be accessed by any ELT professionals with access to internet.

The Journal of NELTA Gandaki (JoNG) follows a standard blind review process for all the articles. Any article that is received into our official mailbox is reviewed by the editorial team. If it meets the basic requirement and standard of the journal, it is passed on to two reviewers with relevant expertise in the field. Based on the review, the editorial board decides if the article is standard and worthy for publication. The article may still be rejected if the author fails to satisfy the standards and requirements as advised by the reviewers.

In response to our call for papers for this volume, we received 27 articles in total. Among them, only 8 were selected for publication after a rigorous review process. The first article sheds light on peer observation for self enhancement and concludes that peer observation is a rewarding learning experience. The second article deals with linguistic landscapes in multilingual Nepal and concludes that diversity in linguistic landscape is the concrete manifestation of multilingual society where languages are in struggle for their existence. Likewise, the next article reveals that English language teachers involved their students in the use of multiple languages that they know for developing content knowledge. Similarly, the fourth article shows that the teachers of public schools are aware of the basic concepts of English as medium of instruction even if they have to face a number of challenges in implementing it.

The firth article, about second language acquisition as a discipline, reflects various models, theories and practices on it and concludes that second language acquisition settles itself as an independent discipline. Similarly, the next article reveals that qualified, dynamic and devoted teachers having all professional qualities are required for effective English language teaching. The seventh article concludes that the teachers and the syllabus designers should be updated to the current approaches, methods and practices of writing for teaching writing effectively. The final article concludes that M. Phil pursuing students had positive attitudes and supportive perception towards post method pedagogy.

As this is a peer reviewed journal, numerous hands directly and/or indirectly have bequeathed to maintain quality and standard to bring it into this shape. We would like to extend our sincere gratitude to the

contributors and reviewers from home and abroad without whose punctilious abutment, the journal would not have been materialized in this form. We would also like to express our gratitude to NELTA Gandaki Province, the advisors, peer-reviewers, and paper contributors for full blown support, encouragement and guidance wherever needed.

Although the articles published in the journal are the properties of NELTA Gandaki Province, the authenticity and liability of the ideas and views expressed on them go to the respective authors themselves.

Constructive feedback from the valued readers and well-wishers are always welcome to uplift the standard and quality in the upcoming issues of the journal.

- Editors

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Use of Peer Observation for Self-enhancement

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Abstract

The present article concerns the use of peer observation, particularly in the context of microteaching, for self-enhancement. The study followed a mixed methods design comprising survey and focused discussion. The data were collected from prospective external evaluators of teaching practice who participated in the training session entitled Find Good Practices of Teaching Demonstrated by their Peers and Adopt and Adapt According to their Needs so as to find out the participants' perspectives on observing their peers' classes and benefits they reaped from the observation. Analysis of the participants' written and oral accounts reveals that peer observation is a rewarding learning experience; and observation is likely to be fruitful when it is preceded by self-inquiry, that is, identification of what the observer himself/herself is lacking and followed by critical reflection on the observed lesson and the observer's own practice. Also, the peer's weaknesses can be employed as a critical incident to question one's own teaching behavior.

Keywords: Adaptation, adoption, critical reflection, peer observation, self-enhancement

Introduction

Peer observation constitutes the core part of teaching practice. It has been recognized as the mandatory component of teachers' professional development with the assumption that both prospective and practicing teachers can benefit a lot by observing each other's classes. The cursory survey of some of the key publications in teacher training and teacher development (Head & Tayler, 1997; Harmer 2008; Richards & Farrell, 2010; Richards & Lockhart, 2010; Wallace, 2010; Wragg, 2012) reveals the centrality of peer observation in teacher development in general and practice teaching in particular. Its centrality is conspicuously manifested in the teacher preparation program. The Bachelor's and Master's programs of Faculty of Education (Tribhuvan University) can be a case in point. Both B. Ed. and M. Ed. programs have prescribed teaching practice as the compulsory course for prospective English teachers and both the courses recognize peer observation as the inevitable component. The course entitled 'Teaching Practice' (542) prescribed to the M. Ed. fourth semester serves to illustrate the case. The course makes observation and recording of peers' lessons and their analysis mandatory both in microteaching and actual teaching at school or college with a view to enhancing trainee teachers' professional experiences.

Peer observation is a negotiated collaboration between the observer and the observed in which teachers observe each other's practice, "focusing on teachers' individual needs and the opportunity to both learn from others' practice and offer constructive feedback to peers" (Victorian Department of Education & Training, 2018, p. 8). In the case of microteaching, peer observation is a process in which a prospective teacher takes the role of an actual teacher and the rest take part as students of a particular level. It is a kind of "role-play or simulation" (Wallace, 2010, p.100) normally by trainee or prospective teachers. In other words, prospective teachers prepare themselves for actual teaching by teaching each other, and observing

and evaluating each other's lesson in a training context.

As role-play, peer teaching requires participants to take on dual roles simultaneously as students of a particular level and critical observers of their peer's teaching. The first role necessitates them representing "a class or learners at level X (whatever that level might be)" (Wallace, 1991, p. 100). Participants are to be attentive, curious and should behave like actual school or college students. That is, they participate in the class, interact with the teacher and with each other, and share their ideas as in the actual class. The second role, on the other hand, requires them to be the critical observer of their peer's teaching on the basis of certain criteria and they even have to jot down their impressions of the lesson. Simply put, while performing the role of the observer, they watch the lesson carefully, evaluate it and make some value judgment about the teaching performance.

Given the centrality of peer observation in teachers' professional development, the present study aimed to find out the prospective external evaluators' views about the role that observation played in their professional enhancement.

Review of Literature

Rational behind the use of peer observation to enhance the professional practice of trainee as well as practicing teachers is well established, for it "enables teachers to build their individual capability and develop a shared understanding of effective classroom practice. It also allows teachers to build their capability in giving and receiving feedback" (Victorian Department of Education & Training, 2018, p. 8). As a part of capacity building, peer observation is a process of watching the peer's teaching performance, obtaining information about his/her skills, knowledge and resources, and giving feedback on one or all of these areas as well as learning from the peer's performance. In principle, peer observation thus serves twin purposes: giving feedback on the peer's performance for his/her improvement on the one hand and learning from his/her performance for self-improvement on the other.

Observation that aims at improving the professional practice of the teacher being observed can be termed as other-enhancement, whereas observation that is driven by the desire to improve the observer's own professional practice can be termed as self-enhancement. Conventionally, peer observation means the former, i.e. watching the peer's lesson closely and imparting constructive feedback for his/her professional enhancement. This is the most widely recognized role of peer observation, particularly in the context of microteaching. The use of peer observation for the professional enhancement of observers themselves has been largely overlooked in ELT professional development and its value is least realized in the teacher education program despite the fact that "skillfully handled classroom observation can benefit both the observer and the person observed, serving to inform and enhance the professional skill of both people" (Wragg, 2012, p.2). In this regard, Victorian Department of Education and Training (2018) rightly recognizes the two-way contribution of peer observation as it "can benefit both the teacher being observed and the observer" because it provides, among others "opportunities to discuss challenges and successes with trusted colleagues and support the sharing of ideas and expertise among teachers" (2018, p. 8) The thrust of the argument is that peer observation is to be employed as a space shared by the observer and the

observed where one can learn from the other.

Observation for other-enhancement is outward-projected in that the observer directs feedback towards the teacher being observed. To further explicate this notion, the observer's main object is to give feedback to the peer teacher for the sake of his/her professional enhancement. Whatever the observer learns from his/her peer's performance is the byproduct of observation. On the contrary, the second type of observation is mainly inward-projected in that the observer directs feedback towards himself/herself. That is to say, his/her main object is to learn from the performance of the teacher being observed. S/he may or may not give feedback to the peer whose lesson has been observed, for s/he is driven by the strong desire for self-enhancement through self-evaluation in light of what has been observed. Stressing the role of peer observation for self-enhancement, Harmer (2007) refers to Cosh and Woodward (2003) who posit that "the great development potential of peer observation is for the observer, not the person being observed" (p.420). Cosh and Woodward's position is substantiated by Hendry and Oliver's (2012) findings which reveal that while engaging in peer observation, observers learn how to use new teaching strategies, affirm their self-efficacy, and develop confidence in doing something that is seemingly too difficult to do. Drawing on the findings, Hendry and Oliver conclude that the process of observing is more valuable than "being observed and given feedback" (p.1).

While observing others, we are also observing ourselves. In this regard, philosopher Krishnamurti avers that the observer is the observed (1946). That is, the observer himself/herself also becomes the object of observation while observing others; the observer turns towards himself/herself. Its result is that there is a constant interaction between outward (other) observation and inward (self) observation leading to self-inquiry and self-knowledge. Self-inquiry or "questioning one's own assumptions while observing can be a genuinely intrapersonal development" (Harmer, p. 420). Critical self-observation has been identified as one of the key strategies of reflective teaching (Richards & Lockhart, 2010) and reflective practice model of professional educational development (Wallace, 2010), both reiterating the fact that the observing teacher becomes critically aware of his/her own practice. To put it another way, "observing another teacher may also trigger reflections about one's own teaching" (Richards & Farrell, 2010, p. 89). Participants observe their peer's lesson, evaluate his/her way of teaching, identify certain areas that they think went best or did not go as they had expected, reflect on these areas and think how they can adopt or adapt them in their own teaching. To put it simply, it is a form of self-directed learning in which the observer identifies a gap in his/her own teaching knowledge and/or skill, explores the way of filling the gap and adopts and/or adapts the strength or desirable practice and reflects to what extent it works for him/her.

Methodology

The present study followed a mixed methods design that comprised survey and focused discussion with the university teachers who participated in a five-day training program entitled 'Teaching Practice External Evaluation Roster Training' conducted by Faculty of Education at Kathmandu Shikshya Campus, Satungal. The training aimed at preparing the M.Ed. level external evaluators for teaching practice. Successful implementation of peer observation during microteaching was one of the components of

the training session that lasted for two hours and a half. In the session entitled 'Find Good Practices of Teaching Demonstrated by their Peers and Adopt and Adapt According to their Needs', my role as a facilitator was to help the prospective external evaluators to reflect on learning from observing others' lessons, explore 'good or desirable practices' of teaching, challenges of successful implementation of peer observation during microteaching and work out the solutions. Of these four key areas of the session, the present article concerns only the prospective external evaluators' reflections on observing their peers' classes during microteaching or in the actual professional setting and sharing their observation experiences primarily in written form.

As to the experience of learning from the observation of peer's teaching, the following questions were posed to them: a) Do you remember observing any of your peers' class? b) If yes, do you remember some aspects of his/her teaching that really impressed you? c) If yes, did you carry them over to your lesson later? and d) If yes, did it improve your teaching? With the presentation of these close-ended and open-ended questions, each of the participants was provided with a loose sheet of paper to recount their observation experiences and they were given 15 to 20 minutes to record. Before the collection of the responses, five of the participants presented their written experiences that led to an open discussion. The ideas shared during the discussion were noted down to supplement the written accounts. Of the total 49 participants, only 35 of them responded in the written form, whereas the rest either had no such experience to share or wished to share their experiences only orally during the open discussion session. The participants were coded P1, P2...P35 to ensure their anonymity. The written accounts and notes collected during open discussion were analyzed using content analysis, which involves "a careful, detailed, systematic examination and interpretation of a particular body of material in an effort to identify patterns, themes, biases, and meanings" (Berg, 2007, pp. 303-304). Further, I have used an interpretive approach to the analysis of the cases collected from the participants.

<center>**Results and Discussion**</center>

The following themes emerged from the analysis of the written and oral accounts: a) observation as a rewarding learning experience; b) focus of observation; c) necessity of dependency and anxiety of influence; (d) learning from the peer's weaknesses; and (e) the cyclic process of observation for self-enhancement.

Rewarding Learning Experience

The overwhelming majority (71%) of the participants shared the experience of observing their peers' lessons in some point of their professional life in different settings. Some recounted the experience of observing the lessons as trainee teachers during microteaching or during actual teaching in school or college, whereas others had observed their peers' lessons as in-service school or college teachers.

Each of the responding participants recounted that observing the peer's class was a rewarding experience, for the observation provided them with an opportunity to recognize the missing part in their own teaching and to see how that could be addressed. The following reflective account exemplifies their learning experience:

I was messy in presentation of key ideas to my students. I lacked the skill of presenting the ideas in a coherent order, that would often create confusion among my students. I observed my colleague's class twice or so. I was surprised to see how systematically he would present key points on the board and deal with each in a coherent way. I noted it in my diary & committed to myself to using this teaching from the next class. (P1)

P1 observed his colleague's class in the actual professional setting. That is, he observed the lesson not as the partial fulfillment of teaching practice formally required by the institution. Rather, he was self-motivated and self-directed, as he was critically aware of his own weakness as a teacher and he wanted to improve it by learning from the best practice of his colleague. His account sheds light on four aspects of observation: a) the use of observation for self-improvement; b) constant reflection on one's own practice and identification of the problem(s); c) attitude to learning from others; and d) trying out what has been learned from others in one's own teaching. Contrary to the conventional practice of using observation as a means of giving feedback to the peer, the responding participants shared the experience of deploying it "as a critical reflective device" (Peel, 2005 p. 489) for self-enhancement. They reflected on their own way of teaching and became aware of what was missing and identified the area that they wised to improve, observed their peers' lessons, noted mentally or in written form what went best in their teaching, and tried out what they had learned from the observation. The responding participants recounted that they experienced some positive change in their teaching after the observation of their peers' classes. The following can be considered as a representative voice:

I was really impressed by one of my peers' style of teaching [a] story, using pictures and arranging them in order and making the students tell the story from the pictures. I noted down this technique, went to my room, made a plan and taught the story like him the following day. My supervisor appreciated my way of teaching story. (P2)

Peer observation thus does have "a developmental function" (Head & Taylor, 1997, p. 186) in helping the observer notice some gap in his/her own knowledge and skill, and fill in the gap with what s/he has learned from the peer. In this context, Peels (2005) cites Shortland who notes that "observation offers tremendous potential to promote self-knowledge and professional development, particularly when it is part of a continuing process" (p. 492).

Focus of Observation

The analysis of responses reveals that observation carried out by participants was purpose-driven, problem-oriented and self-directed. Put simply, each of them maintained their focus on certain aspects of their peer's teaching. Since they were observing their peer's lesson mainly in the hope of bringing about some change in their own teaching, the aspect they focused during observation was the aspect that they felt lacking in themselves or it was the aspect that they wished to improve. In other words, the focus of observation constituted the problem that they wished to solve so as to make their teaching effective as evinced in the following reflection:

When I observed my friend's grammar teaching class at secondary level, I found him presenting

so many examples while teaching simple present tense. And students made many sentences based on the examples. They could construct rules themselves. But I used to present rules to students and would ask them to read the rules and make sentences. I knew that was not much effective. I liked my friend's way of teaching and adopted it in my teaching too. [P10]

The focus of P10 was the problem that he identified in his own teaching i.e. ineffectiveness of the deductive approach. Critically aware of his own practice and driven by the desire for self-improvement, P10 focused on the presentation technique used by his colleague which he, as confessed in the account above, found more effective than his own and adopted it to his subsequent grammar lessons.

It seems that the respondents were aware of the fact that "classrooms are exceptionally busy places" (Wragg, 2012, p.1) and there is every likelihood that the observer gets lost during observation if not well-planned in advance. This is common particularly with the novice observer. Even the experienced observer is likely to lose the track of observation if s/he is not clear beforehand about what to watch. Identification of a focus is a must for observation to yield a fruitful result. In their attempt to outline guidelines for peer observation, Richards and Lockhart (2010) clearly state that "observation should have a focus. The value of observation is increased if the observer knows what to look for" (p.24).

As to the focus of observation, the areas prioritized by respondents were found to be diverse. Table 1 summarizes the foci of their observation:

Table 1

Foci of Observation

Catalogue of the foci of observation	No. of respondents
Clarity and fluency of English (pronunciation)	23
Techniques of content presentation	15
Motivation and engagement techniques	8
Use of materials	2
Subject matter knowledge	2
Classroom management technique	1

Since most of the respondents recounted their experience of observing two or more aspects of the lesson, the total number of respondents in Table 1 exceeds the actual number of participants (i.e. 35). Table 1 reveals that language was the most prioritized aspect of observation. Here language comprises clarity and fluency of English (pronunciation), word choice and grammar (in a descending frequency order).Classroom management techniques, on the other hand, were the least prioritized aspects. It implies that the overwhelming majority of the participants perceived language, pronunciation in particular, as the most problematic aspect of their teaching that they wished to improve by watching their peers' class. Alternatively, we can also say that clear and fluent English was perceived as the key to effective teaching. The following can be presented as a representative case:

I remember observing one of my colleagues' class. I was very impressed by clarity and fluency of his English. Neither too slow, nor too fast. After the observation, I also tried to carry it over to my

lesson. Yes, it improved my presentation. [P15]

The participants showed their prime concern for presentation techniques after accuracy and fluency of language. Like language, presentation techniques such as presenting the grammar lesson with examples, contextualization, story telling, guiding students through different reading activities etc. characterized effective presentation and the observers wanted to improve these areas by watching their peers' performance. They seem to hold the assumptions that: a) efficacy of teaching is largely conditional upon the types of presentation technique that one adopts; and b) use of techniques is observable, learnable, and transferrable to one's own teaching context.

In terms of focus, some observers were uni-focused, while others were multi-focused. The uni-focused observers primarily attended to only one aspect of teaching such as fluency and clarity of English, motivation, and presentation technique. The multi-focused observers, on the contrary, paid attention to more than one aspect of teaching such as language and presentation techniques, presentation techniques and use of materials, and subject matter knowledge and language. Multi-focused observation is the reality, for "lessons are complex events with many different activities occurring simultaneously" (Richards & Lockhart, 2010, p.24). Practically, however, uni-focused observation is more effective than divergent observation because the observer gets the opportunity to explore breadth and depth of the teaching aspect being observed, and such an observed aspect is likely to be effectively transferred to one's own teaching. However, the single-minded observation necessitates the observer to identify beforehand what s/he wants to observe in his/her peer's lesson.

Necessity of Dependency and Anxiety of Influence

Adoption or adaptation of desirable practices from peer's teaching was one of the prime concerns expressed by participants in the open discussion after the submission of written responses. Five of them, in particular, were articulate about the risk of being swayed by others' teaching and adopting their ideas slavishly. Their concern has its roots in the anxiety of being directly influenced by others and losing one's own originality in teaching. On the one hand almost all participants agreed that observing peer's teaching was a transformatory learning experience, but on the other, deep down they expressed their concern over emulation. Here we can sense a conflict between necessity of dependency on others for learning good practices for one's own professional enhancement, and desire for claiming one's ownership over the teaching process. Simplistic imitation may add skills and techniques to one's teaching repertoire, but its contribution to professional enrichment is questionable. At this junction, Peel's (2005) reflection deserves special mention:

As an 'apprentice teacher', I was certain that POT (peer observation tool) could help me to modify my classroom behavior through imitation. By watching others, I could gain new or fresh insights. But it proved not to be that simple. If observation was going to work for me it was clearly critical for me to notice 'good' teaching in others, and to be critically reflective. (pp. 494-495)

Hence, learning from observing should not be mistaken for the mere imitation of others' practice and carrying over desirable aspects to one's own teaching. Rather, observation necessitates the observer's

critical engagement with peer's teaching and creative transfer of desirable aspect(s) to his/her own lesson. Criticality helps the observer to indentify strengths and weaknesses of the lesson being observed and find out desirable aspect(s), identify the gap in his own teaching and contemplate whether and how they can be carried over to his/her own teaching context. Likewise, creative transfer is a prerequisite for modifying other's desirable classroom behavior to fill in the gap in one's own teaching. Creative transfer stands closer to adaptation of desirable practices rather than their mechanical adoption.

The questions that surfaced the open discussion and ran through the written accounts were: a) Should the observer adopt or adapt desirable practices? And b) To what extent should the observer adopt or adapt them? The answers to these questions are subject to a myriad of factors such the nature of the areas being focused by the observer, his/her teaching experience, professional competence, critical engagement with peer's teaching, and art and skill of transferring desirable practices to his/her own teaching context.   We can hence only offer a provisional answer that the observer should adopt and adapt what has been learned from observation with varying degrees of intensity. In practice, observers adopt certain aspects from their peers' teaching and adapt them to suit their own teaching situation. It was noticed that some teaching aspects lend themselves more to adoption than adaptation or vice versa. Let us consider the following account as the representative case of adoption:

I used to teach in an English school some years ago. I wanted to see how my colleague would teach reading. So I observed his lesson to see his techniques of teaching [the] reading text. He engaged students in multiple activities within 40 minutes. I used to teach reading just by lecturing and paraphrasing. After reflecting on the observation, I adopted his techniques in my classes as well. I found that the students were tremendously impressed with my new way of teaching. [P16]

The account by P16 typifies the case of adoption in which the observer almost directly transferred what he had watched in the colleague's class. In his case, direct adoption of teaching comprehension activities yielded a desirable result. Likewise, other participants recounted that adoption of techniques and resources proved rather fruitful. From this we are in a position to postulate that techniques, activities and resources employed in the classroom lend themselves to adoption, for their employment is observable, learnable and transferable. On the other hand, the participants' reflections also revealed that certain aspects of teaching are rather subtle and defy direct transfer from one context to the other as evinced in the following:

M.Ed. Microteaching: my supervisor commented that I lacked clarity in my English. There was a colleague highly appreciated for fluency & clarity of English. The supervisor advised me to observe his presentation and see if I could slow down and maintain natural fluency like him. I observed. I noted down his way of speaking and reflected on my own. I also sat with him after the lesson. I planned and taught. I felt someimprovement in my teaching.(P19)

Unlike techniques and activities, aspects of teaching such as fluency and clarity of speaking cannot be directly adopted and transferred to one's own teaching. Rather, the observer can become aware of language-related areas such as fluency and accuracy in pronunciation, accuracy in grammar and word

choice, pacing, and attitudes towards students, among others. In light of what has been observed, s/he can critically reflect on his/her own teaching behavior and contemplate how s/he can modify it accordingly. For these aspects of teaching defy direct transfer and can be actualized only over time, they are more adaptable than adoptable.

Learning from the Peer's Weaknesses

Unlike those participants who recounted learning from strengths of their peers, four of the participants recounted that they learned from their peers' weaknesses. Contrary to their expectations, they did not find their peers' teaching effective for some reason. That is, each of them had the feeling that something was not going well:

I observed the literature class of one of my colleagues teaching in M. Ed. He was good at content but I was not satisfied with his language (problem). He tried to convince the students but he could not. So, I realized that teacher's language is a considerable factor in the literature class.[P32]

Those who were aware of their colleague's failure in delivering the lesson effectively expressed some dissatisfaction, and each of them had the feeling that they would not be teaching the way their colleague was teaching. By implication, they were aware not only of the gap in the presentation observed and but also the way of filling the gap. It seems that they awakened to their own strength while coming across their colleagues' weakness.

These observers used their peers' teaching as a critical incident that "serves to trigger insights about some aspects of teaching and learning (Richards & Farrell, 2010, p. 113). Critical in the sense that it was contrary to the observer's expectation, for s/he was there in the class to watch certain desirable practice. It made the observer pause for a moment and contemplate what it went wrong, then reflect on his/her own teaching and contemplate what could be the better way of addressing the problem. The observer was critically aware of "the negative classroom event" (Richards & Farrell, p. 115) that increased his/her self-awareness as a teacher.

Cyclic Process of Observation

The analysis of responses clearly suggests that the observers passed through different yet interrelated and interactive stages. They did not make a giant mental leap from watching the peer's lesson to self-enhancement. In other words, watching the lesson and incorporating certain desirable aspects were mediated by a number of stages. Figure 1 schematically presents these stages:
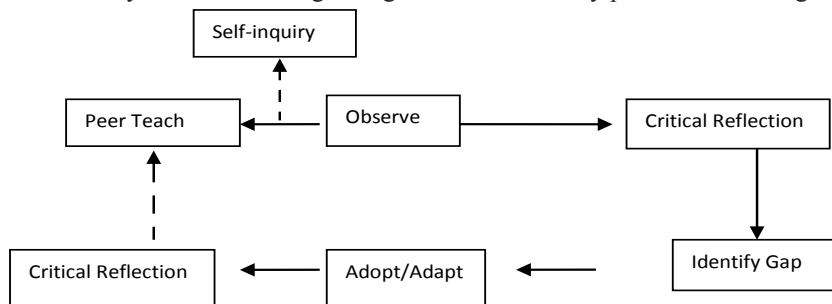

Figure 1. Observation Cycle for Self-enhancement

The postulation of the stages presented in figure 1 is informed by the craft model and the reflective model (Wallace, 2010) of professional development of language teachers. Teaching as a craft postulates that it involves a set of skills that can be observed, imitated, transferred and can be perfected through continuous practice, whereas teaching as a reflective practice constantly involves self-inquiry, self-exploration and interaction with the self, apart from observing and interacting with other teachers. As demonstrated by Figure 1, the act of observing was preceded by self-inquiry about one's own teaching. Since self-inquiry instigates the whole process of observation and takes place within the potential observer, not noticeable for the outsider, it is kept before and above the actual observation and indicated by the dotted arrow. Inquiry about one's own teaching helped the observer identify his/her problem, gave him/her a purpose, rendering the observation more purposeful, focused and problem-oriented. Observation remains incomplete unless it is immediately followed by critical reflection. To put it another way, emulation of certain desirable practices is important, but not sufficient. Rather than attempting to emulate such practices, the observer is required to critically reflect on his/her own practices as well as the practices demonstrated by the peer. Critical reflection is instrumental in indentifying the gap in one's own teaching as well as the strengths of the peer's teaching. Conversely, it also helps the observer to identify his/her own strengths and the weaknesses in the lesson observed. In the former the observer fills the gap in his/her teaching with the strength(s) observed and learned from the peer's lesson, whereas in the latter the observer indentifies the peer's weakness(es) and identifies within himself/herself the better solution to address the problem. The observer adopts, or adopts and adapts, desirable practices indentified in the peer's teaching so as to enhance his own teaching. The observer-teacher tries out those practices perceived as desirable in his/her own teaching context. The teacher reflects on the effectiveness of such practices, which, if proved effective, are likely to be part of his/her own teaching.

The stages from observation of the peer's lesson to incorporation of the desirable practices into one's own teaching have been presented as though they are linear and sequential and occur separately. However, even those with little experience of teaching are aware of the fact that the journey from observation to teaching is cyclic, recursive and even messy. During the journey, the observer-teacher constantly swings back and forth between these stages.

Conclusion and Implications

Indentified as an integral part of teachers' professional development, peer observation, if carried out purposefully, critically and reflectively, equally benefits the observing teacher. Apart from the conventional practice of observing the lesson to provide the peer with constructive feedback, the role of peer observation for self-enhancement should be foregrounded in both pre-service and in-service teaching contexts, for as the responding teachers clearly recounted that they have employed peer observation as a transformatory tool, and observing their peers' teaching has proved a rewarding learning experience in one way or the other. This thread of conclusion also gets support from, among others, Peel (2005), Harmer (2007), Richards and Farrell (2010), and Richards and Lockhart (2010). Observing peers' teaching is likely to come to fruition only when observation is preceded by self-inquiry so that the observer realizes a certain gap in his/her own

teaching and knows in advance what to observe or what to learn from the peer. The identification of the gap within oneself gives a clear purpose of observation, making it more focused. Learning by observing the peer's best practices, however, should not be mistaken for direct transfer of such practices to one's own teaching context. Rather, it requires the observing teacher to modify those practices to best fit his/her context. The critically aware observer journeys through different interrelated stages such as self-inquiry, observation and gap identification before trying out observed behaviors in his/her own teaching context. By implication, novice teachers in particular should be trained what to observe, how to observe and how to integrate what has been observed into his/her own teaching. They need to be oriented to, train in and supplied with the criteria for why, what and how aspects of observation so as to prevent them from passive or defocused observation.

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Linguistic Landscapes in Multilingual Nepal: Urban Context

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Abstract

Diversity in the linguistic landscape is a common phenomenon in multilingual country Nepal. We observe varied textual forms of language and signs in public spaces and spheres that surround us. Therefore, this study concerns to analyze the signs in linguistic landscapes in multilingual urban settings in Nepal. It reveals the status of different languages, deals with issues related to multilingualism, language policy, linguistic diversity, minority languages, hierarchies, and users. Besides, it observes intricacies of language contact and choice, power and status of language groups, and sociolinguistic situation. For this, observation and interpretative method of qualitative research were employed, 150 photographs were purposively snapped from five urban spaces in two month time. The signs were analyzed, compared and contrasted using a thematic approach with relevant theoretical backup. The finding revealed that the choice of language on signs bases on sign writer's skill, presumed reader and symbolic value (Spolsky & Cooper, 1991). The study explored that the majority of urban linguistic landscapes are occupied by English signs, and English imperialism is a greater challenge for Nepali and vernacular languages. It is inferred that diversity in linguistic landscapes is the concrete manifestation of multilingual society where languages battle for their existence; therefore, the multilingual policy is the stipulation of the day.

Keywords: language battle, linguistic landscapes, presumed reader, sign writer, symbolic value

Introduction

Nepal identifies as a wonderful juncture and one of the gorgeous countries in the world in terms of its linguistic and ethnic diversity. Nepal is bestowed with a gift of tongues (CBS, 2002) and varied languages have made significant contributions to its diversity. The Constitution of Nepal (2015) in its preamble states that Nepal is a multi-ethnic, multi-lingual, multi-religious, multi-cultural country having diverse regional characteristics. The society has a complete mixture of people from diverse backgrounds; socio-economical, political, religious, linguistic, cultural, ethnic which shapes the landscapes of the territory. Among different landscapes in the society, a linguistic landscape reflects the clear portrait of a certain region. When people move, the surrounding languages of a particular region or landscape attract their attention which makes them think about language variety, style, structure, tone, manner, and purpose. Most of the people have no attention to the linguistic landscape which surrounds them; however, the closer observation and study of language texts expressed in public space are increasing unfailingly (Gorter, 2006).

Linguistic Landscape (LL) is an emerging and dynamic field of research in applied and socio-linguistics which attempts to understand the motives, uses, ideologies, varieties and contestations of multiple forms of languages as they are displayed in public spaces (Chanda, Hossain & Rahman, 2018). It refers to any display of visible written language in public places. It is 'the language of public road signs, advertising billboards, street names, place names, commercial shop signs, and public signs on government

buildings a given territory, region, or urban agglomeration' (Landry & Bourhis, 1997). Further, it includes many new types of signs: electronic flat-panel displays, LED neon lights, foam boards, electronic message centers, interactive touch screens, inflatable signage, and scrolling banners (Gorter, 2013). The linguistic landscape is a multifaceted phenomenon that relates to a multitude of perspectives and disciplines like advertising, education, economics, history, media, semiotics, sociology, and urban geography and so forth. The use of language in its written form in public space is the main focus of linguistic landscape studies and research in multilingual Nepal.

Nepal is a multilingual, multicultural and multiracial country since time immemorial, and the National Census (2011) records 123 languages among them Nepali, Maithili, Bhojpuri, Tharu, Tamang, Newari, Bajjika, Magar, Doteli, and Urdu are on top ten lists. Moreover, the Language Commission Nepal (LCN, 2017) informs 10 language scripts exists in the country: *Devnagari* for Nepali, Maithili, Bhojpuri, *Ranjana* for Newari, *Sambota* for Tibetan and Sherpa, *Sirijunga* for Limbu, *Rong* for Lepcha, *Bangla* for Bangali, *Tamu* for Gurung, *Arabi* for Urdu, *Roman* for English, *Akkha* for Magar. Correspondingly, the LCN announces that among 123 languages, only 19 languages are in a safe zone which has over one lakh speakers, and more than 37 languages are in endangered condition. Besides, Ethnologue (2019) informs that of 122 living languages in Nepal, 109 are indigenous, and 13 are non-indigenous, among them, 8 are institutional, 18 are developing, 28 are vigorous, 58 are in trouble, and 10 are dying.

In these linguistic circumstances, the country has entered the Federal system after the proliferation of the new Constitution in 2015 abolishing the hereditary monarchical regimes and centralized ruling system. The federal, provincial and local government as an autonomous body can formulate state policies and laws, preserve language, script, art, culture, and other heritage (The Constitution of Nepal, 2015). This transformation of the political regime has opened up new insights, yet contested, discourses concerning language policy and planning. Therefore, the future of Nepal's language policy depends largely on how federal, provincial and local governments manage the linguistic diversity and landscapes of the country and have its language policy, planning and practices.

Therefore, I attempted to explore how the languages in Nepalese urban areas exist and establish domination in public spaces through this study. Further, the study informs about sign writer's skills, presumed reader and symbolic value attached to the signs, power, and status of languages, and sociolinguistic situation of the country. Considering all these scenarios and facts, I explored and analyzed the languages displayed on signs in public space and which reveals the status of different languages in linguistic landscapes in multilingual Nepal. This study will be relevant for the concerned stakeholders like the language policymakers and arbiters, researchers, government and bureaucrats, and politicians to make the policy and address the issue of linguistic diversity and linguistic landscapes of urban territories, especially in Nepal. I found no study has been carried out in this particular issue in linguistically diverse areas: Kathmandu, Kirtipur, Lumbini, Damauli and Kalaiya city which remains a gap plus uncovered. The findings contribute to reducing the gap in knowledge by providing the information on linguistic landscapes and Nepalese urban and sociolinguistic context which can assist the government authorities, language

policy makers and arbiters in Nepal to formulate the language policy and planning. Therefore, I would like to explore, add and share the Nepalese urban context experiences to the body of knowledge.

Review of Literature

To strengthen the knowledge of linguistic landscapes, theories and principles, and the existing literature, experts and researches in the field, I have reviewed various newspapers, books, articles, journals, theses, dissertations, policies, websites, online from home and abroad, and put forward here. Based on the literature review, I have stated my understanding related to linguistic landscapes and its phenomenon in the following subsections.

Linguistic Landscape

Linguistic landscape refers to the visibility and prominence of languages on public and industrial signs in a given territory or region (Landry & Bourhis, 1997). The first study in the field of the linguistic landscape as 'Rosetta Stone' which was an ancient stone with writing in three different languages, found near Rosetta in Egypt in 1799, now kept in British Museum in London. It embodies many of the intricacies of language contact, language choice, and linguistic hierarchy that form the substance of linguistic landscape research (Coulmas, 2009). The study is the analysis and interpretation of the relationships between languages and spaces, which is a blooming field in current sociolinguistics. Gorter (2006) defines the linguistic landscape as 'the social context in which more than one language is present' forming multilingualism. In a narrower sense, the word linguistic landscape is synonymous with the concept such as diversity of languages, linguistic situation, general language situation or sociolinguistic context but in broader sense, it is the linguistic mirror of the dynamics of our globalised society. The use of language in its written form in public space is the main focus of linguistic landscape studies (Gorter, 2006). Linguistic landscape has been defined variously by various experts in the field as 'the linguistic items found in the public space' (Shohamy, 2006, p. 110), 'environmental print' (Huebner, 2006, p. 31), 'the words on the walls' (Calvet, 1990), 'the word on the street' (Foust & Fuggle, 2011 as cited in Gorter, 2013), 'multilingual cityscape' (Gorter, 2013), 'general language situation or linguistic diversity' (Gorter, 2006), 'the decorum of the public life' (Shohamy, 2006, p. 10). Many linguistic landscape studies are confined to one specific geographic area, which often is a city, but could also be a street, a neighborhood, or even a whole country, or it could be a comparison between more than one of these levels of analysis (Gorter, 2013). The linguistic landscape of a territory can serve two basic functions: informational function and symbolic function.

Informational function. Linguistic landscape serves as a distinctive marker of the geographical territory inhabited by a given language community (Bourhis, 1992). It serves to inform in-group and out-group members of the linguistic characteristics, territorial limits, and language boundaries of the region they have entered (Landry & Bourhis, 1997). The diversity of language present in the linguistic landscape can be seen as a concrete manifestation of the linguistic and cultural diversity of ethnolinguistic groups inhabiting a particular territory or region.

Symbolic function. The inclusion or exclusion of the in-group and out-group language on public signs can serve a symbolic function which has an effect on its member within a bilingual and multilingual

setting. The presence and absence of rival languages in specific domains of the linguistic landscape can come to symbolize the strength or weakness of competing ethnolinguistic groups in the intergroup setting (Landry & Bourhis, 1997). It is also important to note that whatever language is most dominant in the linguistic landscape automatically conveys a message that language has strength, power, status, significance, and vitality in the area. In contrast, languages that have little or no presence in an area are devalued and are seen as having little use in public affairs (Landry & Bourhis, 1997). Factors relating to symbolic functions include meanings interpreted concerning cultural affiliation, identity, power relations, and language status (Dagenais, et al., 2009).

Linguistic landscaping has become a popular means to inform and relate to sociology, education, ecology, literacy, linguistic anthropology, psycholinguistics, and socio-cultural studies (Shohamy & Waksman, 2009). Studying the linguistic landscape of an area can determine a great deal about the people that live in that area, what language ideologies are at play, which languages have power and prestige, and which are marginalized (Dixson, 2015). The creation of the linguistic landscape involves many actors creating signs, commissioning signs, installing signs and most importantly people who read, notice and interpret the signs. The linguistic landscape of an area reveals about the people who live there, the languages spoken, what languages are valued, and what official or de facto language policies are in place in the neighborhood, city or even country.

More holistic factors are now being taken into account when studying the linguistic landscape; these include the context surrounding a sign, people who interact with the sign, genre, function, and purpose (Huebner, 2009). Signs need to be viewed more holistically since the reader of the sign does not simply interact with the linguistic text found on the sign. Shohamy and Gorter (2009) also seek to broaden the scope of linguistic landscaping beyond simply signs, suggesting sounds, images, and graffiti are also important to the linguistic landscape. Spolsky (2009) notes that these different types of signs have informational and symbolic meanings and how the symbolic meanings are interpreted depend on the type of sign, discusses authorship in signs as being local or global. Cenoz and Gorter (2009) state that 'the use of different languages in the sign…reflects the power, status and economic importance of the different languages' (p. 57). Ben-Rafael (2009) points out how power-relations and collective-identity are often at play in the linguistic landscape. Language is seen as a marker of identity and using a language in a public sphere asserts that the language group is present. It is also a symbolic marker of what language speakers may or may not do business in a commercial area.

Linguistic landscapes often reflect language policy in an area. Very few territories in the world have an official policy regarding the language of signs in the public space; however, language policy can take other forms (Cenoz & Gortor, 2009; Hult, 2014). Official languages of an area or a racial or ethnic group in power can be dominant in a linguistic landscape. When a language is regulated in schools or government proceedings in a particular territory it can also become dominant in the linguistic landscape. Any time a government on any level (national, state, municipal) regulates language in any way, it is likely to be reflected in the overall linguistic landscape of the territory, regardless of whether the policy addresses language on public signs or not.

In Malaysia, signs that display 'Manglish', a mixture of Malaysian and English, can incur hefty fines (Spolsky, 2009). In Bangkok, signs that contain no Thai are taxed more heavily than signs that contain Thai (Huebner, 2009). Educational language policies and policies regulating language in the media and economics are often reflected in the linguistic landscape (Cenoz & Gorter, 2009). For example, in San Antonio, Texas there is a large, growing population of Spanish-speakers as well as a transient population of Mexicans who cross the international border from Mexico often. Despite a significant number of Spanish speakers, the linguistic landscape is predominantly English. This could be in part due to local educational language policy focusing on English-only education, as well as strong activism favoring English-only in the community, government, and education (Hult, 2014). Even where no official language policy is present, the political ideologies of an area make themselves known within the linguistic landscape.

Huebner (2006) examined the linguistic landscapes of 15 Bangkok neighborhoods to explore questions of language contact, language mixing, and language dominance. It provided a linguistic framework for the analysis of codemixing types, further highlighted the importance and influence of English as a global language. It examined the signs from government sources versus those from the private sector. It also revealed the extent of linguistic diversity in a large metropolitan area like Bangkok by a comparison of various neighborhoods. For the study purpose, the team had photographed the main city centers and analyzed 613 signs of different categories. Moreover, the study offered evidence of a shift from Chinese to English as the major language of wider communication in the city. From a linguistic perspective, the study showed the influence of English on the development of Thai, not just in the form of lexical borrowing, but also in the areas of orthography, pronunciation, and syntax. At the same time, the study provided evidence of a nascent Thai variety of English. This study assisted me to understand the basic concept of the linguistic landscape and the research techniques in the area.

Backhaus (2006) studied about multilingual signs in Tokyo which was based on empirical research conducted in 2003. Special attention was given to the distinction between official and nonofficial multilingual signs. Within the 28 survey areas, a total of 11,834 signs were counted, of which 2321 were classified as multilingual. It was demonstrated that the two types of signs exhibit some essentially different characteristics about the languages contained and their arrangement on a sign which were interpreted using the notions of power and solidarity. While official signs were designed mainly to express and reinforce existing power relations, nonofficial signs make use of foreign languages to communicate solidarity with things non-Japanese. The study revealed that around 80% of the signs in the center of Tokyo were monolingual Japanese sign. Both types of signs have their share in changing and challenging Tokyo's linguistic landscape. The study discussed well official and nonofficial multilingual signs used in Tokyo, and the existing power relation between languages.

Malinowski (2009) points out "more often, the domain of human agency behind the linguistic landscape remains unnamed" (p. 108). He studied shop signs in Koreatown in Oakland, California. He recorded and categorized the signs, and interviewed shop owners about language and design choices, how the sign is intended to be perceived, and how the sign is perceived, to gain a more holistic view of the signs and their informative and symbolic meanings. In actuality, the linguistic landscape is incredibly

complex, and theories and methodologies in studying it can be drawn from a variety of fields, including linguistics, sociology, politics, and cultural studies (Barni & Bagna, 2009, as cited in Dixson, 2015). This study informed me about the research methodology and design in the field of linguistic landscape which I employed accordingly.

Dixson (2015) analyzed the multilingual linguistic landscape of Buffalo, New York which is the home to thousands of immigrants and refugees from across the globe having diverse cultures, desires for the futures, and their home languages. The study examines how these linguistic communities are represented in the linguistic landscape, and what deeper symbolic meanings signs in the linguistic landscape hold for them. All signs on six streets were photographed and categorized. Signs entirely or partially in non-English languages were plotted on an electronic map and examined for potential symbolic meanings. If reflected that the linguistic landscape of Buffalo was vastly English dominant, echo some of the diversity of the area. Since languages are tied to identity, relegating languages can promote ideologies against ethnic groups tied to those languages. Overall, the linguistic landscape reveals the need to learn English to function in American society, but inconsistencies are found throughout the city that reflects the presence of non-English speakers in the area, and occasionally the promotion of their culture and language.

Wang (2015) examines multilingual university campus signs in Japan, a new attempt to expand the scope of linguistic landscape study. The case study on the languages used in signs on Ito campus presents the features of the construction of the campus linguistic landscape where bilingual Japanese-English signs compose the majority of campus signs, with the Japanese language used as the dominant language. The results indicate that for their academic life, students value bilingual ability a lot; in their daily lives, students maintain multilingual contact to a certain degree. This study is a synchronic record of the construction of the campus linguistic landscape, thus it can be used as a basis for comparative and diachronic studies in the future.

Bastola (2017) critically analyzes the discourses used in the hoarding board/advertisement in the Nepalese socio-cultural context focusing on ideology and power. His qualitative research in the interpretative paradigm study reveals the fact that the use of language changes due to the influence of social and political ideology and power. His observation and analysis conclude that the language used in hoarding board advertisements have excessive use of English and Nepali language discourse which is caused due to the power, hegemony, and dominance of both languages in Nepalese context to attract the consumers to sell their products. Similarly, the study indicated that most of the hoarding board advertisements have used English terminologies in the form of Nepali orthography because of terminological and translation problems. The advertising is multilingual, multifaceted and multidimensional and does not need the equal length and specific language, but of writer's choice and preferences. His study was limited to only 50 hoarding boards placed in different parts of Kathmandu valley. The study motivates me to study on the field in Nepalese multilingual urban contexts with some theoretical knowledge and ideas.

Chanda, Hossain and Rahman (2018) conducted a comprehensive study with the linguistic landscaping of the Pabna context in Bangladesh where very few respondents of different professions were bilinguals (Bangla and English) and rest were monolinguals (Bangla)). The study revealed that the influence

of colonial language in Pabna area reflected through the signboards and other signs. The signboards of public spaces are mostly bilingual with English and the native language of Bangladesh but the signboards of government offices are mostly written in Bangla. The study revealed that Bangla is the official and de facto national language as well as lingua franca, but English, having treated as EFL, is prevalent across government, law, business, media, and education, therefore, regarded as the de facto co-official language.

Shukla and Singh (2018) studied about Mumbai which attempted to investigate the multilingual environment of India. As quantitative research, around 400 pictures of language signs were taken from different locations within the south Mumbai. The study analyzed the multilingual signs found in Mumbai indicated how the multilingual linguistic landscape is constructed under the current language policy of India. The study also focused on trends of LL in public space which includes advertising, billboards, posters, official (top-down signs) and non-official (bottom-up signs) road signs, and so forth.

In nutshell, Shohamy and Gorter (2009) point out that people create the language of the public space, therefore, the landscape communicates messages conveyed by people, which often have a deeper meaning than what is seen on the surface. Spolsky (2009) highlights that several participants are involved in the process of making a sign, and suggest more research are done to incorporate these participants into research on public signs. Ben-Rafael (2009) notes that the linguistic landscape is a complex system in which many actors are involved in creating and interpreting messages and meanings. Cenoz and Gorter (2008) point out that the linguistic landscape has economic value as well.

The reviewed theoretical and empirical studies on linguistic landscape in different countries and urban contexts: Malaysia, Bangkok, Tokyo, New York, Japan, Kathmandu, Bangladesh, and Mumbai have greatly inspired and informed me theoretical and practical knowledge to my understanding of the area, and to accomplish the study in Nepalese urban context. Also, several books, articles, journals, dissertations, and websites have strengthened me to make the research more comprehensive and logical. Taking the fundamental knowledge and viewing earlier research studies, I made and outlined the theoretical and conceptual framework, prepared research design and methodology to accelerate this study. Though various studies have been taken in a foreign context, I apprehend the need for a similar kind of study in the Nepalese context which can conduit the existing gaps in knowledge and append a block in the research foundation in the area of linguistic landscape in the multilingual urban context in Nepal.

Methodology

This study employs observation and interpretative method of the qualitative research under 'interpretative paradigm' which suggests the reality is indirectly constructed based on individual interpretation and is subjective (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). For the purpose, 150 photographs were collected purposively with a digital camera from five urban spaces: Kathmandu, Kirtipur, Damauli, Lumbini, and Kalaiya within two months period. The studies inform, the cities are linguistically diverse and have the existence of over 25 languages. Further, the signs and photographs were documented, categorized, observed, analyzed and interpreted, compared and contrasted using a thematic approach with relevant theoretical back up to find the intricacies of language contact, language choice and linguistic hierarchies in

linguistic landscapes. The photographs were taken from the open streets, in front of the buildings, shops, hotels and restaurants, supermarkets, business complex, offices, institutions, and monuments. All signs and photographs were included to gain a holistic picture of the overall linguistic landscape of the city. I focused on how linguistic landscape as a public arena, languages battle for the existence and establish the domination of space; therefore I took the photographs of different signs of urban environments.

Results and Discussion

This section reviews, analyses, and interprets the phenomenon of linguistic landscape in the Nepalese context especially, five major cities that are discussed thematically as per the objectives require. The collected data are broadly interpreted and analyzed into three broad themes which underpin on the theory of Spolsky and Cooper (1991) who proposed three conditions for the choice of language on signs: *sign writer's skill, presumed reader* and *symbolic value.* These three conditions apply to all signs, but their significance in the preference of one language or another may vary from sign to sign (Gorter, 2013). Moreover, the other two themes have been created which are supported by theoretical foundations.

Sign Writer's Skill

Language on signs has a deeper, symbolic meaning than what the direct, informative message of the sign is (Landry & Bourhis, 1997). The creation of the linguistic landscape involves many actors creating signs, commissioning signs, installing signs and most importantly people who read, notice and interpret the signs. Though signs usually have an informative function, one that directs gives information or implores the reader in some way, signs also have a symbolic function, one that speaks to an underlying ideology (Landry & Bourhis, 1997).

Among the three proposed condition in their study of the languages of Jerusalem by Spolsky and Cooper (1991) the choice of language on signs depends on 'sign writer's skill' which means writing a sign in a language you know that is a necessary condition. The sign-writer can speak and write the language(s) on the sign to a certain degree of proficiency which is closely related to the skills of the sign writer. The following signs displayed in public space in Damauli and Kathmandu state the fact that as per the knowledge and skill of the writer the signboards of the shops and firms have been written where writers have used mostly English language terms: Trade, Center, Fresh, Juice, Dairy, Emporium, Medical, Help, You, Service, Center, Urgent, Photo, Binding, Lamination, Color print, Photocopy, Sticker Print, Bill Pad, Stationery, Gift Items in Nepali orthographic form. The signs indicate that the boards have been prepared as the knowledge and skill of the sign writer's which informs us that English language influences presents in both contexts. Further, the perception is, the sign writers are not confirmed to English language, words, punctuation, and spelling, but feel comfortable in Nepali forms in public space. The practice further supports the hegemony and power of influence of English which has an exclusive impact on Nepalese society, commerce, business, education, and tourism, and is preferred and expected in each arena of human life.

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figures 1 & 2. Reflect the glimpse of linguistic landscapes in Damauli and Kathmandu where the English terms are mostly used in Nepali orthographic forms as per the knowledge of the sign writer's skill.

Presumed Reader

Spolsky and Cooper (1991) further advocate that the choice of language on signs depends on 'Presumed reader' which refers to writing a sign in the language that can be read by the public you expect to read it. It prefers to write signs in the language or languages that intended readers are assumed to read and interpret. This condition has an economic motivation and informative function.

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 3. The importance of multilingualism for promoting cultural heritage in Lumbini near Mayadevi Temple which displays 10 different languages: English, Nepali, Chinese, Urdu, Japanese, Korean and others focused on presumed readers.

Figure 4. The poster in Hanumandhoka, Kathmandu reveals Newari, Nepali and English language which are given equal value in the heritage site considering the presumed visitors and readers.

Symbolic Value

Symbolic value condition prefers to write signs in your language or in a language with which you wish to be identified (Spolsky & Cooper, 1991) and relates to more political, socio-cultural motivation and language loyalty. Throughout the world, the linguistic landscape reveals competing for language ideologies, struggles for power and prestige, language policy, and provides a map of linguistic territories (Cenoz & Gorter, 2008). People create the language of the public space; therefore, the landscape communicates messages conveyed by people, which often have a deeper meaning than what is seen on the surface.

Signs within the linguistic landscape serve both informational and symbolic functions which include both government and private signs (Landry & Bourhis, 1997). The following signs snapped in Kathmandu and Kirtipur intense the symbolic value and sign writers' ideology where Chinese and Newari language are used as they desire to be identified with.

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 5. The sign in New Baneshwor, Kathmandu shows that Chinese and English languages are symbolically valued. It reflects the writer wants to be identified with the Chinese language rather than others.

Figure 6. A cooperative institution's signboard at Kirtipur focuses on Newari and Nepali language, but Newari is given the priority because of the Newari community and language dominance in the region.

Language Battle in Public Space

The linguistic landscape is a public arena where languages battle for existence and establish the domination of space (Shohamy, 2006). Linguistic landscapes as an ecological arena that goes beyond written texts of signs and includes oral language, images, objects, placement in time and space, and also people (Gorter, 2013). They posit fluid and fuzzy borders to include all possible texts that emerge in public space. Therefore, public space is not neutral, but a negotiated and contested arena which offers a challenge of further understanding the essence of language in public space (Shohamy & Waksman, p. 329). Gorter (2013) states that linguistic landscapes items are mechanisms of language policy that can perpetuate ideologies and the status of language in public space (p. 197). The following pictures capture the scenario of language battle, multilingual creativity and linguistic fluidity in linguistic landscapes in Kathmandu, Kirtipur, and Kalaiya.

Figure: 7

Figure: 8

Figure: 9   Figure: 10

The figures 7, 8, 9 & 10. Reflect the reality of language battle in linguistic landscapes in Kathmandu, Kirtipur and Kalaiya where different languages, signs and words from Nepali, English, Chinese, Newari, Hindi have been displayed with a special focus. The priority is given to like the interest of the sign writer, linguistic and ethnic dominance in the region.

Therefore, linguistic landscapes not only reflects the status of different languages in society but also acts as a force shaping how languages are being perceived, battling and used by the population.

Linguistic Fluidity in Public Space

Linguistic fluidity refers to the free flow of language crossing all the barriers. It is attached to the presentation and performance on language beyond the style and delivery, structure and tone, words and rhythm which makes the communication ease (Anonymous, n. d). It practices language flexibly in expression which develops new understanding and language practices beyond the academic standard practices. It is the combination of two or more languages that keeps the task moving forward that can be seen in urban landscapes, educational settings, and classrooms. Linguistic fluidity makes obvious that we cannot separate our languaging from how we perceive the world. Linguistic landscape can be a creative space where linguistic boundaries are challenged and new language practices are invented with fluid practices. Language policy embraces local diversity and redefines the use of language as a creative tool for public and fluid language use (Phyak, 2017). It provides as critical insights into examining how the dominant ideologies of language as a fixed entity do not embrace social reality in public spaces.

It concerns effective communication, function rather than form, cognitive activity, as well as language production. Linguistic fluidity includes code-switching, code-mixing, translanguaging which is an indeed a powerful mechanism to construct expression and understanding across language groups, a part of multilingual society. Moreover, linguistic fluidity is the flexibility of bilingual users to take control of their learning and expression depending on the context in which they are performing. The following signs (figure 11 and 12) taken in Kathmandu and Kirtipur, display the fluidity of languages in public space which is termed as 'linguistic fluidity'.

Figure: 11   Figure: 12

Figure 11 & 12. Reflect the linguistic fluidity in multilingual urban context in Kathmandu.

Power and Use of English in Public Space

The charm and glory, power and prestige, pride and identity of English have attracted entire citizens of the world, and Nepal is not an exception (Kandel, 2018). English serves as a link language to communicate with the speakers of different linguistic backgrounds, has become a basic need in these days. The use of English in Nepal seems as powerful as the government's act and policy. English in Nepal has captured all the sectors, and the people are being hypnotized and running after it. It has become able to change the ideologies, interests, and wills of the people about the world and its phenomena. Shrestha (2016) states:

Despite Nepal is a relatively small geographical area with a large number of languages, the international language English is considered the dominant language in this country due to its massive spread and use in media, education, diplomacy, business, and tourism. (p. 106)

English serves as the key external link in education, politics, commerce, science and technology, military alliances, entertainment, and tourism. People have a high craze on the English language knowingly or unknowingly in Nepal. English stands as the most prestigious language in Nepal due to its power and popularity. People take it as a matter of pride and prestige, therefore the gravity of the English language has been powerful. Giri (2015) mentions:

The status of English in Nepal has been changed in the last seven decades. Adopted first as a 'foreign' language, English, in recent years, has become an indispensable part of life for the Nepalese people. It is presently used as an additional language, second language and even primary language in many socio-economic and educational domains in Nepal. (p. 94)

Considering this fact, urban linguistic landscapes in Nepal are covered with English signs which have blurred the concept of the Nepali language as an official language. The swiftly growing presence of English in linguistic landscape, especially in cities has shadowed the existence of official language Nepali and other vernacular languages, and regarded as the de facto co-official language despite the fact that the New Constitution of Nepal, 2015 addresses in the article (6) and (7) about the languages of the nation and official language like this:

Article 6: All languages spoken as the mother tongues in Nepal are the languages of the nation.

Article 7: (a) The Nepali language in the Devnagari script shall be the official language of Nepal.

With the spread of English as a global language, linguistic landscapes are becoming increasingly multilingual and even English dominant in government and non-government offices, schools and universities, business firms, commercial areas, shops and hotels (Dixon, 2015). American, British companies bring their products and services in the cities of Nepal with the English language which has extensively augmented the amount of English in the linguistic landscape. English is globally seen as the language of prestige, modernity, success, sophistication, and youth and is found most predominately in advertisements and commercial areas (Cenoz & Gorter, 2009). They state that "the use of different languages in the sign… reflects the power, status and economic importance of the different languages" (p. 57). Ben-Rafael (2009) points out how power-relations and collective-identity are often at play in the linguistic landscape. In Nepal, the majority of signs in urban contain English form and used as prominent on main streets in commercial areas. The excessive presence of English in Nepal advocates a direct link between English and consumerism, fashion and modernity, urbanization and globalization which ultimately results in the vernacular languages in shadow. Following the multilingual reality of the country, Article 32, clause 1 and 3 of the Constitution of Nepal, 2015 has made the provision of the right to language and culture of the entire population.

(1) Every person and community shall have the right to use their languages.

(3) Every Nepalese community residing in Nepal shall have the right to preserve and

promote its language, script, culture, cultural civilization and heritage.

Furthermore, the constitution has furnished to establish Language Commission for the first time in the country's history which is stated in article 287 that is legally responsible to address language issues in Nepal like official language, protection, promotion and development of languages and mother tongues, and to study, research and monitor languages.

When we analyze the constitution, it has opened the use of mother tongue in local level and local offices; this can be an upward step of opening the constitutional door for the transformation of Nepal towards the multilingual nation. In federal Nepal, no doubt the country will transform into the multilingual nation system. The states can use the local languages in their administration and offices for governmental purposes. For the central government and in between central and state government and among different state government there will be a necessity of one or more link language(s).

Figure: 13   Figure: 14

Figures 13 & 14. Taken in Singhdurbar Premise Kathmandu, (Ministry of Agricultural Development and Ministry of Livestock Development) and Kirtipur (a government school).

Figure 13 and 14 reflect the reality of the power of English language in linguistic landscapes where English is used as the capacity of co-official language in the signboards. The first sign includes bilingual terms: Nepali and English while the second has given priority to multilingual: Newari, Nepali, and English. Though, both of the institutions are government owned, should prioritize the official language 'Nepali', but have focused Newari and English as co-official or de facto language.

The entire study represents a linguistic landscape scenario of the urban multilingual context of Nepal. Linguistic diversity, bilingualism, and multilingualism is a common phenomenon of Nepali urban where languages struggle, battle and dominate each other for their survival. Employing the observation and interpretative method of qualitative method, I snapped 150 signs, then observed, analyzed and interpreted, among them 90 contained English language and 50 contained Nepali and 10 signs were in other languages; Newari (in Kathmandu), Magar (in Damauli), Urdu, Bhojpuri and Hindi (in Kalaiya) and 10 different languages in the Lumbini Heritage Site. One sign contained Chinese characters, 7 signs were in Newari language (i.e. Nepal Bhasha) in Ranjana script, one sign was in Magar in Aakha script, two signs contained Urdu script, one was in Bhojpuri, one was partially Hindi and Nepali, and one contained Korean characters. During the study, it was found that the name of the government and private institutions were monolingual, multilingual and monolingual where majority (nearly 40%) signboards were monolingual written (Nepali, English, Newari, Hindi and so on) half (i.e., 50%) were bilingual written and the rest (nearly 10%) were multilingual written. The choices of language on signs depend on sign writer's skill, presumed reader and symbolic value where language battle, linguistic fluidity, code-mixing, translanguaging and dominance of English were reflected on the signs. To summarize, the study meets the intense of objectives, and informs guides and shares genuine empirical and practical knowledge for the academia and further research in the respective field, especially in the Nepalese urban context.

Conclusion and Implications

This study was concerned to analyze the signs in linguistic landscapes in multilingual urban settings in Nepal which proposed to observe intricacies of language contact, language choice and linguistic hierarchies in linguistic landscapes, the power, and status of different language groups, and sociolinguistic situation of urban areas of the country. For the purpose, I employed observation and interpretative method of qualitative research, accordingly, 150 photographs were purposively collected from five different urban spaces. The photographs of different linguistic landscapes in the cities reveal the fact; linguistic landscapes have excessive bilingual and multilingual practices, code-switching, code-mixing, and translanguaging processes in the signs. The multilingual, multifaceted and multidimensional signs have greatly contributed to promote the services and businesses in the urban. Therefore, the people in the urban spaces have developed intercultural competence and multilingual awareness because of signs displayed in diverse languages with their cultural flavor. Most interestingly, I found that most signs have English terms in the Nepali orthographic form which strengthens the power, attraction, charm, and hegemony of English in public spaces. English signs were found drastically larger than the non-English signs which show and foremost that English is a dominant language and is necessary for survival. Though the government has

not announced English as an official language, the data reveals that the English language is excessively used in signs as an official language and lingua-franca in the Nepalese urban context. The government and private offices and business firms' signs have bilingual displays (i.e., Nepali & English). The urban areas linguistic landscapes are mostly (nearly 60%) occupied with English language and the rest (nearly 40%) in Nepali and other languages. In the urban areas, Nepali and English are commonly seen at different government offices, public places and on public commercial signs. Even the signs of the government and not-government offices are bilingual and even multilingual. The majority of signs are inscribed bilingually using both Nepali and English while some are monolingual written either in Nepali, Newari or English. The extreme use of English and Nepali, the vernacular languages and indigenous languages are battling for the existence in the urban linguistic landscapes, which might further create unpleasant situations for their survival. In reality, this study was limited to five urban contexts; only 150 photographs were purposively taken, analyzed and interpreted subjectively. It lacked interview tool of qualitative research for acquiring informative and symbolic meanings from the people which needs to imply for further study.

As the implication, this study adds knowledge about societal multilingualism by focusing on language choices, hierarchies, conflict and contact-phenomena, regulations, and aspects of literacy in the context of Nepal. It relates to a multitude of perspectives and disciplines like advertising, education, economics, history, media, semiotics, sociology, and urban geography. Furthermore, this research lies in establishing the linguistic landscaping as an insightful indicator, aspiration of enriching our knowledge of the social dynamics for the study of linguistic and social patterns of multicultural and multilingual societies in the major cities in Nepal including the capital, Kathmandu. Finally, the findings of the study can be useful for appropriate authority for linguistic policy in multilingual Nepal.

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Innovations in Multilingual Classroom: Exploring Teachers' Experiences

Guru Prasad Poudel

Abstract

This article explores the English language teachers' innovative practices on multilingual education and their experiences on using multilingual strategies in the classroom. In order to find out the teachers' innovative practices in multilingual education and their strategies for multilingual instruction, a semi structured interview and small group discussion was taken. The results of the study concluded that English language teachers involved their students in the use of multiple languages that they know for developing content knowledge. The teachers believed that multilingual approach supports the students to be linguistically and culturally resourceful. As a part of the experiences of the use of multilingual strategies, the study identified that the teachers linked up vocabulary meaning in different language; used translation as a technique to clarify the concept; provided exposure in multiple languages, facilitated the learners to be bilingual through language transfer; encouraged students to contribute something in their own language; allowed questions in students' own languages; and used as many languages as possible as the resource pool to impart information to the students.

Keywords: multilingualism, multilingual education, pedagogical practices, teachers' experiences

Introduction

No society is absolutely homogeneous. Heterogeneity, diversity and myriad linguistic affluence have become the characteristics of modern society. Our societies are linguistically rich and culturally diverse (Edwards, 2010). Education system of a nation has a big impact on preserving and promoting the languages spoken within the nation. The classroom instruction based on multilingual practices can give a justice to the students' languages irrespective of taking them as inferior or superior. Teachers' practice of using multiple languages in a classroom can be an asset to enhance broader understanding of worldview and socio-cultural issues. School is a miniature society (Deway, 1938) and classroom is a community of diverse students. Nepalese English language teaching classrooms are culturally and linguistically diversified. The students are from different ethnic and linguistic backgrounds. Getting such students in a classroom has become a matter of pride and prejudice. It is pride in the sense that teachers get an opportunity to learn and face multiple languages in a single class. On the other hand, they may have to face challenges to give equal justice to every indigenous language, as a result of which it can be a problematic situation.

English language teachers might have been facing the problem of managing diverse languages of the students in the classroom; however the existing studies have not well reflected those issues in advance (Splosky, 2012). Thus, there is a need of an intensive study on multilingual approaches and classroom based strategies. Multilingual pedagogical approaches are the means to expose learners with multiple languages in classroom discussion. Multilingual education refers to the act of providing knowledge of more than two languages to communicate with many people in both personal and professional contexts. Similarly, multilingual pedagogical approaches are the ways to capitalize diverse linguistic, cultural and

literacy skills. Multilingual instructional strategies can promote identity investment among both majority and minority students in an educational program. Multilingual education encourages students to express themselves in their both first and second or target languages. Investing two or more languages within a classroom setting can be a powerful tool to develop language and literacy skills and increase meta-linguistic awareness (Edwards, 2010).

In order to achieve multilingualism practices in education whether formal or informal, one needs to revisit the official language policy acts in a given country to help in strengthening multilingualism practices in the country concerned hence showing its significance in the fast growing world. The study of Okal (2014) has presented some measures to sustain multilingual education in English language teaching. He views that multidimensional communication skills should be used both in primary and secondary levels for the purposes of getting the learner access to both content and skills. Making dictionaries and publishing of grammar and story books in any language are the fastest ways of spurring language growth and preservation. Writing and staging drama and poetry in indigenous languages can help in the enhancement of multilingualism practices in education. There should also be official documents in mother tongue and or indigenous languages. The discussions upon the alternative means of teaching English could oil for the further practices of multilingual approaches in teaching English.

Throughout the work, this study explored the teachers' experiences on adopting multilingual approaches in classroom to raise awareness and to support students with the recourses from different languages that the students bring inside the classroom.

Statement of the Problem

As multilingualism has become an integral aspect of academia, language teachers face challenges in addressing the multiple learning needs of students from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds. It seems quite difficult to create multilingual classroom in the culturally and linguistically diversified classes because almost all the classes from primary to higher level in our public schools are heterogeneous in structure (Rai & Phyak, 2011). Though people are in favor of multilingual strategies in classroom discussion, the selection and practices of multilingual instructional policies in the context of Nepal have not been made so far. In such a situation, discourse on the ways to make classroom really multilingual has become significant to discuss. Drawing on recent studies from second language studies, applied linguistics, literacy studies and English language teaching (Okal, 2014; Garcia & Sylvan, 2011; & Piller, 2016), a strong voice has been raised for exploring both global and local perspectives of multilingualism and diversity in language education. Equally, a recent surge in the use of multilingual pedagogical approaches is having an impact on how English and other languages are taught and learned (SSDP, 2016). While focusing on multilingual approaches to language education, a dire need has existed in exploring ways in which to capitalize on diverse linguistic, cultural and literacy skills through classroom pedagogical practices. In this regard, it seems relevant to discuss on the issue of the ways for making classroom multilingual. On the other hand, multilingual pedagogy can offer more opportunities and develop communicative capabilities in the learners (Koirala, 2016). Learners can be supported with the reading materials developed in different

languages or simply they can be encouraged to respond on their language if they lack ideas to express in the target language. In this case, this work aimed at exploring the teachers' perceptions on the use of multiple languages in teaching English and their experiences of using various strategies to support the learners to be multilingual. it is the right time to think about the ways of making classroom multilingual.

Review of Literature

Multilingualism is referred to as the ability of a speaker to express himself or herself in several languages with equal and native like proficiency. Multilingualism can also be regarded as the co-existence of several languages within a society (Okal, 2014). These several languages can be official or unofficial, native or foreign and national or international. Multilingualism is seen as an umbrella term that covers a wide variety of linguistic contexts and practices including language status, speaker status, national histories, individual proficiencies and institutional contexts of language teaching and learning (Piller, 2016). Any given country or society is generally considered as a multilingual one if its members or citizens are multilingual. The multilingual citizens on many occasions tend to show identifiable full range of communicative competence in several languages in place.

In recent years the attempts have been made to include multiple languages in education as a resource to construct new forms of understanding to the students (Cenoz, 2013). Developing multilingual proficiency (Hardina & Jesner, 2002) has become a focus of language education which includes the cumulative development of more language system in children's' learning skills and qualities.

Roles of Multilingual Education

Realizing the role of multilingualism, Cummins (2007) has presented that multilingual pedagogical approaches help in the: transfer of conceptual elements, transfer of meta-cognitive and meta-linguistic strategies, transfer of pragmatic aspects of language use, transfer of specific linguistic elements, and the transfer of phonological awareness.

In the same way, Hawkings (1984) has presented three important roles of multilingual approaches in education. They include: the knowledge of language (i.e., ability to use language appropriately in many situations; awareness of social and pragmatic norms; knowledge about language (i.e., forms and function of systems-grammar, phonology, vocabulary); and pedagogical practice (i.e., creating language learning opportunities; classroom interaction). Moreover, dealing with the role of multilingual education, Daniel, Orwego, Ruth and Nuding (2014) emphasize the three major significances as: engaging prior understanding, integrating factual knowledge with conceptual frameworks, and taking active control over the learning process through meta-cognitive strategies.

The knowledge of multiple languages is relevant to the issue of teaching for cross-linguistic transfer. In this regards, Duff (2015, p. 4) points out that new understandings are constructed on a foundation of existing understandings and experiences via multilingual education. Similarly, Manyak (2004) adds that multilingual repertoire can be a complement to produce the type of composite language competence that suits their needs. Garcia and Wei (2009) reported that the use of students' home languages is necessary in multilingual schools to support for their full participation in learning processes. Moreover, Cummins

(2007) states that the knowledge of one language supports learning of another language and transferability of skills from one language to another language.

The language of instruction not only affects the child's acquisition of basic skills in education but can also help the child in successfully meeting the challenges in their lives. An appropriate language of instruction improves the child's opportunities for education, access and achievement. At present, there is a strong voice for using multiple languages as the languages of instruction. People have become more aware on the value of languages. Cenoz (2013) proposed three fundamental reasons behind people awareness on multilingual education as: i) the spread of English; ii) language policies to promote minority languages; iii) the mobility of the population, and multilingualism in school contexts for developing multi-competence (p. 14).

Although multilingualism is the norm in the world, the English-speaking world often dismisses the value of languages other than English (LOTEs). This is because of the status of English as a powerful world language - the language of empire, imperialism, and globalization (Garcia, 2011). Thus, speakers born to monolingual English-speaking parents often see themselves as superior to those who speak other languages, and self-sufficient in their monolingualism. The field of English language teaching has seldom paid any attention to the multilingualism (Pennycook, 2001) of students of English, often dismissing what students know or understand in languages other than English (Garcia, 2011).

Developing and training both foreign and indigenous language teachers are very instrumental steps to help in the achievement of multilingualism practices in education (Mutiga, 2005). There should also be an establishment of translation bodies with linguistic experts to help in the translation of both indigenous and foreign languages. When foreign and indigenous languages are included in the multilingualism practices in education, then we should always try to avoid imposing these languages to the people. A keen measure and clear framework should be taken into account because imposing languages to people is dangerous and may cause tensions amongst different ethnic and or speech communities (Rai & Phyak, 2011).

Effects of Multilingual Education

Multilingualism practice creates the development of mixed languages mainly due to intense language contact. As a result speakers therefore tend to involve a mixture of languages during verbal communication (Daniel, Orwego, Ruth & Nuding, 2014). Similarly, multilingual practice generally develops cross linguistic communication strategies like code switching and code mixing. Multilingualism creates an aspect of diglossia whereby when there are two official languages, there is always one language that tends to dominate the other which is generally referred to as subordinate (Philipson, 1997). In the same way, multilingualism practice tends to create the development and general acquisition of cross-cultural communication skills.

Some major benefits of multilingualism in education whether formal or informal include: the creation and appreciation of cultural awareness, adds academic and educational value, enhances creativity, adjustment in society and appreciation of local languages (Okal, 2014). Similarly, the knowledge of more than two languages allows us to communicate with many people in both personal and professional

contexts. In the same way, entrenching multilingualism in education will of course enable one to avoid restrictions in communication thus enabling him to move to another stage of communication. On the other hand, multilingual educational practices enhance intellectual flexibility and creativity. In a sense, multilingualism also provides an insight into the understanding of different cultures and experiences hence a multilingual becomes multicultural in nature. It is also a form of human capital and social capital. In its specific sense, multilingualism helps in national unity especially if people learn national languages besides their indigenous languages and lingua franca (Gracia, 2014).

Nepal is a multilingual, multiethnic and multi cultural country. The classroom structure of students is also multilingual. Though the learners can be monolingual, the heterogeneous nature of English language classroom always invites the use of more than a language in instruction in the context of Nepal. The world practices has become more appealing to multilingual pedagogy (Garcia & Kleifgen, 2010), however the government of Nepal has promoted monolingual practice along with the policy of English as a medium of instruction. In this regards, there is the space for the discussion on multilingual education and multilingual strategies for teaching English to the students in heterogeneous classroom.

Methodology

This is a qualitative study that draws on critical interpretation. Critical interpretative design focuses on raising the consciousness of the participants' values and beliefs that underpin their seemingly natural forms of opinions on the issue raised. The primary purpose behind the selection of critical interpretative paradigm is to identify, contest and demonstrate critical self-awareness and critical understanding of the complexity of issues through the in-depth analysis of participants' eye-views (Taylor and Medina, 2013). In qualitative research studies, the sample size depends on the scope of the study, the nature of the topic, the quality of the data, the study design, and the use of shadowed data (Morse, 2000, 2001). The participants of this study included five English language teachers who had an experience of teaching in multilingual classroom setting and the knowledge of multilingual pedagogical approaches. The researcher came to learn this through informal interaction and thus the participants were purposively selected.

The participants of the study comprised university level English teachers who had the experience of teaching English for more than ten years. They were the multilingual speakers with an ability to communicate in English, Nepali and Hindi. They were aware on multilingual approaches as they informed the researcher during informal interaction which was held while taking consent for the interview. They were well acquainted with the importance of multilingual approaches in teaching English to non native English speaking students and equally had the experiences of using multilingual strategies in their classroom practices.

A semi-structured interview and a focus group discussion were used as data collection tools. The objective of an interview is to capture the participants' language, including any references or appeals to other discourses (Starks & Trinidad, 2007). Similarly, focus group discussion (FGD) was held among the ten teachers and two experts of multilingual education. Interpretive method of analysis was used so as to analyze the data. Interpretive analysis is an iterative, inductive process of de-contextualization and re-

contextualization (Ayeres, Kavanaugh, & Knafl, 2003; Morse & Field, i995 as cited in Starks & Trinidad, 2007). During de-contextualization, the researcher separated data from the original context of individual cases and assigned codes to units of the texts. In re-contextualization, the researcher examined the codes for patterns and then reintegrated, organized and reduced the data around central themes and relationships drawn across all the cases and narratives. Similarly, the outcome of analysis is entirely based on the teachers' experiences on multilingual classroom practices and the alternatives to practice multilingual pedagogy in ESL/EFL classes. Thematic networking (i.e. an analytic tool) was used for the analysis and interpretation of the data from interview and FGD. It refers to deriving themes from textual data and interpreting with some representational tool (Strilling, 2001) with an aim to facilitate the structuring and depiction of the themes. The researcher established connection between explicit statements and the implicit meaning including claim, warrant and backing in the analysis and interpretation part.

Results and Discussion

The data collected via interview and FGD have been discussed in relation to the research questions and the results have been made as consistent as possible with the objectives of the study. The first part of the discussion relates to the teachers' innovative practices in multilingual classroom and the second part is on the experiences of using multilingual strategies in teaching English.

Innovations in Making Classroom Multilingual

Multilingualism and multilingual pedagogy are the recent areas of applied linguistics in relation to language, identity and transnationalism (Duff, 2015). These two domains are concerned with the issues pertaining to languages and literacy in the real world and with the people who learn, speak, write, process, translate, test, teach, use, and lose language in myriad ways. Teachers are taken as the change agents of the society and the critical educators (Cummins, 2007) to bring innovation in the education system of a nation. During the interview, I asked them to respond on the questions related to the innovative practices on multilingual pedagogy in relation to interrelated themes.

Almost all the teachers and participants of the FGD preferred that the pedagogy should be multilingual. They viewed that while teaching English as a second language in class, the focus should be on resources and the construction of new knowledge. The participants insisted that monolingual approach often creates a linguistic boundary and gives limited exposure to the students. In their experiences, diagnosing the needs of the students is the basic thing. Many of the students they taught expected examples, explanation and knowledge from multiple resources. The classroom structure they teach the students is multilingual and in such a situation how monolingual approach work well is their question. They also argued that the globalization, urbanization and migration have made a classroom linguistically mosaic. In such a situation, the use of only one language cannot provide social and linguistic capital to the learners. So, they reflected that if one really wants to enhance students' knowledge, he/she should expose students in their own languages but if one wants to teach only language not the content, then monolingual pedagogy would be appropriate. They strongly rejected the idea of monolingual pedagogy to enhance students' knowledge. For evidence, teacher-3 reported as:

I think exposing students only in a language does not provide knowledge and resource to them. What I believe is knowledge is not constructed out of a language; it is constructed by the use of languages that we have or we bring in classroom. So,…for me pedagogy should be multilingual. I am trying my best for making classroom multilingual. Teachers' ease is a major thing to adopt multilingual pedagogy. We have to allow the resources of students' first language. For the beginners, multilingual instruction can be an asset. But…I think, for advanced learners, we have to allow English and other languages that they bring in classroom.

The above excerpt clearly imply that teachers' use of multilingual strategies helps in developing students' knowledge, understanding and for making them resourceful as an asset. The participants also claimed that only multilingual approach can bridge the knowledge gap. One of the participants claimed, 'multilingualism is inborn to us because our linguistic and social structure was never monolingual'. From the critical interpretation of the data, it has been concluded that the participants favored multilingual pedagogical strategies in teaching English. Their responses to the question for discussion show that multilingual pedagogy as a voice for language representation, justice and promotion.

Shifting towards Mono-to-Multilingual Pedagogy. The participants of the study equally presented themselves as well acquainted to the multilingual education and the importance of using languages as resource. The participants realized that multilingual awareness is increasing these days along with the voices raised by the experts, politicians and literacy educators. Since multilingualism has become a research backdrop (Kirkpatrick, 2016), the participants of the study felt the need of more discussion on the ways to make classroom multilingual. They insisted that education itself is not monolingual but it has been made like so. The growing awareness on the role of language transfer, teachers' self -practice, multilingual competencies, knowledge through languages and language for socio-economic and cultural capital have contributed to shift the language education from mono-to multi lingual practices in the view of my participants. Teacher-2, in this concern, argued:

We are becoming more aware on the importance of multilingual education and the experts have also raised their voices on it. And…the research literature is also growing on language issues. I think, it is partly true because we are interested on it. The need is to talk about the ways to make classroom multilingual. The awareness is increased and the research practice on it is also growing on.

Likewise, teacher-4 asserted:

Classroom teaching of English is becoming due to the growing awareness of the people. And it is the right time to talk about multilingual approach because the political system of nation is restructured and local units are given the rights to take decision about language. Multilingual practice is the need.

From the excerpts above, the researcher come to know that due to the growing awareness, need and interest of the people, political system of the nation, and the role of languages in knowledge transmission and substantial changes in learning, the language pedagogy has been shifted towards multilingual practices from the mono-lingual boundary. As Duff (2015) says the linguistic orientation of the world is crossing of cultural, ideological, linguistic, and geopolitical boarders and boundaries of all types, my participants also insisted to cross the mono linguistic and mono cultural boarders for shifting education system from mono-

to-multilingual pedagogy.

Teachers as Multilingual Educators. Teachers have a big responsibility for bringing changes and reformation in the education system of a nation (Pennycook, 2001). Teachers should present themselves as the change agent of the society where they have been working (Cots, 2009) so as to noticeable changes. The teachers involved in interview and FGD presented themselves at least as the bilingual educators. They further claimed that they have motives to present themselves as the multilingual teachers in their actions. As the part of motives, they viewed that they are personally motivated to adopt multilingual educators. Those motives included: they try to give space to the students' first languages in class; they asked questions in students first language and encouraged to answer them in the language that they feel easier to express; they exposed with examples; they bridged the knowledge to each other through the interaction and realized the importance of language to construct new forms of understandings and identities; and helped students for text production and comprehension by providing meta-linguistic input in students' own languages. So far they asserted, the recent publications on multilingual education, media, and discourse on language issues inspired the participants to be multilingual teachers. They had never an experience of discriminating students in terms of language because they were guided by the spirit of linguistic equality and justice. In this regards, teacher-1 claimed:

> I know the education system itself was not monolingual in the past but it was characterized in such a way, I don't fully agree on the statement that you said. Instead of being monolingual or bilingual, multilingual perspective is better. For knowledge transmission and bringing substantial changes, multilingual can be effective one. It is the thing that inspired me to be multilingual educator.

The participants further clarified that they used to contextualize the content with language and culture. For them, multilingual approach could address students' proficiency and right. Equally, they focused on language maintenance and shift to make learners more multilingual. As a part of evidence, teacher-3 argued:

> As a teacher and a linguist, I can't be monolingual in my class because I have to address my students' proficiency and linguistic rights. I try to be in contact with students own languages. I have experienced both the shift and maintenance of language in our education system. Lets' see the communication style in new generations; they have used more mixed codes and moving towards the use of multiple languages.

From the statements and discussions above, it becomes clear that teachers had awareness on the need and importance of using multiple languages in the class. Their profession made them to be multilingual. They tried to be in contact with students own language and link up the implications of research on multilingual education in their classroom teaching. The heterogeneous class and bilingual students were also the motives for the teachers to present them in the form of multilingual educators.

Multilingual Strategies in Teachers' Experience. The experience of one teacher can be a source of inspiration to the others for adopting multilingual strategies (Okal, 2014). One of the objectives of this study was to explore the teachers' experiences on the use of multilingual strategies. So, during the interview and FGD, the participants were asked about their experience on practicing multilingual strategies. Synthesizing

the views of the participants, the researcher identified the major approaches as: language associative techniques, e.g. linking up vocabulary meaning in students' languages; using translation as a technique to clarify the concept; providing exposure in multiple languages; bridging different cultural resource in class; integrate content and culture for explanation; respect students language in class; facilitate them to be bilingual through language transfer; making English as multi-lingual English through the feature of local accents; not being linguistically biased; encouraging students to contribute something in their own language; allow questions in students' own languages; and using as many languages as possible as the resource pool to impart information to the students. In this regards, the teacher-2 viewed:

> I expose them to provide examples from their own language and link it up with the topic so far. I teach English with the examples of Nepali and other ethnic languages that I know. I allow them to use any language they like and later ask to translate in Nepali or English and say.

Likewise, Teacher-4 asserted:

> I bridge different languages in the class and I provide exposure to the students. Throughout my practice of teaching, I made use of language to impart information not simply for taking, or showing myself as an expert speaker of a language. I used to integrate linguistic and cultural information in my classes. I encouraged them to speak in their first language.

With reference to the participants' experiences, I come to the conclusion that language associative techniques, translation, knowledge transfer, using as many languages as the resource pool, exemplification and meaning negotiation in students languages, making substantial use of Nepali language while teaching English and selecting different languages for reading and writing as the multilingual pedagogical approaches of the teachers.

Alternative Strategies to Practice Multilingual Pedagogy in ESL/EFL Classes

Among the participants, the most effective strategy to practice multilingual pedagogy in ESL/EFL classes would be the teachers self practice of picking up as many languages as possible in class for content elaboration, contextualization, clarification and exposure. Besides this, they suggested many alternatives. Their views included: promoting students' first language by using them in classroom talk, casual talk and in writing; picking up the examples from different languages without taking language as a boundary because language is not an electric switch; teach, push and encourage reflecting in different languages; giving permission to ask and response in students' individual languages; providing exposure in English by bridging/blending local language input in the classes; and teaching by translating, paraphrasing, maintaining dependency in between languages, and establishing vocabulary relationships in many languages. Furthermore, they also argued to present content intelligible in many languages that the students possess; to take languages for learning base to the students; to motivate students to be multilingual by language transfer, translation, code switching and code messing; to make strategic plan for adopting multilingual approaches in action; to handle languages tactfully in class by bringing variety in learning tasks through the use of different languages; to explore and extend the functions of different languages and encouraging students to make use of those functions in their communication; and to be aware on

the importance of individual languages, extending students' repertoire in different languages and using additive language instruction as the strategy. As the evidence, the teacher-5 suggested the alternatives as:

> We have to encourage them to have a good English in writing and speaking but for knowledge and exposure, we need to provide them the information from multiple culture…we have to ask them to contribute something else in their language too. The more we try to use different languages, the more intelligible the content will be to the students. For example, we may paraphrase in different languages help them for getting the contents.

> Supporting the same, teacher-4 argued:
> We may ask students to promote their language by using it in classroom, in casual talk, in writing… and so on. Similarly, we can pick up the examples from two or more languages. We should think that all languages could be the best languages.

From the evidence above, it has also become clear that the teachers can play instrumental role to practice multilingual pedagogy in their classes with an attitude of using languages as a knowledge base, resource for developing competencies and tool for personal and professional growth (Strilling, 2001). The content for teaching should be selected from multiple linguistic and cultural sources. Resource management is important thing rather than language selection for effective MLE. It can be suggested that more discussion is essential and the local body should reformulate the policy and practice of language in classroom. Social realization is almost essential to promote languages through education.

Teachers' Alternatives to the Policies for Multilingual Education

It is said that the effective policy results better achievement in education system of a nation. There is a significant role of language policy to practice multilingual pedagogy in learning contexts. Language policy consists of three components: (i) language practices-actual use of language; (ii) language beliefs or ideology; and (iii) language intervention, planning or management (Spolsky, 2012). The teachers' conception of language policy allows the investigations of the actions of government and how such actions are interpreted and experienced by those they are designed to affect. Thus, at the final part of discussion, I interviewed the participants about their suggestions for implementing new policies in MLE. The most striking suggestions of them regarding the policy of multilingual education included: the language policy of the government should support the use of students' home language for their educational and cognitive development; the local people, local educational agencies, teachers and experts should be included in the policy making process, educational languages policies should be bottom-up; the 'one nation one language' policy disregarded the multilingual education in the past, so there must be pluralistic policy of language; multilingual input should be given through teacher education and training; multilingual pedagogy should be included in higher education curriculum, MLE should not be the political agenda rather, it should be the investment to enhance educational capabilities; the donor based policy should be demolished and research based implications should be the part of practice; and the agency based translation of textbooks from English and Nepali to ethnic/ indigenous languages should be avoided. In this regards, teacher-1 suggested as:

…as a part of my suggestion, first there should be the efforts for teacher investment. Multilingual input should be invested in teacher education and in training. Second, the selection criteria should be made explicit. For example, selecting the teacher considering the linguistic structure of a community or the school looking at the majority of the students…our commitment works best as a policy. Another pity is that in our context, policy has never been a practice. The local body should be automatized. The consequences of monolingual policy should be examined and the practice of languages in pedagogy should be the part of discussion which has not been so.

From the overall discussion of the data and interview excerpt, it can be concluded that the language policy for practicing MLE should be explicit, workable, need based, research based, sensitive to the language structure and learning context of the classroom, visionary and realistic. The participants also suggested that the mother tongue based education policy for basic level and additive bilingual (Romaine, 2009) policy for higher level education is desirable. The policy should focus on resource development-to-management-to-effective implementation stratagem. So, what is the need of present day pedagogy in Nepalese context is that the national policy of language teaching should use its own languages to enhance the multi-competence in the knowledge base of the students.

Conclusion and Implications

The results of the study depicted that the teachers favored multilingual pedagogical strategies in teaching English to the students from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds. Their innovative practices supported the use of students' home language for meaningful interaction and knowledge enrichment. As we have seen an extensive critiques have been mounted against the monolingual bias that pervades most areas of applied linguistics (Garcia, 2009; Edwards, 2010; & Okal, 2014), the participants of this study attempted to shift their instructional strategies towards multilingual practices from the monolingual one.

As the study of Cenoz and Gorter, (2011) concluded that monolingualism is the default for human communication, the findings of this study too found in the same line. The participants of this study also perceived monolingual pedagogy as a barrier for students' knowledge base. The English language teachers asserted that due to the growing awareness on the use of language for linguistic and social capital of the students, the present day language pedagogy is steeping ahead towards multilingual education in both the pedagogical approaches and classroom practices of language. The results also depict that there is an increasing awareness in multilingual pedagogy. The English language teachers preferred multilingual pedagogical approaches for teaching content, developing knowledge and providing more social, linguistic and cultural capital of the students. Using multiple languages as a means to communicate content area, giving examples from different linguistic and cultural contexts, allow students to respond on their own language, bringing variety in tasks in different languages, and providing meta-linguistic input in students own language have been found as the strategies for making classroom more multilingual. These findings supported the ideas expressed by Okal (2014) in his study on the benefits of multilingualism in education. The participants argued that the policy should be based on classroom structure and language use to the students has been found as the suggestion to adopt multilingual policy in education. As a part of

alternatives, it has been found that the teachers became realistic on linguistic structure and resources. They have invested language-culture connection approach in their pedagogy. So, the findings of the study have made call for a move from monolingual to a multilingual approach. Multilingual education is necessary for all children since it fosters multilingual and multicultural awareness, strengthens multilingual competence and enhances linguistic and cultural sensitivity. For collective disciplinary action to break away from the monolingual bias, viable alternatives must be offered to replace the prevalent monolingual theories, constructs and research practices. Thus, I would like to conclude with Cummins statement, "When we free ourselves from exclusive reliance on monolingual instructional approaches, a wide variety of opportunities arise for teaching languages"(2007).

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APPENDIX A

Interview Questionnaire

1.   The pedagogy of language has become more multilingual at present. How do you agree on it?
2.   Would you like to present yourself as a multilingual academician? How do you do so?
3.   Would you mind sharing me your experiences of adopting multilingual pedagogical approaches in your classroom instruction?
4.   In your own experience and understanding, what makes a classroom really multilingual?
5.   Would you like to suggest any specific ways to make our L2 classes more multilingual?
6.   What should be the educational policy for applying multilingual pedagogy in our like heterogeneous classes?
7.   As a teacher of English, what do you think about the position of English and other indigenous languages in English classroom?
8.   What sorts of attempts have you made so far to make your class more multilingual and language inclusive

Appendix B

FGD Guidelines

Discussion on: Multiligualism and language education

: Multilingual education and medium of instruction

: Multilingual pedagogy

: Ways to make classroom really multilingual

: Multilingual classroom policies and practices

: Strategies to be more multilingual in action not in words

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Teachers' Attitudes Towards English as Medium of Instruction

Krishna Kumar Khatri

Abstract

English as medium of Instruction (EMI) has been a genuine issue of discussion in today's pedagogical field among the concerned stakeholders including teachers. In this concern, a mixed method study entitled 'Attitudes of teachers towards using English as Medium of Instruction (EMI) in Public Secondary Schools of Ilam was attempted to explore the teachers' attitude towards using EMI in the public schools and challenges faced by them in course of adopting EMI. For this, twenty secondary level English teachers were accessed purposively and data were collected using questionnaire consisting of both close ended and open-ended questions. The results of the study revealed that teachers of public schools were found aware of the basic concept of the notion of English as a medium of instruction. They were found positive in implementing EMI in conducting their daily teaching and learning activities. The study also showed that teachers of secondary level have been facing different challenges in adopting EMI in the classroom like students' weak exposure to English, mother tongue interference, unresourceful schools and linguistic diversity in the class. The study recommended that there should be conducive and encouraging environment in the public schools for the teachers for adopting EMI in the class. The schools should be made resourceful and well equipped with modern technologies. Moreover, the teachers should be made sound with pedagogically and professionally.

Keywords: English as medium of instruction, English language, English language teaching

Introduction

English language has gained its status of global means of communication. Today, it has been playing the role of lingua franca among the people from dispersed and diversified linguistic and cultural background. English, nowadays, no longer remains the property of the English speaking countries like Britain, America and Australia. It has become an inclusive channel of communication in the field of education and commerce throughout the world. Regarding the remarkable position of the English language in the world, Phillipson (2007) writes:

> English is now entrenched worldwide, as a result of British colonialism, international interdependence, 'revolutions' in technology, transport, communications and commerce and because English is the language of the USA, a major economic, political and military force in the contemporary world. It may not only Britain which has gravitated towards linguistic homogeneity, but the significant portion of entire world. (pp. 23-24)

From this, it can be inferred that English language has spread its coverage in almost all sectors and fields all around the world. It is not only the language of one specific land and territory. It has covered almost every space and portion of knowledge in the present day world.

Similarly, the English language has become the main source of gaining knowledge. For this, Crystal 1990, p.7) writes, "Textbooks on English these days regularly rehearse the litany of its achievements. It is

the main language of the world's book newspaper and advertising". From Crystal's idea, it can be said that anyone who wants to gain knowledge of either of the fields should be competent in the English language. Moreover, English is the language of global importance of library, diplomacy, business, education and employment and the promotion of human rights. In this regard, Freeman (2007) mentions that we are witnessing a tremendous increase in the demand of English around the world. It is not only due to different changing demographics but also because of the trend towards globalization. Thus, the present world has been using the English language as a vehicle to transmit its developments, changes, innovations and many other things. As a result of the use of English, the world has become smaller and simpler than a larger cosmos. In similar vein, a policy statement issued by the United States Government has also clarified the growing interest and importance of the English language in the world. The statement states that English has become one of the most important world languages. The rapidly growing interest in English cuts across political and ideological lines because of the convenience of a lingua franca increasingly used as a second language in the important areas of the world (as cited in Gnyawali, 2010, p. 7). Because of the rapid changes in the field of science and technology, politics and the economic world, people seem to be forced to learn it. To make it clear, Holmes (2008) states that where new jobs are created by industrialization, they are of introduced by groups of using a majority group language with status often a world language such as English, Spanish or French. Globalization has also contributed to this trend.

In the context of Nepal, the use of English occupies important space in both the academic and non academic sectors. In this regard, Giri (2010, pp. 64-65) writes "the English language occupies an impeccable and indispensable place in the socio-economic system, and therefore, the drive for its learning is paramount...English is, therefore, socially, economically and educationally elevated higher than all other local languages". Regarding the position of English in Nepal, Awasthi (2003, as cited in Bhattarai and Gautam, 2007) states:

> Nepal is providing education through six Universities about 1000 constituent and affiliated colleges, some 1500 higher secondary schools and 42100 schools of which 7154 are privately run and the rest are publicly run. English occupies a prominent position in the total education system in Nepal. (p. 32)

The number and interest of the people to study the English language either as formal education or in the form of informal education is increasing day by day. Regarding the space of English in school and college education, Sharma (2006) states that English has been offered as a compulsory subject from the primary level up to Bachelor level It is taught as an elective subject from the secondary level to the post graduate level. There is a provision of English as an optional subject from grade nine up to twelve under the curriculum of school education of Nepal. In case of higher education, English is offered as one of the elective subjects under the Faculty of Education (FoE) in B.Ed. and M.Ed. and under the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences (FoHSS) in B.A. and M.A. Similarly, English is taught for Specific Purposes (ESP) in the Faculty of Law, in the Institutes of Medicine, Engineering, Agriculture, Forestry, College of Banking and Financial Studies.

From both the global and local scenario of English, it can be stated that the English language plays

an important role to enrich the status of several facets of the people of Nepal. The need, interest and importance of using English language in both specific and academic purposes have been realized to a great extent. More specifically, the use of English in school education system as a medium of instruction is an important issue to be investigated. Since EMI has been announced to be used mandatorily in the public secondary schools, teachers' perception, attitudes and readiness towards EMI has not been assessed and analyzed properly. Taking these facts into account, the study was conducted and this paper discusses the attitudes of teachers towards using English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) in Public Secondary Schools of Ilam district.

Review of Literature

English language teaching in Nepal has made a history of about one and half a century. The formal introduction of English in Nepalese school education system is closely connected with the rise of Rana rule in the 19th century. Regarding the historical inception of English in Nepal, Sharma (2006, p. 24) mentions, "So far the history of official history entry of the English language in Nepal is concerned, it is with the establishment of the first modern school, Durbar High School in 1954". At that time, the Durbar High School was established only for the children of Ranas to make them able to know and use the English language. The Ranas' children were taught English with the view in mind that the Rana Rule would have an easy access to British Empire. In a similar vein, Giri (2014) cites Madandhar (2002) and Vir (1998) as English was formally imported into Nepal during the Rana oligarchy and was seen as

a linguistic advantage favoring the ruling elites. Similarly, the development of English in Nepal is also closely connected with the spread of British Rule in India in the 19th century. In the same way, the introduction of English in Nepalese education has some connection with the modern education system of India. It has been influenced by the education system of neighboring India. In this line, Bhattarai (2006, p. 11) writes:

Compared to the history of modern education in the neighboring India and the position that English has occupied there this period is quite short however this has left clear traces of its existence and gradual pace of development in Nepal too.

English in the higher education in Nepal was formally commenced after the establishment of Trichandra College in 1918 A.D. Before that, there was no college and university run formally to provide higher education to the people. But Giri (2010) claims with different evidence and writes that a landmark of English education, however, was the commencement of recruitment of Gurkha soldiers as a part of the famous Sugauli Treaty in 1815, the training of which took place in English. This was the beginning of English education in Nepal, though at a miniscule level. Moreover, after the establishment of Trichandra College, many other schools were established throughout the kingdom which further enhanced the spread of English teaching situation in Nepal however, there was not any significant pace for the English teaching situation until 1971. In this regard, Awasthi (2003, p. 22) mentions, "ELT in Nepal started in 1971 with the implementation of National Education System Plan (NESP) and that same year Tribhuvan University (TU) started B.Ed. program in English Education". From this it is inferred that English teaching situation

spread establishment of Trichandra College and the formation NESP has significant space to bring English teaching situation in this state.

English has occupied important position in the education system of Nepal for years. The status of English in Nepal varies over time as per the fields in which it is used. Regarding the changing status of English Giri (2015) chronologically mentions that English has been labelled differently at different times throughout its history in Nepal. Initially it was adopted as a UN language. To be specific, in the beginning of the twentieth century, it was termed as a link language, a library language or even a reference language, in the middle of the century, it was taught and learned as a language of international communication, and in the 1980s and 1990s, English was considered an international language. The dawn of the twenty-first century has given English a new perspective – English as a Nepali language. In official discourse, however, it is still referred to as a 'foreign' language. Moreover, Giri (2014) writes that English in contemporary Nepal has been playing the role of lingua franca across various socioeconomic sectors and domains and it interacts with the local languages through code mixing and code-switching.

The school education system of Nepal has been running with two types of systems viz. government aided and privately run schools. The usage of English varies in these schools. The practice of English in the privately run schools is relatively much more than in government aided schools. In majority of the privately run schools, all subjects except for Nepali are prepared and taught in English. The medium of instruction in each class is also English. But the situation of the government aided schools is different. The learning materials are prepared in Nepali and the medium of instruction in majority of the classes is Nepali. This notices the variation in the use and practice of English in the instructional system of Nepal. In the same matter, Bhattaarai and Gautam (2007) suggested that there should not be such gap between the schooling systems of the same state and recommend the policy makers that they have to bridge the contrasting gap by establishing a meeting point. However, there is growing public craze towards the English language as the growing attraction of parents and students towards privately run education institutions in the country whether at the university level or the school level. Consequently, the role of English is significant and its use has been the quality parameters in the practice and delivery of quality instruction in the academic institutions.

English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI): An Overview

English language is viewed as the global language. It is taken as the most widely used means of communication. In this line, Pennycook (2001, p. 81) is of the opinion that English taking up such an important position in many educational systems around the world, it has become one of the most powerful means of inclusion into, or exclusion from further education, employment, or social positions. Moreover, English has been playing the role of global lingua franca to facilitate the process of communication between the people from diverse linguistic background. Along with the global importance of English, the notion of English as medium of instruction (EMI) has become a growing global phenomenon in the present day academia.

Simply, the notion English as a medium of instruction (EMI) refers to the use of the English language in the classroom instruction where contents of various subjects are taught and delivered in English. In addition to this, the idea can be interpreted in terms of its practice in relation to different dimensions. For example, EMI means teaching all subjects as prescribed in the curriculum in English. Moreover, EMI is the use of English where professional courses are taught in English. In addition, EMI may mean giving lectures in English while assisting the students to learn the contents and matters of different subjects as offered in the schools or university curriculum. Dearden (2014, p.1) defines EMI as "The use of the English language to teach academic subjects in countries or jurisdictions where the first language (L1) of the majority of the population is not English". He further states that there is a fast-moving worldwide shift towards using English as a medium of instruction (EMI) for academic subjects such as science, mathematics, geography and medicine. EMI is increasingly being used in universities, secondary schools and even primary schools. This phenomenon has very important implications for the education of young people and policy decisions in non-Anglophone countries (Dearden, 2014). Thus, the medium of instruction has always been a key issue among educational institutions across the world especially in those nations who were once British colonies. Even though those nations have gained independence from the British rule yet its legacy still exists in one form or to the other. English language is one of the most prominent legacies left behind by the British Empire. Despite the unceasing global debate on English as the international lingua franca or as 'killer language' (Coleman, 2006), the adoption of English as a medium of Instruction (EMI) has been sweeping across the higher education landscape worldwide (Crystal, 2004). In this context, Nepal cannot remain in exception. Thus, the global spread of EMI has led the schools and universities of Nepal to adopt English as a medium of instruction. Since English is used to serve different functions in different settings. Among the various functions that we perform with English, EMI is one of the important uses of the English language in the academic context.

Many non-native English speaking countries have taken the notion (EMI) owing to the growing need for developing communicative competence in English that may fulfill the increasing demand for English language development. In the same way, the rise of English as a global lingua franca seems to be further forcing non-native speakers to learn and use the English language and many countries are trying to drastically overhaul their education system in favor of English in order to meet the challenge of global integration. In this very situation, Nepal, one of the developing countries, however it has not yet been able to sustain with the full effects of implementing EMI in the public schools and higher education institutions. The decision of introducing this huge change is made with no proper plans; however, some mere studies are on track (Sah, 2015). In the similar vein, as the instances of international practice of EMI, the countries, such as Ghana, Turkey and Rwanda have failed to continue EMI education because of the lack of educational infrastructure, teachers' proficiency in English, proper teacher education programs, and in-service professional development (Tylor, 2010). Nonetheless, EMI policy has also benefited many contexts, namely India, Pakistan and Spain, with suitable outcomes. They, however, used appropriate plans and principles (Marsh, 2006). Moreover, some countries initially failed to receive the set objectives and further developed plans that could lead to a successful implementation of EMI education. One of

such contexts is a Ghanaian context where they introduced 'bilingual transitional literacy program' and 'Bridge to English' in order to build up suitable situations for the implementation of EMI education. EMI is therefore an interesting topic to discuss and is consequently receiving a huge attention from language policy researchers.

Similarly, Dearden (2014) reported some issues regarding the EMI practice globally include, the lack of EMI-qualified teachers and teaching resources, questions as to which subjects are to be taught through English medium, the age at which EMI starts, the lack of a standard level of English for EMI teachers, the role of the teacher, and the role of language centers and professional development. Since these are the global issues for implementing EMI, they seem to be identical in the Nepalese context. Thus, these very issues have paved the way to make an attempt to investigate this area in the context of Nepal.

Moreover, the choice and adoption of language of instruction in the multicultural and multilingual setting like Nepal is not a new phenomenon but it is a very difficult task. With reference to multilingual setting of various countries, Tsui and Tollefson (2003) put forward their view that choosing a language as a medium of instruction, which is part of the language-in-education policy, is not a novel issue as it has been discussed and studied worldwide, especially in the countries where multilingualism exists with diverse people and multi-ethnic groups such as Singapore, Malaysia, Indonesia, India, Canada, Hong Kong, etc. Thus, the selection of medium of instruction is sensitive in these countries because it profoundly impacts on political, economic, and sociolinguistic aspects of a country and may "lead to war and bloodshed" if ill-managed (Tsui & Tollefson, 2003). So, the concerned authority should be very much careful in selecting and implementing the medium of instruction at any level.

Methodology

This paper has been prepared on the basis of a mixed method research carried out among the English language teachers teaching in twenty public secondary schools of Ilam district. The main objectives of the study were to find out the English language teachers attitudes towards English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) and explore the challenges if any faced by the teachers while adopting EMI in the public schools. To fulfill these objectives, twenty secondary level English teachers were selected purposively. Questionnaire was used as the main tool for the collection of the data. For this, both close-ended and open-ended questions were set in a single sheet and distributed to draw data from the primary sources. Moreover, close-ended questions were used to obtain quantitative data and open-ended questions were asked to draw qualitative data from the respondent teachers. Then, data collected from the questionnaire were sorted, presented, analyzed and interpreted using both the quantitative and qualitative ways on the basis of nature of the data.

Results and Discussion

To investigate the English language teachers' understanding about the notion 'English as Medium of Instruction' (EMI), an open-ended question was asked to them. The question was "What do you understand by the notion ' English as a Medium of Instruction'(EMI)? In response to this question, teachers came up with a variety of ideas and opinions in relation to their own perception and experiences. In this regard, majority of the teachers were found aware of the notion of EMI and shared their view in relation to the daily teaching

and learning activities. Though they responded this question from different angles and perspectives, the gist of their responses rested on the same ground focusing on the use of English language as a means of handling teaching and learning activities in the classroom. To justify the essence of their responses on the notion of EMI, some representative views and opinions of the teachers have been illustrated and discussed with brief annotation. Regarding the meaning of the notion of EMI, one of the teachers shared perception as, "English as a medium of instruction refers to the use of English as the language of teaching and learning during the classroom activities instead of using other languages". Moreover, highlighting the basic tenets of EMI two teachers shared similar view as "English as a Medium of Instruction constitutes the use of English as the language of handling instructional activities of any subject between students and teachers". In line with this view, another teacher set her/his idea as, "EMI is the English language used by the teacher to present his contents to the students in the classroom and the language of interaction between the teacher and students in the classroom teaching and learning. From the responses of some other teachers, it can be summarized that EMI is the use of English language in the classroom teaching and learning by both the teacher and students. It refers to the use of English language in the delivery of contents and practice of exercises and tasks during classroom teaching and learning by the teachers and learners.

From the above discussion, it is clear that almost all teachers were found aware of the basic concept of English as a medium of instruction. In this regard, majority of the teachers stated their view incorporating fundamental features and process of English as a medium of instruction in relation to their own instructional practices. Almost all of them perceived it as a means of delivering contents and proceeding interaction between teachers and students in the classroom instruction.

Status of Implementing EMI in the Public Secondary Schools

In order to find out the current status of the implementation of EMI in the public secondary schools, a closed-ended question, "Is there English as a medium of instruction implemented at your school?" was asked to the teachers. To respond to this question, they were given two options 'Yes' and 'No. In response, only 10 percent of the teachers responded with the option 'Yes'. It shows that very few public schools were found implementing English language as a medium of instruction to teach the subjects except English. On the other hand, 90 percent of them responded this query selecting the option 'No'. From this data, it can be stated that most of the public secondary schools have not been implementing English as a medium of instruction in teaching other subjects except English. On the whole, it can be summarized that the status of usage of English as a medium of instruction in the public schools is still considerable. Majority of the public secondary schools have not been handling instructional activities employing English as a medium of instruction effectively.

Teachers' Views on EMI is Better than Other Media of Instruction

This subheading mainly deals with the teachers' views on the assumption that EMI is better than other mediums of instruction to be used in the school. The main aim of this section was to find out how far they put emphasis on the use of EMI in comparison to other mediums of instruction in their daily teaching. To find out the teachers' view, a question "Do you agree that use of EMI is better than the other mediums

of instruction in the schools?" was asked to them. To respond to this question, three options, i.e. 'Yes', 'Uncertain' and 'No' were given. In this regard, 65 percent of the teachers responded this question saying 'Yes' representing their strong agreement on the belief that use of EMI is better than the other mediums of instruction in the school. The data indicated that majority of the teachers have positive attitude towards using EMI in their instructional activities. They put more emphasis on the use of EMI than other mediums of instruction. Supporting this view, one of the teachers wrote "Because it builds up the students' strength in English and it becomes easy and enjoyable for them". This view asserts that the use of EMI helps to build the competence in English on the part of students. Likewise, another teacher also came up with positive view on this question and mentioned as "In my opinion, EMI is better than other mediums because, English language is used as the means of global communication. EMI makes our students able to communicate with the students from other countries using English. Similarly, EMI builds the competence and confidence to use English in various purposes".

On the other hand, 20 percent of the teachers went against the given statement with justifications. To defend the opinion, one of the teachers went on to say as "I don't agree with this belief and we should not ignore other languages in the name of using English only in the classroom teaching and learning. Medium of instruction should be used in consonance with the students' linguistic and cultural compositions in the classroom". Similar to this view, another teacher mentioned as," I don't think that EMI is better than other mediums of instruction because all languages are equally important. Other mediums can also be effective if they are implemented properly. So, medium of instruction should be used according to the classroom contexts". Regarding the same query, 15 percent of the teachers were found uncertain and ignorant. From this it can be said that some of the secondary level English teachers are not clear about value of EMI over other mediums of instruction. On the basis of analysis of the teachers' responses, it can be concluded that majority of the secondary level English teachers agreed with the belief that EMI is better than other mediums of instructions in our context. They put emphasis on the use of English as a medium of instruction in the public secondary schools in comparison to others. However, some few teachers were found negative about the view that EMI is better medium of instruction than other mediums.

Challenges in Using EMI in the Class

The main aim of this section was to find out teachers' perception about whether they have been facing challenges in employing EMI in the Nepalese EFL context. To find out their view, a question, "Do you agree that it is challenging to implement EMI in the Nepalese classroom?" was asked to them. To respond to this question, three options, that is, 'Yes', 'Uncertain' and 'No' were given. In response to this query, all the teachers showed their agreement choosing the option, 'Yes'. From this response, it can be said that it is challenging for the teachers to conduct teaching and learning activities employing English as a medium of instruction in the EFL classroom. To support their view, teachers mentioned a variety of causes which impeded them to implement EMI effectively. To quote the view of a teacher, "It is difficult for the Nepalese English teachers to use EMI effectively in the Nepalese classes because there is very weak exposure to English among the students. Students in the class are from diverse linguistic and cultural

backgrounds" Here, the teacher have faced challenges to implement EMI due to the weak exposure to English and diverse linguistic and cultural standpoints of the students in the class. In the same way, four teachers were found sharing nearly same opinion that it is challenging task for the majority of the Nepalese English teachers to implement EMI in their classroom teaching due to the interference of students' mother tongues since students are from different ethnic and linguistic communities. Here, it is stated that students' mother tongue interference is the main cause to create difficulty in the smooth and effective use of EMI in the Nepalese EFL classrooms.

From the analysis of the teachers' responses, it can be interpreted that public schools' English teachers have been facing various challenges in using English as a medium of instruction like students' weak exposure to English language, mother tongue interference in the classroom, poor competence of students in English, lack of support and encouragement from the parents and society and no motivating environment for the teachers and schools are not resourceful and well facilitated.

Teachers' Experience of Training and Workshops on EMI

This heading was attempted to explore the extent of experience of the teachers attending various training and workshops regarding the issue of EMI. In this purpose, teachers were provided a closed ended question including two options, that is, 'Yes' and 'No' to respond. Moreover, they were also asked to mention their remarkable experience if they had such incidents of participating in any academic events on the issue of EMI. In response to this question, all the teachers responded with the option 'No'. As they replied this question negatively, they did not mention about their experience. It means they did not have any remarkable experience of attending the EMI focused training, workshops and webinar to be implemented in their regular teaching and learning practices. From the analysis of the data, it can be concluded that the teachers of the public schools have not had much notable involvement and practice in the EMI focused events and functions. They did not get opportunity to participate in the training, workshops, and conferences about the practice of EMI.

Institutional Encouragement to the Teachers Employing EMI in the School

In this part, teachers were asked whether they have been encouraged by their institutions for employing and enhancing EMI based teaching and learning activities. To draw their response, they were asked a question, "Does your institution encourage you to use English as a medium of instruction?" To respond this query they were provided two options as 'Yes' and 'No' for them. In response to this question, teachers came up with mixed response. For this, majority of the teachers, that is, 90 percent, responded that there is no encouraging environment in their schools for practicing EMI supported instructional activities in their regular pedagogy. In this regard, teachers also shared their bitter experience that there is no English speaking environment around their school premises. Though interested teachers wanted to communicate in English with each other, other made them compelled to use Nepali language around the school area. Moreover, they shared that their institution did not conduct any interaction program talking about EMI to be implemented in the classroom. As they mentioned that although they tried a lot to change the way of instruction in the schools, they could not do it due to the lack of support, cooperation and collaboration from

the concerned stakeholders. Regarding the same issue, 15 percent of them stated that they are encouraged by their institutions for using EMI in their instructional activities. As the evidence, it is noteworthy to mention the experience of a teacher. She says "My school has really been encouraging in creating English friendly environment. School management committee, school administration, teachers and parents are cooperating to flourish and conduct instructional activities using English as a medium of instruction. Our school has been running with fully English medium instruction up to grade seven. We are getting appreciation from all stakeholders". From this data too, it can be summed up that teachers are not much encouraged by their institutions and concerned authority for adopting EMI based instructional activities in their schools. There is not favorable environment for the teachers to conduct EMI based teaching and learning activities due to the lack of required resources.

Benefits of Employing EMI to the Teachers

In order to draw the teachers' opinions on the benefits of using EMI for their own pedagogical and professional endeavors, they were given an open ended question. The question was "What, in your opinions, are the benefits of using EMI for the teachers?" In response to this question, teachers came up with a variety of ideas and opinions. They mentioned a number of benefits relating to their personal, pedagogical and professional fields. As they stated that EMI helps them to enhance competence in English language usage and use and it is the real exhibition of the competence of the teachers' English. Similarly, teachers opined that EMI makes the teachers inquisitive and explorative in their own pedagogical and professional issues. EMI plays pivotal role in their professional development. They further mentioned other benefits that EMI is the prime means to the teachers for the reflective practices with the help of which teachers become able to communicate in English globally. Teachers are motivated to access worldly available resource materials to be used in their pedagogical and professional lives. Regarding the same concern, some other teachers responded that EMI helps the teachers to manage and conduct ICT supported instruction in the schools in this technology and they can enhance and expand their regular pedagogical and professional practices. From all these points, it has been clear that all the public secondary level teachers have perceived use of EMI positively. They are well aware of the importance of the EMI in their own pedagogical and professional practices**.**

Conclusion and Implications

The paper has presented and discussed the results of a survey study carried out among the 20 secondary level English teachers of public schools from Ilam district. It investigated the attitudes of teachers towards using English as a medium of instruction in the public schools and explored the various problems and challenges faced by the teachers while adopting EMI in the public schools. The findings of the study showed that teachers of public schools were found aware of the basic concept of the notion of English as a medium of instruction. They were found positive in implementing EMI in conducting their daily teaching and learning activities. In the same way, majority of the teachers mentioned that they would like to employ EMI in their instructional activities over teaching with learners' mother tongue. Although they showed positive attitudes towards using EMI, the real status of implementation was not found satisfactory. It means that a few public secondary schools

were found implementing EMI in their instructional activities. In addition to this, it can also be concluded that public schools' teachers cannot adopt EMI effectively and efficiently in their daily classes due to the problems and challenges like students' weak exposure to English language, mother tongue interference in the classroom, poor competence of students in the English language, lack of support and encouragement from the parents and society and no motivating environment for the teachers, lack of clear plan and policy regarding the usage of EMI and schools are not resourceful, and well facilitated. Based on these findings, it is recommended that there should be conducive and encouraging environment in the public schools for the teachers to encourage them for adopting EMI in the class. The schools should be made resourceful and well equipped with modern technologies. Moreover, the teachers should be made sound with pedagogically and professionally. The concerned authority should provide the opportunities to them to take part in the trainings, seminars and workshops on EMI.

Despite the new insights gained from this study, a number of limitations need to be addressed. Firstly, this was a small study among twenty English teachers, and hence the findings may lack generalizability. It can also be conducted in the larger scale in the future. Secondly, this study primarily investigated teachers' perception on EMI but it could explore the extent of real practices of EMI in their instructional activities. So, it may be advantageous to look at the practices of EMI in the public secondary schools in another study.

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Second Language Acquisition as a Discipline: A Historical Perspective

Dr. Nabaraj Neupane

Abstract

Second language acquisition (SLA) generates and tests the theories concerning the acquisition of languages other than first language (L1) in different contexts. Even if SLA is a nascent discipline, its history is remarkable and helpful to seek the answers to the questions that researchers are raising in the field of second language or foreign language. Based on this context, this article aims to recount the history of the burgeoning discipline that heavily draws from numerous disciplines like linguistics, psychology, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, and so on. To achieve the objective, document analysis method has been used. The analysis and interpretation of the available documents exhibit that the traces of SLA were observed in the studies that address the issue of language transfer. Specifically, the diachronic study proves that the development of the discipline has undergone three evolving phases like background, formative, and developmental. The background phase caters for behaviourism, contrastive analysis hypothesis, and the attacks on the fundamental premises of behaviourism. The formative phase deals with Chomsky's revolutionary steps, error analysis, interlanguane theory, morpheme order studies, and the Krashen's monitor model that opened up the avenues for further studies of SLA. The developmental phase recounts various studies that have consolidated SLA as a separate discipline.

Keywords: behaviourism, error analysis, interlanguage theory, monitor model, second language

Introduction

Second Language Acquisition (SLA) is an emerging field of enquiry, developed from multiple disciplines like psychology, sociology, linguistics, pedagogy and the like (Mitchell & Myles, 2004). It implies that SLA is not unidisciplinary but interdisciplinary as it borrows numerous concepts, views, ideas, theories, and practices from different disciplines. Yet, the nucleus of SLA began from the issue of the role of the native language (NL) in learning other languages. This central phenomenon is termed as language transfer, on which many theoretical underpinnings are associated with (Gass & Selinker, 2009). Thus, the historical overview of SLA revolves around the key issue of language transfer, on which theoreticians have expressed their views for and against the notion. For example, early theorists like behaviourists and contrastive analysts suppose language transfer as a main source of errors whereas the latter theorists in the 1970s and beyond the 1980s denied the key role of language transfer.

The post-war history of SLA is crucial to recount because numerous changes occurred after 1950s are responsible for the foundations of SLA as a burgeoning discipline. Therefore, Mitchell and Myles (2004) have divided the history of SLA in three different periods as: the 1950s and 1960s, the 1970s, and the 1980s and beyond. The first phase witnessed the developments of behaviourism, structuralism and contrastive analysis hypothesis, which firmly believed on the role of NL in the development of SL. The second phase

began when Chomskyan revolution settled the role of mind in language acquisition. This term reshaped the concept of NLA and SLA and the by-product was error analysis. Chomskyan compartmentalized view also did not last long as a panacea for language learning process. The third phase, i. e. the 1980s and the beyond witnessed radical paradigm shifts in the domain. Basically, empirical evidences propelled by Morpheme Order Studies and a conceptual framework developed by Krashen's Monitor Model are landmarks to develop SLA as an autonomous house of many rooms.

Similar division is apparent in Gass and Selinker's (2009) work, too. For them, historical overview of SLA can move around the concentric rings of behaviourism, contrastive analysis hypothesis, error analysis and the recent perspectives. Based on these contexts, this article reviews, analyses, and interprets the history of SLA in three phases such as background, formative, and developmental.

Methodology

The main objective of this article is to explore the trails, on which SLA has come through for its development as a separate discipline. To achieve this goal, I have adopted document analysis method (DAM) that lies under the umbrella of qualitative approach. DAM analyses available documents within the domain selected (Krippendorff, 1980 & Bell, 1999, as cited in Al-Jardani, 2012). Accordingly, this study has selected the domain of SLA history from the 1950s to the present day world. I have gone through the documents and analyzed the contents related to the framework (three phases) designed to draw inferences.

Review and Analysis

This section reviews, analyses, and interprets the SLA diachronically in terms of three evolving phases like background, formative, and developmental.

Background Phase

Background phase prepares ground for the formation of notions and theories that underpin SLA as an insular discipline. This phase begins with behaviourism (basically a theory of psychology), which made a debut as a linguistic equivalent to structuralism and the behaviouristic view (Mitchell & Myles, 2004; Gass & Selinker, 2009; Saville-Troike, 2010; Gass, Behney & Plonsky, 2013). This view assumes that language is a set of habits and learning is to set the habits in the learners. This can also be called S-R-r model, in which a response to a stimuli is either strengthened or weakened by the absence or presence of reinforcement. For example, if a child is asked to recite the rules of the uses of the definite article 'the' and if he is promised to give a candy bar, he does the task. If the candy bar is given after his accomplishment, he continues his task, otherwise leaves it. For Mitchell and Myles's (2004) words, "The learning of any skill is seen as the formation of habits, that is, the creation of stimulus-response pairings, which become stronger with reinforcement" (pp. 30-31). Thus, language is considered a set of habits and learning as setting habits.

The contexts of native language acquisition (NLA) and second language acquisition (SLA) differ. The mind of NL learner is blank and therefore the learner sets a new habit by responding to the natural stimuli. However, the mind of SL learner is pre-occupied by a set of NL habits and to learn SL is to instill with another set of SL habits. NL, in this latter context can facilitate or inhibit in forming new habits. When similarities occur in NL and SL, the learner develops new SL habits as he did in NLA. However, in case

of differences, NL interferes in SLA. The notion of similarity and difference is conceptualized by the term 'language transfer' (Mitchell & Myles, 2004; Gass & Selinker, 2009; Saville-Troike, 2010; Gass, Behney & Plonsky, 2013), which is of two types such as positive and negative. The former case occurs when similarities occur whereas the latter occurs when discrepancies appear. For example, when Nepali learners of English learn nasal sounds like/m, n, ŋ/, they can easily learn. However, for them, learning labio-dentals like/f, v/ may impose difficulty as their sounds are bilabial in Nepali language. Thus, transfer theory has two pedagogical implications: (a) "Practice makes perfect", and (b) "Focus on [...] structures which were believed to be difficult" (Mitchell & Myles, 2004, pp. 32-33). This quotation confirms that SL language teachers should emphasize on the points of differences in teaching because they can be the causes of errors.

The notion of discrepancies-cause-difficulties was termed contrastive analysis (CA), which drew heavily on behaviourism as a psychological basis and structuralism as a linguistic foundation. CA hypothesis was pioneered by C. C. Fries (1945) and Robert Lado (1957). CA hypothesis, for them, has two components like linguistic (based on structuralism) and psychological (based on behaviourism). The CA hypothesis assumes learning a mechanical process and language transfer as a key notion of SLA. The conceptualizations of this hypothesis were blurred by Chomsky's (1957, & 1959) advent in the domain.

To substantiate the notion of behavior, Skinner published a book in 1957 entitled *Verbal Behaviour*. It was a coincidence that in the same year, Chomsky published a book Syntactic Structures, which laid foundation to mentalistic theories (Mitchell & Myles, 2004). Further, Chomsky published a review on Skinner's book in 1959 that was a critique (on the fundamental premise of behaviourism) on two grounds: (a) Creativity of language and (b) Plato's problem (Chomsky, 1987, as cited in Mitchell & Myles, 2004). The first criticism is that language learning is not so mechanical to acquire in a parrot-learning fashion; but it is a creative process in which rules are generalized. The evidence for this claim can be the irregular forms like *goed, *becomed, *writed, *runned, among others. Such ill-forms are not used by the competent speakers but the learners' forms are made by adding '-ed' in the base forms. Likewise, the second criticism is oriented towards a child language acquisition in which a child gets mastery over his NL in a short span of time. It is not less than a person (Hercules) who could hold a sky with a Finger (as mythology goes on). In Chomskyan terms, language is abstract rule-governed system which cannot be acquired only by imitating, repeating, memorizing and practicing. Had the learners not been equipped with their innate disposition to the principles and parameters of languages, NLA within a few years would not have been possible to acquire substantially. Chomsky's critique on Skinner's position, as a breakthrough in conceptualization of mental process of learning, gave a huge impetus to psycholinguistics, typically in NLA and SLA.

Formative Phase

Chomsky's revolutionary steps called for investigations in the domain of NLA, which were related to SLA. Mainly the empirical studies of Klima and Bellugi (1966), Slobin (1970), Cazden (1972) and Brown (1973), and the like gave a huge impetus to conclude that the order of NL acquisition is similar disregarding the learners' linguistic backgrounds (Mitchell & Myles, 2004). This notion of natural order has been justified by Ellis' (1994) exemplification, in which acquisition of negatives pass through these

three phases: external negation (e.g. no go out), internal negation (e.g. they no play), and finally negator attachment to modal auxiliaries (e.g. they can't play).

The findings in NLA research works in the 1970s showed the following characteristics (Mitchell & Myles, 2004, p. 37):

- Children go through stages
- These stages are very similar across children for a given language, although the rate at which individual children progress through them is highly variable
- These stages are similar across languages
- Child language is rule-governed and systematic and the rules created by the child do not necessarily correspond to adult ones
- Children are resistant to correction
- Children's processing capacity limits the number of rules they can apply at any one time, and they revert to earlier hypotheses when two or more rules compete.

These features of NLA support Chomsky's notion of innate endowment of internal mechanisms in language acquisition device (LAD) or universal grammar (UG), which is supposed to consist of underlying principles and parameters to construct surface structures of any natural language.

The findings in NLA, characterized above, gave a great stimulus to the SLA researchers. Further, CA predictions (similarity causes ease but difference causes difficulty) were proved faulty. In other words, the languages having similar constructions could pose difficulty and the different constructions could pose ease. The distraction to CA and NLA findings resulted in the emergence of Error Analysis (EA), which investigates SL learners' errors systematically. Corder (1967) was the first scholar to see learners' errors significantly and to recognize errors to be committed only by the SL learners. Since then, the concept of CA, which viewed SL errors as the result of NL interference, was refuted. In this connection, Ellis (1985) found variations in the findings ranging from 3% to 51% errors were caused due to first language interference. This implies that majority of SL learners' errors are not attributed to their native languages. This shows that there are other causes on the occurrence of the errors, like analogical creation, overgeneralization, and hyper-correction. Those causes are related to the SL system. In this way, EA was focused to study only the errors but not the features of those errors. To fill this gap, Selinker (1972) introduced a term Interlanguage (IL) to characterize the learner's language to be systematic, dynamic, and permeable (Ellis, 1992). IL, thus, is a distinctive learners' language which comes in between NL and SL (termed as interlanguage continuum). However, IL does not completely reflect either of them. It is like a pidgin in the background phases and a creole in later phases of the continuum. In this continuum, the learner is open to reform or modify his/her hypothesis he/she makes in the earlier stages. It is also systematic.

Empirically significant contributions were traced in morpheme order studies in the IL stage of the SL learners. Of them, the most important studies were of Brown (1973), Dulay and Burt (1973, 1975, & 1982), Bailey, Madden, and Krashen (1974); and, "thus, the 1970s witnessed a wealth of studies investigating development in second language learners that seemed to show convincingly that it is systematic, that is largely independent of the first language of the learner" (Mitchell & Myles, pp. 43-44). Thus, morpheme

order studies in the 1970s lay strong foundations to deduce the contemporary SL theories.

The first comprehensive model of SLA, developed by Krashen (although he has not mentioned it) in the early 1980s, is considered to be a point of departure for conceptualizing many issues raised in SLA. This pioneering work is termed as Krashen's Monitor Model, (Krashen, 1981, 1982, & 1985) which comprises five basic hypotheses that are delineated in the succeeding paragraphs. This model was criticized for incomprehensibility and its theoretical nature after its arrival. However, this is the first point of departure to theorize SLA and many subsequent theories (like Interaction and Output hypotheses) and models are its by-products. Thus, its detailed delineation is considered worth mentioning in the succeeding sub-sections

The Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis. This is Krashen's main hypothesis which distinguishes acquisition with learning. Acquisition is supposed to be a sub-conscious process of acquiring meaning as its focus. In the contrary, learning is a conscious process of learning form as its focus. Further, the former occurs in natural setting whereas the latter in formal setting. The detailed distinction between the two phenomena is illustrated in table 1.

Table 1

Distinction Between SLA and SLL

	SL Acquisition		SL Learning
1	Similar to first language acquisition.	1	Formal knowledge of language.
2	Knowing or picking up a language.	2	Knowing about a language.
3	Sub-conscious process.	3	Conscious process.
4	Implicit knowledge.	4	Explicit knowledge.
5	Formal teaching does not play any role.	5	There is significant role of formal teaching.
6	Occurs in natural setting.	6	Occurs in tutorial setting.
7	Acquired knowledge is located in the left hemisphere of the brain in language areas.	7	Learnt knowledge is located in the left hemisphere of the brain but not in language areas.
8	Focuses on meaning.		
9	Acquired knowledge initiates both production and comprehension.	8	Focuses on form.
		9	Learnt knowledge is available for use only by monitors.

Source: Krashen, 1982, p. 83

Table 1 exhibits that acquisition and learning are separate to each other entirely. Krashen (1982) has claimed that learning (learnt knowledge) can never be converted into acquisition (acquired knowledge). This claim is observed between these lines (Krashen, 1982, p.83):

- Sometimes there is acquisition without learning that is, some individuals have considerable competence in a second language but do not know very many rules consciously;
- There are cases where 'learning' becomes acquisition, that is, a person can know the rule and continue breaking it; and

- No one knows anywhere near all the rules.

Leaving out a few exceptions, learning cannot turn into acquisition. This is termed as "non-interface position" (Krashen, 1982, p. 83). This view is supported by Ellis (1985, p. 261) when he writes that acquired and learnt knowledge are separately stored, i.e., the former in left hemisphere and is available for automatic processing, whereas the latter is also stored in the same hemisphere but not necessarily in the language areas and is available only for controlled processing (which can be used only for use by monitor).

This hypothesis has been criticized on two grounds. The first is that conscious versus sub-conscious concepts/processes are vague, ambiguous and indistinguishable. The second ground is on non-interface position. However, many empirical studies have proved that because of rigorous practice, controlled processing can turn into automatic (McLaughlin, 1987). These limitations of this hypothesis reveal that Krashen's position is theoretical rather than empirical.

The Monitor Hypothesis. This hypothesis assumes that learnt knowledge monitors/edits the learners' language. In other words, learners' new knowledge checks and facilitates in modifying, justifying, falsifying or testifying their utterances created from acquired knowledge (Ellis, 1985). Hence, "The monitor is thought to alter the output of the acquired system before or after the utterance is actually written or spoken, but the utterance is initiated entirely by the acquired system" (Mclaughlin, 1987, p. 24). The claims are based on Krashen's (1985, p. 2) these views:

Our ability to produce utterances in another language comes from our acquired competence, from our subconscious knowledge. Learning, conscious knowledge, serves only as an editor, or monitor. We appeal to learning to make corrections, to change the output of the acquired system before we speak or write (or sometimes after we speak or write).

These words reveal that learnt knowledge monitors the utterances generated from acquired knowledge, albeit monitoring may occur before or after their production. However Krashen (1981, p. 3) has specified these three conditions for monitor to act: (a) there must be sufficient time with language users; (b)the focus is on forms, not on meaning; and (c) the users know the rule. Krashen (1981) has also presented a typology of learner differences, based on monitor users. Over-users are those who are very continuous of making mistakes; under-users are those who are reluctant to monitor their utterances; and moderate/optimal users use monitor only when it is appropriate and needed. The third types, who are moderate users, may use the monitor only in writing but may not use it in speech.

Like the acquisition-learning hypothesis, monitor hypothesis has also been criticized. For Mitchell and Myles (2004) and McLaughlin (1987), the monitor hypothesis has been criticized for untestifiability of its predictions and difficulty in identifying whether the learner is using acquired knowledge or learnt knowledge. Further, for Ellis (1985), monitoring is applied for syntactic structures only, although the learners can edit phonological, semantic, pragmatic and discoursal patterns, and this model cannot address the collaborative activity between the learner and his communicators which proves to be crucial in SL development. Moreover, the monitor hypothesis contradicts with acquisition-learning hypotheses. The latter separates the two and claims that learned knowledge cannot turn into acquired one. However, the former hypothesis assumes initial SL utterances are generated from the acquired competence, and the

learned knowledge monitors those utterances. This shows the relationship between acquisition and learning.

The Natural Order Hypothesis. Although unstated by Krashen himself, this hypothesis draws heavily on morpheme order studies conducted by Brown (1973), Dulay and Burt (1973, 1975 & 1975) and the like (cf. Mitchell & Myles, 2004). This hypothesis assumes that SLA takes place in a fixed order and hence it claims:

We acquire the rules of language in a predictable order, some rules trending to come early and others late. The order does not appear to be determined solely by formal simplicity and there is evidence that it is independent of the order in which rules are taught in language classes. (Krashen, 1985, p.1)

This quotation reveals that SL rules are acquired in a sequential order but this order cannot altered even by the way learners are taught in formal setting. This also shows that SL learners follow the same order of acquiring rules of a language in an invariant order regardless of the learners' age, NL backgrounds, exposure, context and the like.

As the other hypotheses, the natural order hypothesis has also been criticized for being "too strong" and "based almost exclusively on the morpheme order studies with their known methodological problems" (Mitchell & Myles, 2004, p. 47). Further, this hypothesis has been criticized for ignoring learner differences, roles of the learners' native language backgrounds and contextual factors that influence the SLA.

The Input Hypothesis. The Input Hypothesis draws on the natural order hypothesis as the later assumes the predictable order of acquisition that is possible only if input is intelligible to the learners. Krashen (1985) has claimed that "comprehensive input" (i+1) suffices second language acquisition (p. 2). This claim is reflected in these words:

Humans acquire language in only one way-by understanding messages, or by receiving 'comprehensive input' […]. We move from i, our current level, to i+1, the next level along the natural order, by understanding input containing i+1.

(Krashen, 1985, p. 2)

Thus, if and only if input is understood and is in the grasp of the learner, acquisition takes place despite the complexity of the language in question. Further assumptions have also been asserted by Krashen (1985): (a) Speaking is a result of acquisition and not its course; and (b) If input is understood and there is enough of it, the necessary grammar is automatically provided (p. 2). These claims reveal that the obligatory condition for SL acquisition is the learners' exposure to i+1 but not only i (which is too simple) nor can it be i+2/3/4 that becomes too complex and that breaks the natural order.

Like other hypotheses, the input hypothesis has been criticized for being ambiguous, too theoretical, and silent about the internal mechanisms of human brain where information is processed. Further, this hypothesis describes only about acquisition but not about learning.

The Affective Filter Hypothesis. Learners need to be exposed to comprehensible input for the occurrence of language acquisition. In other words, these should not be any obstruction, barrier, or inhibition to let the input in for language acquisition to take place. This barrier, in Krashen's (1985) term, is affective filter which blocks partially or wholly the input from entering into the language acquisition

device (LAD). At this juncture, these words are worth quoting:

> The Affective Filter Hypothesis captures the relationship between affective variables and the process of second language acquisition by positing that acquirers vary with respect to the strength or level of their affective filters. (Krashen ,1985, p. 31)

This entails that affective filters are determinants of low of more language acquisition. When the filter is strong/up/high, more input is blocked to be processed in LAD; and low acquisition takes place. On the contrary, when the filter is weak/down/low, input goes into the LAD directly, and more acquisition takes place. It is customary to note that affective variables comprise motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety that determine language acquisition. In this way, the filter influences in the rate/speed of acquisition but not its route.

As in the case of other theories, this hypothesis has also been criticized for being "vague and theoretical" (Mitchell & Myles, 2004, p.48). Actually, the conceptualization of affective filter and its functions are to be explored with empirical studies.

In a nutshell, Krashen's Monitor Model comprises five interrelated hypotheses, which are untested. Therefore, many theorists, in the domain of SLA, have come up with new theories while criticizing this model. Thus, Krashen's model, although untested (and required to be tested), has been proved to be a point of departure for second language theories.

The late 1970s saw the emergence of new models. One of them is Schumann's pidiginization or acculturation model which assumes that, "Second language acquisition was compared to the complexification of pidgins, and this process was linked to degree of acculturation of the learners" (Mitchell & Myles, 2004, p.49). This shows that early interlanguage is pidgin-like and it gradually becomes creole-like. If the acquirers are capable of acculturating to the target language community, they can be more successful SL learner; otherwise less successful (and their SL becomes more pidgin-like).

Developmental Phase

The third period is supposed to begin in the 1980s which drew heavily on the empirical findings of the 1970s. The research works in SLA domain and contributions of the other disciplines are attributing in the evolving series of the insular discipline of the SLA. Therefore, SLA has been an autonomous field of inquiry as it has a good wealth of theoretical underpinnings and empirical evidences to justify this claim. This claim is justified by the introduction of sociocultural theory, multidimensional model, processability theory, competition model, connectionism, constructivism, social constructivism, functional or pragmatic theories, and so on (Saville-Troike, 2010).

The research agendas of SLA, forwarded since the 1970s, revolve around these basic premises (Mitchell & Myles, 2004, p. 50-51): (a) The role of internal mechanisms; (b) The role of the first language; (c) The role of psychological variables; (d) The role of social and environmental factors; and (e) The role of input. The internal mechanisms are associated to Chomskyan view of compartmentalization that believes on the existence of LAD/UG in the left hemisphere and Piagetian unitary view that assumes language and the complicated other skills are acquired in the same process. These views are also related to investigate the

similarities and dissimilarities between NLA and SLA. The next research agenda of the day is to explore the phenomenon of language transfer. The third and the fourth agendas are to delve into the psychological, social, and environmental variables which count much in SLA. Finally, the role of input and interaction in SL development has been an issue for further exploration. As a result, SLA, now, has been a veritable gold mine for researchers and has been enriched with varying views, concepts, theories and perspectives like linguistic, sociolinguistic, socio-psychological, psycholinguistic, cognitive, neuro-psychological and functional/pragmatic, to mention a few. For this reason, SLA has been a house of many rooms now.

Conclusion and Implications

Second Language Acquisition has made its own space in the academia now. Its evolution can be traced in three phases like background, formative, and developmental. The first, i.e. background phase incorporates behaviourism, contrastive analysis hypothesis, and the critiques on the propositions of the first. The role of the first language transfer in second language acquisition is accepted, described and promoted by the behaviourists' theory to language learning, which was popular during the 1950s and the 1960s. The second, that is, formative phase subsumes Chomsky's revolutionary steps, error analysis, interlanguage theory, morpheme order studies, and the Krashen's monitor model. The Chomskyan revolution expanded and explained the role of mind to internalize the underlying universal features of language and to generate the noble utterances. The Chomskyan explanation of the role of mind was initially focused on the study of the first language acquisition and subsequently, on that of the second language acquisition. Similarly, the impact of SLA in psycholinguistics in the 1970s is another turn in the development of SLA as a distinct discipline. Out of the theories and models developed in the formative phase, the Krashen's model is significant as it opened up the avenues for further studies in SLA. The last, that is, developmental phase recounts various studies that have consolidated SLA as an independent discipline. The last phase includes from reactions of the Krashen's model to the latest perspectives like competition model, processability theory, connectionism, and constructivism, to mention but a few. In the recent decades from 1980s onwards, SLA has been developed as an autonomous field of inquiry supported by sociocultural, interlingual, cognitive, contextual and numerous other insightful perspectives. Therefore, SLA has settled itself as an independent discipline that has drawn heavily from adjacent fields of inquiry.

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Five Facets for Effective English Language Teaching

Nani Babu Ghimire

Abstract

Effective English language teaching (ELT) is strongly related to dynamic teachers and creative learners as it enhances students' long lasting learning process. Students learn the taught matters successfully if the classroom is handled effectively focusing on child centered pedagogy with the use of modern information communication technology (ICT). The objective of this paper is to look at the different facets for effective ELT and to give some pedagogical suggestions for English language teachers to increase the effectiveness in ELT. The articles/papers, researches and books written on effective ELT found in electronic sources are studied/overviewed the study. It shows that an effective ELT includes qualified, dynamic and devoted teachers with socio-affective skills, pedagogical and subject matter knowledge, active and creative students, use of sufficient and practical teaching learning materials, proper use of modern equipment and technology, and multiliteracy pedagogy focusing on the cultural diversity of the learners for better ELT.

Keywords: effective teachers and learners, modern information technology, multiliteracy pedagogy

Introduction

The concept of 'effective' is perceived and interpreted differently by various researchers in different fields such as education, medicine, science and law. In spite of different perceptions on effectiveness, what these fields agree that effective means being successful in producing a desired or intended result. Effectiveness also indicates that the degree to which objectives are achieved and the extent to which targeted problems are solved. Likewise, Sammons and Bakkum (2016, p. 11) asserted, "'Effectiveness' is a contested term that can evoke strong emotions because of its perceived links with notions of professional competency and high stakes accountability in some systems".

This is the era of globalization and English has been accepted as the lingua franca of the world. There is great influence of English on language teaching in all over the world. Consequently, there is a marvelous trend in learning English throughout the world. Many institutions and language schools offer various courses on English language learning to make English learners fluent in this language.

Teaching and learning foreign languages has always been an important part of the social life of people. Effective language teaching has become a prominent issue in the field of education as there has been a great demand on learning foreign languages throughout the world. Research has proven that the effective English language teaching has significant value in the foreign language learning. Without effective ELT, the learners cannot learn the language properly. Defining effective teaching, Acheson and Gall (2003, as cited in Uygun, 2013, p. 306) argued as:

> Effective teaching involves the ability to provide instruction that helps students to develop the knowledge, skills, and understandings intended by curriculum objectives, create an instructional climate that causes students to develop positive attitudes toward school and self, adjust instruction

so that all students learn, irrespective of their ability, ethnicity, or other characteristics, manage the classroom so that students are engaged in learning all or most of the time, make sound decisions and plans that maximize students' opportunity to learn, and respond to initiatives for curriculum change so that the new curriculum's intents are fully realized.

In an effective ELT classroom, students learn and demonstrate understanding of meanings rather than merely memorizing facts or events, place priority on reading because it affects success in other content areas and overall achievement gains, and students have higher achievement rates when the focus of instruction is on meaningful conceptualization, especially when it builds on and emphasizes their own knowledge of the world. Bell (2005) opined that it is hard to define effective ELT as it is a complex, multidimensional process that means different things to different people. Uygun, (2013) avowed that an effective English language teacher is the teacher who is clear and enthusiastic in teaching that provides learners with the grammatical (syntactical and morphological), lexical, phonological, pragmatic, and socio-cultural knowledge and interactive practice they need to communicate successfully in the target language. The students cannot learn efficiently if the teachers do not teach effectively. To teach successfully the teachers need to be aware on different facets for effective ELT. This paper examines the different facets that are needed to effective English language teaching through observing literature and analysing document.

Methodology

I have used the document analysis method in this paper since it is theoretical review-based article. Document analysis is a systematic procedure for reviewing or evaluating documents—both printed and electronic (computer-based and Internet-transmitted) material. Bowen (2009) stated that document analysis is a form of qualitative research in which documents are interpreted by the researcher to give voice and meaning around an assessment topic. Analyzing documents incorporates coding content into themes similar to how focus group or interview transcripts are analyzed. Like other analytical methods in qualitative research, document analysis requires that data be examined and interpreted in order to elicit meaning, gain understanding, and develop empirical knowledge (Corbin & Strauss, 2008).

The methods used for achieving the objective and the tasks of this article are analysis, synthesis, abstraction, induction, deduction and generalization. Mainly data are taken from secondary sources i.e. books, journals articles, dissertation and reports related to English language teaching using library methods visiting library and websites.

Reviews and Discussion

Gaining insights from literature review and my own experience as an English language teacher, I have made the five themes to discuss for the effective ELT by following document analysis method. These five themes are: a) effective and dynamic teachers, b) active and creative learners, c) effective use of teaching learning materials, d) appropriate use of modern information technology, and e) multiliteracy pedagogy in the classroom. These five themes are the major area that need to be considered for effective ELT in the classroom to develop competence as well as improve performance of the students in English.

Dynamic and Effective English Language Teachers

Reflecting on my own experiences in the field of teaching in Nepal I claim that the teachers should be appropriately qualified, carefully selected, and dedicated professionals, who have a wealth of knowledge, experience, and expertise. Dynamic English language teacher should have precise characteristics to achieve successful language teaching. Dincera, Goksub, Takkacc, and Yazicid (2013) argued that a dynamic English language teacher should have all aspects of a teacher including socio-affective skills, pedagogical knowledge, subject matter knowledge and personal qualities. They concluded that the socio-affective skills enable teachers to establish good rapport with their students as well as maintaining the process of education more effectively and successfully. Pedagogical knowledge of teacher supports him/her for providing students with an environment in which they can be relaxed in order to learn and produce well, guiding students, having the ability to organize, explain and clarify, as well as arousing and sustaining interest, motivating students, giving positive reinforcement, allocating more time to preparation and delivery, and teaching with effective classroom materials by integrating technology. Subject matter knowledge enables teacher to make use of audio-visual materials when possible, guide students to get some learning strategies, teach a topic in accordance with students' proficiency levels, and watch and inform students about their progress in language learning. The effective and dynamic teacher should have a sense of humor, be enthusiastic and creative, be tolerant, patient, kind, sensible and open-minded, flexible, optimistic, enthusiastic, having positive attitudes toward new ideas, and other personal characteristics. This review indicates that if the teacher has such characteristics, English language teaching will be effective.

Active and Creative Learners

An active and creative learner is closely related with successful learner who sets and accomplishes his own goals (Karen, 2001). According to Zamani and Ahangari (2016, p. 70), "Good teaching is clearly important to raising student achievement, if teacher is not aware of the learner's expectation and needs related to the course, it will have negative outcomes regarding the students' performance". Therefore, the teacher should make the students active and creative in course of teaching learning activities. In the same way, the students themselves should be active as well as creative to be smart learners of this era. TESOL International Association (2017, p. 4) has claimed;

> Students who actively take advantage of out-of-class study and practice opportunities will make much more long-term progress than students who consider them a chore to deal with as quickly as possible. Students who take responsibility for their own learning will not only improve their language skills more effectively throughout the course but have the agency and skills they need to continue studying after the course ends.

Making learners active and creative means engaging them with materials to work collaboratively with their friends making themselves responsible in the classroom activities. Instead of only listening and memorizing the contents, the learners demonstrate the project works, analyse arguments and try to apply learned concept into a real world situation themselves.

For effective ELT, Hasan, Othman and Majzub (2015) confirmed that active and creative learning

contributes more benefits to improve students; motivation, attitude, interest and self-esteem which can be used to improve their English language achievement and behavioural changes. Students like and enjoy English class very much because of the various activities provided in the English class. Talking about the importance of outdoor activities, Anderson (2018) opined that students who more actively engage outside the classroom in extracurricular or community activities cultivate friendships and interests which help with broadening language acquisition. The students enjoy in the outdoors activities such as sports, music and art that helps them to be active and creative in learning process. Thus, to make English language teaching effective one, the students should be active and creative to carry out the activities either in the classroom or outside. Active involvement of the students in the various types of language learning activities enable them to be creative which makes them able to learn English language effectively.

Effective Use of Teaching Learning Materials

Teaching learning materials are the sources that teacher use to deliver instruction in the classroom. Teaching learning materials are important because they can significantly increase student achievement by supporting student learning. Teaching materials can be found in different shapes and sizes, but they all have in common the ability to support students learning. From textbooks, videotapes, and pictures to the internet, teachers rely heavily on a diverse range of materials to support their teaching and their students' learning. The effectiveness of materials used for language teaching depends largely on how meaningful, relevant and motivating they are to the learners. Materials development implies the combination of both reasoning and artistic processes. In this respect, Low (cited in Johnson, 1989) states that "designing appropriate materials is not a science: it is a strange mixture of imagination, insight, and analytical reasoning" (p. 153). Pardo and Tellez (2009, p. 185) emphasized as:

> Effective materials make learners feel comfortable and confident because both the content and type of activities are perceived by them as significant and practical to their lives. However, the teaching materials by themselves are not sufficient to create effective teaching and learning settings since a lively EFL/ESL classroom depends largely on good materials used in creative and resourceful ways. Therefore, in the materials designed, language teachers need to lead their students to have materials interact appropriately with their needs and interests in order to facilitate learning.

Following Tomlinson (1998), these materials could be considered effective if they facilitate the learning of a language by increasing learners' knowledge, experience and understanding of it and, simultaneously, helping learners learn what they want and need to learn. In Nepal the students of different backgrounds such as educational, economic, cultural, social and mixed ability come in the classroom to learn English language. In this diverse situation to teach English, there is significant role of teaching materials in Nepal. Thus, in this regard, on the basis of my own practice in teaching English I conclude that the teacher should use teaching and learning materials paying attention on the backgrounds, ability, need and interest of the learners in the classroom. The teacher should involve the students in the activities with the help of the teaching learning materials. The students should work together collaboratively using teaching materials and they themselves become able to learn the contents. The teacher should only play the

role of facilitator by managing the classroom properly. In this context, Murray (1991) explained that the teacher seems to take the key role in facilitating the students' learning with the help of teaching learning materials and the such characteristics of the teacher may influence the students' learning process to some extents well. Such practice enhances the effective use of teaching learning materials among the students and English language teaching becomes effective.

Appropriate Use of Modern Information Technology (ICT)

The field of language education is ever changing because of the development of information and communication technology (ICT) in this era. Developments in ICT have become an integral part of our personal and social lives and also influence our professional career. Every sectors of our life is influenced by ICT. In the same way, English language teaching is also affected by the rapid growth in the use of ICT in Nepal. Without using ICT we cannot imagine to teach in the classroom. Wang (2007, p. 1) explained the importance of technology in learning as:

> Technology, as a powerful and convenient tool which can provide learners with a rich resource, a visual environment as well as an instructional platform, plays a vital role in language learning. Technology stimulates learning motivation through collaborative learning and it also improves learning efficiency by integrating classroom learning.

Likewise, talking about the significant of ICT in language learning, Mohammadi*,* Ghorbani, and Hamidi (2011, p. 467) concluded, "as the world progresses, the use of e-learning, electronic devices, internet, computers in teaching and learning process increases too and we have to synchronize ourselves with it and increase our abilities to be able to work with technologies to increase our knowledge". Zamani and Mohammadzadeh (2013, as cited in Golshana & Tafazolib, 2014) showed that most of students like online social networks and online social networks can be used to facilitate English language learning. Technology provides opportunities for interaction, allows for immediate feedback, increases learner autonomy, simulates real-life situations and experiences through video, audio, and graphics.

The use of ICT in the classroom has changed the roles of students and teachers. The role of the teacher is shifting from transmitter of knowledge to a facilitator of participants in the learning process together with the student. In the same vein, students should be more responsible for their own learning as they seek, find, synthesize, and share their knowledge with other peers. Regarding the appropriateness of ICT for effective ELT in the context of Nepal, Pun (2013, p. 29) concluded:

> The use of ICT in language teaching promotes students' motivation and learning interest in the English language. If students are too dependent on their mother tongue, they should be motivated to communicate with each other in English through the use of ICT. The utilization of ICT can fully improve the students' thinking and practical language skills and, thus, it can be used effectively in the English language teaching classrooms for non-native speakers of English in the context of Nepal.

Multiliteracy Pedagogy in the Classroom

In recent years, educators, researchers, policymakers and other educational stakeholders have been

engaged in an ongoing dialogue about the need for students to develop a broad repertoire of literacy practices that are not confined to traditional views of literacy and traditional approaches of literacy instruction (Rajendram, 2015, p. 1).The focus on language education in the 21st century is no longer on grammar, memorization, and learning from rote, but rather using language and cultural knowledge as a means to communicate and connect to others around the globe (Eaton, 2010). The New London Group (1996) has proposed the concept of multiliteracy , which views literacy as continual, supplemental, and enhancing or modifying established literacy teaching and learning rather than replacing traditional practices (Rowsell, Kosnik, & Beck, 2008 as cited in Benjamin, 2014). The integration of teaching multiliteracy has a potential to adopt new ideas and overcome the limitations of traditional learning approaches in the 21st century literacies.

Biswas (n. d.) expressed that multiple literacies imply multimodal ways of communication, which include communications between other languages, using language within different cultures, and an ability to understand technology and multimedia. Symbols, audios, videos, billboards, or emails/listserv, for example, are integrated to the social and education media. Moreover, students learn to collaborate by sharing their thoughts with others in online spaces where they can engage in different form or modes (texts, video, image, rhymes, and poetry) of learning processes. Consequently, we can expect students to become more confident and knowledgeable in their learning context through participatory and collaborative practices. Benjamin,(2014, p. 116) mentioned:

> The New London Group (1996) advocates for a multiliteracy pedagogy that includes four components: situated practice, overt instruction, critical framing and transformed practice. Situated practice draws on experience of meaning-making in specific contexts,. Overt instruction develops an explicit meta-language to support active interventions that scaffold student learning. Critical framing makes sense of situated practice and overt instruction by interpreting the social contexts and purposes related to meaning making. The goal is to enact transformed practice where students, as meaning makers, become designers themselves and not just consumers.

The multiliteracy pedagogy envisages teachers as facilitators in classrooms that are rich with student-mediated collaborative learning activities (McClay, 2006).Today's students must possess multiple literacy skills that can enable them to utilize the potential of the diverse modes of communication offered by new technologies (Chatel, 2002).Reflecting on my own experience teaching English in community school, I can say that the students who come from different linguistic backgrounds to study English in the classroom feel difficult to learn because of the medium of instruction. In this situation, the medium of instruction is English and they do not know it and also they are not allowed to use their native language in the classroom. Thus, they become poor in English, in this sense, if the teachers apply multiliteracy pedagogy by providing opportunity for them to use their own native language and the language of medium of instruction, they can learn English by sharing their ideas with other friends. Therefore, as Nepal is a multilingual and multicultural nation, multiliteracy pedagogy is very much important to make English language teaching effective to make the learners able to learn English.

Conclusion and Implications

The findings from the relevant studies indicate that for effective English language teaching at present era ,there should be effective and dynamic teachers, active and creative learners, effective use of teaching materials, appropriate use of modern information technology, and multiliteracy pedagogy in the language teaching process.

Regarding effective and dynamic teachers, the findings reveal that the effective language teacher should be enthusiastic to teach English, have good relationships with students, care students' needs about English and motivate students by creating autonomy supportive environments within which students can motivate themselves. According to the studies, active and creative learners can accomplish their own goals successfully. They work collaboratively with their friends making themselves responsible in the classroom as well as outdoor activities. Concerning the effective use of teaching learning materials the study reveals that effective materials make learners feel comfortable and confident because both the content and type of activities are perceived by them as significant and practical to their lives. The teaching learning materials could be considered effective if they facilitate the learning of a language by increasing learners' knowledge, experience and understanding of it.

As for the appropriate use of modern information technology, it is found that ICT stimulates learning motivation through collaborative learning and it also improves learning efficiency by integrating classroom learning. The use of ICT in language teaching promotes students' motivation and learning interest in the English language. The role of the teacher is changed from transmitter of knowledge to facilitator being a participant in the learning process with the student. Similarly, students should be more responsible for their own learning as they search for, discover, produce, and allocate their knowledge with their friends. Exploring the concept of multiliteracy pedagogy in the classroom in the context of Nepal, it is exposed that the integration of teaching multiliteracy as classroom pedagogy has a potential to adopt new ideas and overcome the limitations of traditional learning approaches. Multiliteracy implies multimodal ways of communication between the language of medium of instruction and the languages of the learners within different cultures along with an ability to understand technology and multimedia. In multiliteracy pedagogy students learn to collaborate by sharing their thoughts with others in online spaces where they can engage in different form or modes (texts, video, image, rhymes, and poetry) of learning processes.

Research pointed out that dynamic teachers, active and creative learners, effective use of teaching learning materials, appropriate use of modern information technology, and multiliteracy pedagogy in the classroom are necessary for effective English language teaching. In addition, many different studies' views about what constitutes an effective ELT mostly matched each other even though the degree of their agreement on the common factors is a bit different. Finally, the concept of an effective ELT consists of a balanced combination of above five main aspects. As the popularity of English is expanding day by day and worldwide, the teachers of English feel the need of change in their language teaching perceptive. To teach English language effectively in the classroom the teachers should be conscious to be familiar with the facets that are discussed in the article.

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Writing Skill: An Instructional Overview

Pitamber Gautam

Abstract

Writing skill is a product of ingenuity carved through knowledge, learning, creativity and intellectual uprightness. An individual with sound writing skills is regarded high in dignity and receives elevated opportunities everywhere in competitive examinations, job opportunities, promotions and social services. Regarding the discipline of teaching and learning a language, proficiency in writing skill deserves an irrelative significance. In spite of being an unsurmountably significant skill, numerous learners and pedagogues still seem to be bewildering for specifying the actual crux of theoretical knowledge and pedagogical procedures of writing in a compact document. In order to bridge up this goal, this study attempts to open some pertinent horizons in terms of its objectives, approaches, types, components and cannons for evaluation through document analysis method, a major component of qualitative research design. Fairly a large number of document based views, ideas, opinions, definitions, approaches and guidelines have been analyzed critically. Obviously, the resources covered in the review, results and discussion section would prove to be reliable sources for the prospective learners and researchers. The study concludes that the teachers and syllabus designers have to keep themselves up-to-date with process based current approaches, methods and techniques alongside their theoretical and practical foundations. The most noteworthy insight drawn is that there are not any specific methods and techniques comprehensive enough to capture all the facets of teaching writing skill. Therefore, the teacher has to select and implement the best ones from a wide range of methods and techniques eclectically by musing on the classroom stakeholders deeply.

Keywords: approach, process, product, stages, writing skill

Introduction

Writing is one of the four fundamental skills of language alongside listening, speaking, reading and writing. Writing skill assumes the highest order on a scale of hierarchy and develops only after the former three have been learned or acquired. This is the most pertinent reason why it is globally termed as the secondary skill. As a secondary skill, it is not perceived so prominently by laymen; nevertheless educated elites and scholastic mass regard it as an emblem of knowledge, intelligence and educationally upright personality. Most of the educational systems across the world attribute advanced writing skill as a vital means and end of formal education regardless of level, discipline and mode of learning (White, 1986). On the basis of this view, it can be claimed that writing skill bears a pivotal role beyond peoples' usual comprehension.

Proficiency in writing skill is essential for every university student, teacher, researcher and freelance writer. All these jobs require advanced skills since their expertise is judged through the quality of writing. Such institutions tend to prefer how they write to what they write for information. Therefore,

writing is dealt as the skill which contributes immensely for the overall advancement of learning endeavours. Regarding this, white (1986, p. 18) writes, "Because writing is a way of learning, you can actually achieve deeper insights into any subject by writing out your thoughts." Speaking and writing, though being related skills, the proficiency level maintained in one cannot be expected to obviously translate into another on the part of any individual. Reinforcing such a claim, Hardaway and Hardaway (1978) note that people who have no difficulty in talking often freeze when they have to write and vice-versa. A teacher has to realize the crux of these realistic standpoints and pave the possible convenient ways especially for overcoming specially the writing induced problems.

Writing is frequently attributed as the most complex skill of language. This is perhaps due to some inherent difficulties bound to be faced by every novice writer. Even the highly professional writers might come across similar complexities in their initial drafts. Focusing on the very notion, Hilton and Hyder (1992, p. 7) state, "Writing requires greater precision and care than speech as it is a more formal act of producing a permanent record. When we speak, we gauge our listeners' response and instantly clarify if any points which have not been comprehended. As no such interactions take place in a piece of writing, our communication skills have to be unambiguous." At this point, they plead for clarity, conciseness, exactitude and appropriacy if effectiveness is to be maintained in writing. In the same line of ideation, Hardaway (1978, p. 9) sums up this fact as "Because writing is permanent, it should be better organized and easier to understand than the speech." Having gone through these views, undoubtedly it is revealed that writing is the most complex and more vital skill demanding for a specific treatment during the teaching and learning process.

As writing plays a pivotal role in academic activities, there should be concrete knowledge about the general concept of writing, the approaches, methods and techniques of teaching writing, types of writing, roles of teacher, cannons of evaluation, etc. But, only a few documents available in the global market seem to incorporate all these components comprehensively together. Writing skill bears a significant role in each and every domain of human interest. The academic field of teaching and learning a language cannot remain unaffected from the degrees of writing proficiency. Regarding this view, Reid (1993) argues that writing skill possesses an invaluable importance for the sake of enabling students to understand how the distinct components of a language harmoniously act together. This argument indicates that students can achieve their goals of attaining overall linguistic proficiency only through a proper development of writing skill. Nevertheless, writing skill has long been standing as a poignant problem among the teachers, students, academic articles and research reports have been published on this topic, however, the students, teachers and syllabus designers fall in a state of dilemma about whether this or that way to adopt for teaching and learning the writing skill efficiently. As a professional university teacher, I myself find many students getting puzzled when they actually have to write something new even in the post-graduate level. As I go through books and articles, I often find the documents either too long, hazy and disharmonized or too scanty, insufficient and unfocused to the actual classroom procedures. Hardly, any documents available in the global sources seem to incorporate the approaches, methods and techniques of teaching writing, types of writing roles of teacher, canons of evaluation and the corresponding theoretical and empirical

backgrounds. These aspects of writing skill are underpinned as the research gaps which this proposed study intends to fulfill by presenting a comprehensive picture of knowledge in a single document.

Therefore, this article attempts to carry out an in-depth study of writing skill primarily by focusing on the teaching learning issues. This study seems to be more significant as well as relevant in the recent context of English medium instruction movement in both the public and private academia. This study will obviously be able to bridge up the existing gaps by offering a comprehensive resource for both theoretical and procedural knowledge on teaching and learning the writing skill. In order to fulfill these objectives, the writer plans to analyze relevant theoretical and empirical literature under document analysis method. The insights explored through this study will be instrumental for minimizing writing related complexities being faced by teachers, students, syllabus designers and policy makers.

Methodology

In order to achieve the specified goal, I employed document analysis method as one of the vital components of qualitative research approach. Document analysis is such a design which demands for the analysis of various documents related to the research issue or phenomenon. The selected documents are often studied critically for exploring needed information. Regarding this, Bowen (2009) concedes that document analysis method combs through a wide range of related literature to explore required inferences from authentically verified sources. This is a research conducted by relying on secondary sources of information with an aim of adding to the common body of knowledge. Moreover, stressing on the significance of document analysis, method, O'Leary (2014) writes that documents provide intensive data making document analysis, a useful and beneficial method for most researches. They provide background information and broad coverage of data for contextualizing the proposed research within the specified scope or field. Therefore, this research is entirely based on secondary sources obtaining information, from other researchers' books and articles. As a secondary research, this study has analysed and interpreted the documents of instructing writing skill by setting up some parameters as; objectives, approaches, types, components, roles of teacher and cannons for evaluation.

Reviews, Results and Discussion

Writing as a productive skill demands the simultaneous psycho-physical (between brain and limbs) co-ordination on the part of a writer. Beyond the role of physical organs, several studies carried out in this field have pointed out that there remains a dominant decisive role of mental factor in the quality of a writing task (Rajkumar, 2013). Asserting to this view, Oxford (1990) indicate that writing is a thinking process which demands intellectual effort sustained over a significantly long period of time. Similarly, stressing on the cognitive dimension of writing skill, Zamel (1983) views it as a process through which writers explore their thoughts, ideas and knowledge with an objective of constructing meaning in the form of a graphological reflection. Here, special emphasis is placed on the contents and meaning than the formal outlook.

In the same stream of thought, Daniels (1996) opines that writing is the representation of actual oral utterances using relatively permanent graphic symbols. Similarly, Sampon (1985) introduces writing

as the process of representing spoken utterances by employing permanent visible marks (as cited in Rajkumar, 2013, p. 56). Pursuing similar view, Lado (1971) expresses that writing refers to the graphic representation of spoken language where the messages are conveyed through written medium. And, the written documents can be read back flexibly as well as recursively over extended period of time.

Stressing on the ground reality, Roger (2001) pleads for the inadequacies of any single definition on writing and claims that there is no single definition comprehensive enough to accommodate all the characteristic features (as cited in Rajkumar, 2013, p. 56). Nor can we expect anyone to incorporate such multitudes of features underlying a vast discipline within the boundary of a single definition. It reveals that the most suitable approach to understand about writing skill is resorting to the eclectic view that accepts a huge range of features in an open continuum. Due to being open, a person feels free to add, delete or modify them as per their need, interest and convenience.

Objectives of Writing Skill

Writing as a complex productive skill requires a number of psycho-physical activities and their internally congruent co-ordination. In order to specify such underlying procedures, many researchers have carried out different studies from numerous positions and angles and proposed distinctly vibrant suggestions for pinpointing the objectives of writing skill. In this pretext, Rajkumar (2013) provides us with a broader framework, now fleshed in, of the abilities supposed to inculcate in a writer as given below:

- To transcribe the internally generated ideas (from cognition) or externally expressed notions (from reading and hearing) by employing conventional graphic symbols.
- To maintain a co-ordination between mental ideas generated internally or incited externally and hand-fingers with a mediation established by the nervous system.
- To express thoughts, ideas, beliefs and knowledge as per learning and intuition.
- To bring out self-reflection about personal events, experiences and lived life (autobiography).
- To organize series of ideas, information, messages and facts in a logical order (into topic, subtopics, paragraphs and units).
- To keep up spiral maturity expanding to the use of vocabulary, spelling, sentence structures, grammatical rules and organization during different levels of learning.
- To give information, entertainment, persuasion and arguments.
- To respond to literary texts through book review, report writing, critical appreciation, article writing.

(Rajkumar, 2013, p. 56)

The objectives discussed above incorporate almost all the major aspects of writing. If these objectives could be established well by students, teachers and syllabus designers, they will certainly guide them to specify the most suitable strategies and methods for academic upliftment. These objectives are equally significant in the Nepalese context of learning English as a foreign language. Basically, the language teachers would better consider these objectives and specify the best ones as per the need, level and interest of the students. Further, the specified objectives would better be told to the students as well, so that their

learning activities could be focused on the desired objectives.

Approaches to Teaching Writing

Writing is sometimes defined as a motor-mechanical skill by comparing it with the physical skills like swimming, dancing and riding a bicycle (Lado, 1964). However, reality behind learning writing skill and other physical skills is not exactly the same as claimed here (Harmer, 2008). There have been several studies carried out along the diachronic development of language teaching curricula. Often approaches and methods of language teaching are succinctly influenced by the contemporary linguistic as well as psychological theories. A set of approaches had been prevalent during the vogue of behaviouristic psychology and structural linguistics before the 1960s. But, then onwards, there started a domineering movement of cognitive psychology and functional linguistics whose reflections are clearly visible in the recent pedagogy of language and linguistics (Brown, 1994). Being one of the major components of linguistic pedagogy, writing cannot remain unaffected from these psychological and linguistic movements, nor could it remain in the past. In this backdrop, Rajkumar (2013) has proposed a number of approaches for teaching writing skill, though all of them may not be perceived to bear equal degree of gravity for teaching writing skill. They are:

Controlled-to-free approach. This approach is based on the assumption that learners must be taught to write something in the order of simple to complex principle. There the teacher is advised to provide certain key sentences composed in distinct structures. The students do copying at first and gradually they are led to more and more complex tasks and finally reach at the stage of composing a whole paragraph. The higher the control, the lesser are the mistakes and errors committed. Having got the level of maturity uplifted, students may be involved in writing compositions freely (Rajkumar, 2013).

This approach entails that writing should be taught craft fully in the controlled framework at first to the early grade students and gradually led to free writing activities proportionately with their level of maturity. The basic tenet of this approach seems to be practical as well as scientific.

The free writing approach. This approach of writing lays special emphasis on being able to construct free compositions. Here, the learners are suggested to focus on fluent expression of contents rather than clinging to strict grammaticality, mechanics and linguistic accuracy (Rajkumar, 2013). Instead, these shaded aspects do not seem so serious to impair the conveyance of communicative messages. Further, they are supposed automatically getting to improvement in the succeeding phases of writing practice. Here, what is more pertinent are the contents which carry up almost whole of the expected meaning. Due to its focus on fluency more than accuracy and mechanics, this approach can also be termed as speed-up approach.

This approach of writing focuses on fluent writing for meaning rather than on the grammatical accuracy and structural mechanics. It implicitly guides for paying less attention to grammar and technicalities if the teachers intend to speed up writing skill. But, actual practices at schools and colleges are frequently seen that teachers use red marks in students' minor mistakes throughout the pages and unknowingly impede over their fluency in writing.

The paragraph pattern approach. This approach basically stresses on organization instead of maintaining grammatical accuracy and content fluency. Here, the learners are expected to unscramble sentences out of scrambled words. Similarly, disordered sentences are to be arranged properly to composed a paragraph. Likewise, haphazardly provided paragraphs have to be properly arranged to compose a fully sensible essay or text. Somewhere, they are suggested to supply the best title as well (Rajkumar, 2013).

The basic construct functioning behind this approach of writing is that individual learners have their idiosyncratic preferences and practices to perceive a phenomenon in question. Anything that comes as an output from an individual is and should be accredited as idiosyncrasy, the natural process for creativity and innovation. But, actual practices seem such that many teachers fully ignore the organizational features even at higher levels of teaching writing.

The communicative approach. This approach of writing lays special emphasis on the communicative goal of writing. As a matter of fact, writing is the graphic representation of spoken language and it is fundamentally geared to various forms of communication. For this reason, the writer should be filled with a keen feeling of actual communication by keeping the prospective readers abreast in mind. Here, the writer has to formulate a complete mind mapping of the concerned factors like readers, topic, purpose, context, message, possible obstacles and expected impressions in the targeted audience. By and large, information gap activities involving pair work, group work, role play, dramatization, jigsaw writing etc. should be utilized for strengthening their communicative writing (Rajkumar, 2013).

This approach stresses on the various communicative abilities through writing. For example, students may write letter, memorandum, e-mail, SMS, report, etc. for conveying certain messages. The writers are supposed to consider the factors like topic, context, audience, possible noises, etc. and write the text. These communicative purposes can only be achieved through communicative activities like group work, pair work, role play, information gap activities in writing. The teachers have to realize the essence of such activities and involve the students in concerned related tasks.

The product approach. The product approach to teaching writing skill primarily focuses on the finished product. Here, the learners do not strive for getting through the various consecutive processes during their learning endeavor. Regarding this, Nunan (1999) writes that this approach lays heavier emphasis on the final product which is expected to be a coherent, error-free text where the students have to copy and transform the models provided by the textbooks or teachers. As per the implication of this approach, the students are expected to make an optimum modeling for practice with the help of all the resources that are recommended or supplied to them. Such carefully devised resources or materials would be available for them in the form of substitution tables, gap filling exercises, paragraph/essay models and outlines, tips for parallel writing, etc. Conversely, the contents (what aspects) and organisations (how aspects) are almost neglected or slightly touched despite their immense role for a complete writing (Tickoo, 2007).

This approach of teaching writing seems to be lagging behind to recognize the fact-how to write well is an arduous and strugglesome process. Referring to some of the drawbacks of product based approach of teaching writing, Murray (1980) states that modeling is the heart of this approach and consequently

their heavier involvement in modeling tasks prevents them from fostering, spontaneity reasoning and creativity. Following the same stream of arguments, Escholz points out that the product based approach encourages the learners to follow one and the same plan in different settings, apply the same guidelines regardless of content diversities thereby inhibiting the writers rather than empowering or liberating them. He further adds that selected model are presented integratedly with the practice exercises so as to ensure better efficiency in writing through the modeling of style, vocabulary organization and structure (as cited in Saeidi & Sahebkheir, 2011, p. 3). This approach is widely used in formal education perhaps by reason of being time saving approach. Moreover, this approach is easier to implement in the class. It doesn't demand much professionalism and training in the part of teacher, as well.

The process approach. As signalled by the title of this approach, it focuses on the internal procedures in reverse to the product approach. The fundamental tenet of this approach is that good writing should be logical, creative, recursive experimental and open-ended. Most of these activities are executed in the classroom as a laboratory. The cognitive role is set to premium than the affective and kinesthetic skills on the part of the learners (Rajkumar, 2003). Perhaps by asserting to the various procedural and psychological facets of the process approach, many educators seem to be backing up this with their own arguments in the recent days. Regarding the basic procedural patterns of teaching writing under this approach, Tickoo (2007, p. 64) instructs to choose and understand the topic, gather information, organize thoughts, compose, content, collect feedback, do revision and finally publish the finished product.

In the same line of ideation, Hadfield and Hadfield (2011, p. 120) illustrate process writing by dividing the activities into several steps; as to:

- Brainstorm ideas about what to write.
- Choose ideas and group them under suitable headings.
- Order the ideas and plan the structures as introduction, arguments for, arguments against, conclusion.
- Write notes to expand each idea later on.
- Write a first rough version of the draft.
- Get it checked by other learners for feedback.
- Edit it (by reading further resources, rewriting and correcting).

(Hadfield & Hadfield, 2011, p. 120)

Similarly Tribble (1996, as cited in Harmer, 2008, p. 323) mentions the stages of writing process as: drafting, reviewing, redrafting, rewriting and getting published. These stages are passed through in a recursive way by looping backwards and moving forwards or criss-cross in appropriate contexts.

Likewise, Tickoo (2007, p. 64) mentions that writing is best viewed as a three stage process.

Stage 1: Pre-writing

This is the preparatory phase of writing process. Here, the writers are involved in the selection of topic, contemplation on related ideas, gathering information, judging their appropriacy, and preparing a mental framework of the possible construction. Generally, an experienced writer proceeds through all or

some of the following steps under this stage.

- Reading some relevant documents like essay, article, story, charts, figures, reports, etc. for collecting basic level information on the topic.
- Discussing about the topic/question with a peer or in a group.
- Brainstorming about the topic either individually or in pairs or groups and collecting as many ideas as they come to mind.
- Searching ideas from additional sources of knowledge to gather new facts and interpretations.
- Drawing help from teacher's clues and guidance.

(Tickoo, 2007, p. 64)

Stage 2: Writing Different Drafts

At this stage of writing process, first, the writer prepares different drafts one after another by joining, modifying and reforming the ideas and information collected in the first stage. Most often this stage appears to be hazy and frustrating because of being bewildered on what to include in which order and what not in the alternate. As the writing process moves ahead concretely, only then the ideas get to look like focused composition. Yet, the written text may not look more than a rough first draft (Tickoo, 2007, p. 64).

Stage 3: Revising and Editing for Publication

As the writer pursues a number of drafts and their serial editing, the writing gradually starts gaining clarity and unity. The most prominent thing at this stage is that he should be ready to add, remove, change and reconstruct the drafts. Not only the correction of words, structures and syntax, he should be ready to do resetting, rearranging and replacement of a whole chunk of the text. It is a stage of intensive editing where deeper and careful proofreading appears as an essential component. To a greater extent, nowadays, technological tools like computer may assist in editing with the help of scientifically devised software applications (Tickoo, 2007, pp. 64-65).

The process approach of writing is founded on the assumption that nothing can be gained as an end unless people adopt the suitable means. For this, this approach exerts heavier emphasis on the underlying processes and strategies adopted by teachers and learners. The processes proposed by different scholars and writers seem to be similar in general though they look different in particular terminologies. These processes seem substantially similar. Most of the writers and methodologists are found to have divided writing into three to five stage procedures including almost the same writing activities in those steps. Among others, the three stage processes proposed by Tickoo seem to be highly inclusive. Elsewhere, the same three stages are found to have been termed as 'pre→while→post' for teaching other skills and aspects as well. These divisions are really helpful for pedagogical practices providing that they are executed properly. The teachers and syllabus designers have to bear these stages into mind and devise their contents by fragmenting them to suit at each of these stages.

The genre approach. Different writers may have different needs and purposes behind writing. Versatile pedagogues and writers suggest that it is worthwhile to look at writing under broad categories as per the domain it is written for (Tickoo, 2007). Obviously, the writers pay due regards to the basic

parameters while writing for a particular text type or genre. For example, prose and poetry are the two broad genres of literature where the language organization and physical outlook of a poem never resembles with that of a prose, say a drama. Similarly, the genre of advertisement is written in a different style and rhetoric than that of students' essays. Therefore, the teacher has to identify the defining features of the language used in each genre and provide the students with the knowledge of these features. Having been familiar with the genre specific features, the students in due course would certainly be able to assess how far those genre specific features have been obeyed and incorporated in their writing. In this way, this approach enables the writers to address the presumptions and expectations of the readers belonging to a particular genre. Hence, it can be inferred that communicative features, organizational structures, linguistic features and vocabulary selection are essential components for the formation of a genre, consequently to genre based writing as well (Rajkumar, 2013).

We know that the term genre refers to a specific field or branch of knowledge within a subject. Obviously, writing is distinct for different genres. Specialized skills in different genres cannot be achieved by any writer at the same time. Therefore, the teachers require preparing procedures, parameters and contents of necessary genres and carrying out teaching learning activities in the well-focused forms. This approach seems more useful for higher order professionalism in every field which demands for written documents.

Types of Writing

Writing as the higher order productive skill does include various types according to modes of writing. These types of writing can also be termed as a process of purposive writing. Such writings are highly reflective to topic, purpose, time, audience, context, genre, etc. Smalzer (2014) and Tickoo (2007) mention the following six major types of writing.

Descriptive writing. This type of writing describes some object, people, events, processes, institutions, arguments, etc. The writers usually produce such types of essays as per their lived experiences. There is no room left for personal intuitions or prejudices in this type of writing (Smalzer, 2014, p. 45).

Narrative writing. As hinted by the topic itself, this type of writing narrates or reports about the chosen topic. The more congruing topics for this could be stories, autobiographies, science fiction, events and issues of the distant or recent past, etc. The writer tries to keep up with the chronological order in the entire copy of writing. It should be organized in the natural essence so as to provide a real-like feeling while going through it (Smalzer, 2014, p. 45).

Expository writing. This type of writing strives to expose a subject/issue out for audiences' information. Generally, a topic of novelty, curiosity and wonder is selected and ample information are provided to quench the thirst of knowledge and curiosity for the readers. The overall exposition whatever is made in the writing should possess a tone of brilliance capable enough to hold the audience into convenient faith (Tickoo, 2007, p. 67).

Argumentative writing. This type of writing is full of opinions and argumentation on the given topic. By and large, some conflicting or argumentative topics are supposed to be more appropriate for this

type of writing. For example, which one is the first of egg and hen? What is mightier-pen or sword? Should the provision of death penalty brought into action?, etc. The basic tenet behind argumentative writing is to convince the readers with the strength of arguments, logics and retained stance. Howsoever, the logics and proofs set forth may not bear global validity (Tickoo, 2007, p. 67).

Reflective writing. This type of writing is basically personal in nature. The individual writer mostly takes up bygone events, issues or experiences and carries out redemption on the pros and cons deeply. Such a writing illustrates the present position of the writer either confirming to or confronting against the subject compared to the past views and standpoints. Regardless of the audiences' assertion and dissertion, there must be the reflection of writer's originality in writing. Some of the more appropriate topics could be like:

- I did better by not joining the army.
- Why could the mystery of royal massacre not be solved?

(Tickoo, 2007, p. 67)

Persuasive writing. The root objective of this type of writing is to exert a forceful pressure on the part of the readers. Here, the writer pursues such techniques that the readers are forcibly drawn to believe in what have been said by the writer. Basically, this type of writing comprises the topics related to political thought, advertisements, institutional brouchers, legal documentation, diplomatic dialogues, etc. (Tickoo, 2007). A powerful persuasive writing possesses the capability of changing the preoccupied minds of the audience and leading them to assert on what the writer has just expressed in the text (Tickoo, 2007, p. 67).

These above discussed types of writing prove that there are different types of writing such as descriptive, narrative, persuasive, expository, paraorthographic, etc. All these types bear specified significance in distinct genres and topics. It is an accepted truth that the same type of writing does not seem to be suitable to different topics, genres and subjects. For instance, scientific report is written in descriptive style while accident report in narrative tone. Nevertheless, it would be fairly difficult to draw a demarcation line between or among the types of writing. This is because could be more possibilities of internal overlapping among them (Smalzer, 2014). Often the matter of selecting a particular type of writing is highly conditioned by the writer's personal interest, topic, audience and context. Therefore, the teacher has to acknowledge all these logical arguments and instruct the students accordingly. He has to suggest them to adopt one or another type of writing by being responsive to the immediate context. Still, the early grade writers with low writing proficiency would better be hinted by the teacher unless they become sure for which type to pursue. Ironically, the textbooks and teachers of Nepal seem to be dormant regarding these types of writing up to the school level.

The Components (Subskills) of Writing

Writing, as one of the four major skills, incorporates a number of subskills. The theory of segregated learning of language ascribes most for part to whole learning. Obviously, there are quite a lot of merits of this approach to learning. With regard to teaching writing skill, Sobana (2003, as cited in Rajkumar, 2013, p. 58) mentions the following subskills to be considered while writing something in

general.

- Mechanics: handwriting, spelling and punctuation
- Organization: topic, introduction, body paragraphs, coherence, cohesion, textual conclusion
- Syntax: sentence structures, sentence boundaries, style of sentence construction, sentential arrangements, etc.
- Grammar: word class appropriation, rules of subject-verb agreement, use of correct tense, gender, case, appropriate use of article, preposition and conjunctions
- Content: choice of vocabulary, relevance, originality, clarity, logicality, sufficiency
- Writing process: brainstorming, noting down ideative points, drafting, editing, revising and preparing the final copy for publication.

Having been established as a well-developed skill of language, writing has been able to assume the status of a separate discipline of knowledge. So, it consists of a large number of different major and minor components which are also known as subskills of writing. The components like mechanics, grammar, syntax, organization, etc. mentioned here are very important properties of writing skill. Therefore, the teachers have to instill the knowledge about each of them and instruct the suitable techniques for bringing them into actual use while writing. However, the teachers would better introduce these components stepwise, so far integratedly, without letting them feel burdened of learning. But conversely most of the English teachers of Nepal (probably elsewhere also) do not seem to have familiarized the students with such components especially at school level. The reason behind it still remains as a question for study.

Guiding Stages for Writing Development

As the teacher involves the students in writing activities, the teachers are suggested to consider the following three sequential stages to get along for achieving the expected goals. These stages have been proposed by Tickoo (2007) and Hadfield and Hadfield (2008) as the crux of several theoretical as well as pragmatic research findings. These stages can also be termed as the master stages in general perspective. Regarding this pretext, Tickoo (2007, p. 78) offers a list of them as:

Stage I: Controlled Practice (CP)

This is the initial stage for writing development. The students who are taking immatured steps in learning to write are supposed to be highly benefitted from controlled activities. At this point, there will be fewer chances for getting to write wrong answers. The teacher provides them with the carefully chosen subject matters to bind them into the expected right track followed by encouragement and necessary control. Students can be involved in a wide range of activities as illustrated below.

- Copying: It is simply for habit formation. Here, the teacher writes some basic words and sentences on the board which they have to without any modifications.
- Dictation: This stage is mainly for keeping a proper co-ordination between ears and fingers. Simple words, phrases and sentences are dictated by the teacher which the students have to put down in their notebook.
- Transforming sentences: These activities are conducted mainly for strengthening their

grammatical and operational knowledge like negation, passivization, narration, affirmation, etc.

- Combining words and sentences: This is a bit higher order activity in the scale of complexity. Here, the students are suggested to combine a few scrambled words to form sentences or simple sentences to construct compound and complex sentences.

- Constructing sentences: This is the activity applied to provide them a little experience of taking personal decisions freely. Here, the teacher provides them some sets of scattered words by combining which they need to prepare sensible sentences.

- Unscrambling sentences: This is the process of ordering scrambled sentences together so as to construct a logically ordered meaningful paragraph.

- Dicto composition: This is such an activity that either the teacher dictates a text or plays an audio cassette which the students have to list and write about the provided text in their exercise book by capturing everything as far as possible.

- Cloze passage: This is a specialized sort of completion task. Here, the teacher provides them a text with deleted words on a regular interval of every nth (5th, 6th or 7th) word. The learners have to identify the most appropriate words and supply them in properly to make the cloze passage complete. (Tickoo, 2007)

Stage II: Directed Practice (DP)

This is a step higher stage than the controlled practice. The fundamental notion behind maintaining such a gradual ladder of teaching writing is leading them to higher degree of independence. However, it should be so tactful that the learners should not get frustrated with the designed tasks. This sort of self-assurance can be fostered in students by selecting and designing the activities in the practically scientific manner. Further, the teacher needs to provide adequate guidance at necessary steps. Some of the most suitable directed activities could be as given below.

- Pictures and prompts: The teacher presents a set of related pictures on a theme serially suitable enough to construct an eventful occasion or story. Thereafter, the learners are asked to write the message conveyed by the pictures. The teacher would design varying scores to each of the students by analyzing their level of creativity and ingenuity.

- Questioning as prompts: Here, the teacher provides them some guiding questions which the students have to answer and submit to the teacher. But, the degree of complexity should be of moderate level allowing them to write something best or better.

- Listen and write: Here, the teacher involves them in a listening task. After listening to the story or description, the students, first of all, have to take notes and later on develop them into a complete texts or stories.

- Composing with outlines: This is such an activity that the students have to develop the provided outlines into a complete written text. If necessary, the teacher does assist them at difficult points.

- Writing summary: This is also a purely creative activity where the students need to write a summary to one third of the original text. In reality, more experienced writers possess the skill of expressing

long texts into precisely reduced form than that of the initial practitioners.

- Answering questionnaires: In order to conduct this activity, the students are provided with a set of questions which demand short, simple and familiar information in response. For example:

What's your name?

Where do you live?

What does your father do?

Why are you coming to school?

Such questions would delimit the areas to move within. The students cannot cross the designed limits of knowledge and activities.

- Writing with model: This is such a practice that the students are provided with a model exercise orally or in written form. Having gone through the model, the students have to write another similar text without direct copying. The teacher frequently instructs them at needy steps to keep them within the specified periphery.

- Writing compositional parts: Here the students have to write different parts of a composition such as that of an essay. If so some students have to write introductory paragraphs, some have to write body paragraphs and some others will have to write conclusions after reading the presented introduction and body paragraphs. At last, all those parts are organized back properly allowing them to produce several distinct sets of composition on the given topic(s). Finally, the students will be suggested to read and compare what they have prepared with that of the other friends or groups. (Tickoo, 2007)

Stage III: Free Writing (FR)

It is the third stage of writing development where the students are gradually led from controlled free to completely free writing endeavours. In the outset of this level of writing, the teacher may provide them with topic, key words or phrases, slight oral instructions, reference sources to unbolt impediments, etc. Having developed an expected level of maturity and confidence, the students are left fully independent for writing on any kind of topics that are demanded by the context. During this time, there are not any sort of restrictions in the choice of vocabulary, structures and styles. They feel a complete freedom about how to convey meaning on a topic to the target groups. Hence, this is the highest order ability expected to develop in an academician or professional writer.

These three stages discussed above are based on a broader framework. The controlled practice, directed practice and free writing have been arranged sequentially. Each of the three broad stages incorporates distinct sets of activities under them. The first stage involves basic level activities to form a foundation. The teacher's role is involving them in controlled activities. Such activities should be chosen after selection and gradation as per the learners' need, level and interest. The second stage 'directed practice' includes such activities that they have to do the provided tasks independently by remaining under the teacher's close supervision. It includes a bit higher order activities than the former stage. The third stage is free writing stage where the teacher's role seems to be only that of a distant supervisor and manger. All

the activities are initiated, conducted and refined by the students themselves. Yet, attaining this level of proficiency requires elongated practice taken up in a tireless manner. The optimum level of success in free writing can be reached only by passing through constant revision, rewriting, taking readers' feedback and self judgement of the text's impact upon the targeted readers.

In this way, these stages guide the teachers for selecting the contents and involving the students into appropriate activities for writing development. The students of school and undergraduate levels need to be involved in the first two stage practices while the graduate and post graduate level students can directly be involved in the third stage i.e. free writing activities on the basis of their level of maturity. These stages seem to have a scientific order of teaching principles from simple activities to complex ones. Therefore, every teacher requires to execute these stages into practice regardless of the nature and types of topics or contents for teaching writing skill. If these stages are implemented appropriately, they may lessen the effects of other conflicts like, product vs. process, communicative vs. structural, teacher oriented vs. students oriented, etc.

Characteristics of a Good Writing

Writing is a creative and conscious outflow of ideas through mental ingenuity of a person. All the people involved in writing cannot attest themselves as a proficient writer in the forefront of competitive arena. In order to bridge up this requirement, a writer needs to incorporate the following qualities in a piece of writing. (Rajkumar, 2013):

- Illustration: The writer has to elucidate the meaning, dimensions and purpose of the topic to make the writing highly informative.
- Order: A piece of writing cannot be precisely excellent unless the dimensions raised are genuinely ordered. If the issues raised in intersentential or interparagraphic level are abrupt, it spoils the overall semanticity of the text. Therefore, every piece of writing under a specific topic must have genuine orders leading to translate logical meaning in the readers.
- Relevance: A well written text must contain only such materials which are directly related to the title.
- Simplicity: A good writer always maintains simplicity in his writing. Unnecessary verbosity and bombastic language would merely result in confusion in the readers.
- Completeness: Anything stated or issue raised in writing must be complete for meaning within itself. If some prominent points or ideas are missed out, it would certainly impair the smooth delivery of meaning. For this, the writers have to pay a special attention to maintain comprehensiveness in their written works.
- Accuracy: Any ideas that the writer writes should be based on facts, truths and reality trustworthy to the readers. There should not be anything put down on the basis of fantasy or personal whim.

As the teachers and other concerned authorities involve in evaluating some written texts, they try to assess all these qualities. The professional writers can be highly benefitted by paying due regards to the above mentioned characteristics. Although some of the referred qualities lack in a piece of writing,

it could be tolerable to some extent provided that the expected meaning is transmitted to the targeted readers. Modern methodologists tend to place heavier emphasis on meaning than on other components. Still, many of the teachers trained in traditional framework of structural linguistics seem to be emphasizing on structural accuracy and mechanics more than meaning conveyance.

The Roles of a Teacher

A teacher is supposed to be the key source of all the teaching learning activities. It is the teacher who decides about how to initiate, proliferate and translate the academic activities into resultative conclusion. Regarding the role of teacher in writing development, Harmer (2008) specifically recommends the following three major roles beside the other usual roles assigned to an ideal teacher.

- Motivator: In fact, teacher is a generic motivator by profession. Learning to write is almost impossible without receiving constant motivation from the teacher. Basically, the teacher offers motivational activities to students for generating ideas, pursuing necessary tasks, remaining active, searching required sources, fulfilling noticeable gaps, etc. Only then, the students' diversified range of capabilities can be involved in achieving expected level of writing proficiency.

- Resource person: As a matter of fact, students are hardly ever skillful in writing activities. Further, they lack most of the basic resources required to equip themselves for strengthening their writing skill. In such a context, as is the existing scenario of Nepalese schools, the teacher has to assume the role of an all-round resource person. As such, his roles are providing self-assurance, assessing their progress and achievements, offering guidance and counseling, dealing with their problems tactfully, providing them with virtual as well as physical resources, acting as a participating monitor, etc. In a nutshell, the teacher has to carry out the role of an unfading resource person to handle all the ends, means and manners.

- Feedback provider: The teacher is such a person that he has to employ both formative and summative evaluations in the class. Process oriented writing approach, being the cry of the day, especially focuses on formative steps required on the part of the teacher. Consequently, the teacher has to provide corrections and feedbacks from time to time in the most positive and inciting manner. The written works have to be moderated by using different techniques so as to render intended feedbacks to the students. Nevertheless, the feedbacks should not distract or divert them away from writing endeavor, as a factor of inhibition and distortion.

The aforementioned three are the major roles expected from a teacher though there might be many other roles mentioned in the literature of applied linguistics. Obviously, it is the teacher who has the responsibility of developing and controlling the quality of students' writing. Many stakeholders of formal education do not seem to have been aware of these roles in the context of Nepal. Therefore, the English teachers need to be professionally trained and experienced to translate these stated roles into actual practice.

Factors to be Considered for Teaching Writing

It is a commonly accepted truth that the teachers, students and syllabus designers do have a great inquisitiveness regarding the basic factors to be considered for the teaching and learning of writing skill.

For this, Harmer (2008, p. 326) suggests time, environment, motivation, knowledge strategies, technology and assessment as the key aspects worthy of consideration while teaching writing. However, many teachers seem to be indifferent towards paying due considerations to each these factors in balanced ways. This could be a major reason for why our students perceive writing as the most complex skill.

Cannons for Evaluating Students' Writing

Evaluation is an unceasing process just like gaining education. A good teacher has to employ some key cannons for evaluating their written texts. Despite of having no common consensus on how to evaluate a written text, most of the teachers and professional writers attempt to seek answers to the following queries as suggested by Grahm (2008):

- Have all the related ideas been precisely presented and fully developed in the text?
- Have all the contents been organized in logical progression?
- Are the wordings and structuring sufficient enough to convey the literal meaning?
- Have the structures been varied enough to maintain fluency, tone and desired rhetoric?
- Does the text bear a fair degree of vigour to exert expected outcomes?
- Is the text free of spelling and punctuational errors?
- Is the written text eligible and attractive?

The cannons for evaluating a written piece of work discussed above provide a broad guideline for the teachers. They may prepare a rating scale with categories like very good, good, satisfactory, poor and very poor. These criteria help to detect an overall picture of qualities maintained in a written text. Beside these criteria, the worth of someone's writing is being broadly judged by personal impression of the teachers and other freelance/professional examiners.

Conclusion and Implications

This study explored some theoretical as well as pedagogical contents through document analysis method on writing skill from instructional point of views. The main objective was facilitating the teachers, students and syllabus designers by overcoming the pedagogical hurdles which arise by reason of insufficient verified theoretical and procedural literature. This study, though being a small scale, is expected to become significant on the move of adding to the immense body of ELT literature. As a widely perceived complex skill everything in writing must be expressed by using vocabulary, grammar, structure and organization unlike spoken skill, the first productive skill of language. Therefore, this study was conducted by dividing the issue/question into six major topical themes as objectives, approaches, types, components, roles of teacher and cannons for evaluation. At a broader level, this study explored that writing has the objective of translating mental reflections into graphic symbols meaningfully. For this, gradiently designed process based approaches and methods are a must. Regarding the types of writing, which type to choose is a matter determined by several immediate factors. So the teachers need to make the learners aware and skilled with all the stated types. With regard to components, writing skill incorporates content, grammar mechanics and organization which are worthy of consideration in all sorts of writing. As with teacher's roles, every teacher should not lag behind from assuming the roles of a motivator, resource person and

feedback provider at the minimum level. Finally for evaluation, it was concluded that the teacher has to set up some evaluation schemes mainly on communicative orientation and evaluate the written texts with due considerations to level-wise objectives, use of vocabulary, conveyance of meaning and structural accuracy. As it was a small scale knowledge oriented theoretical study, several limitations of time, labour, resources and procedural aptness were competing alongside. Some large and small scale researches are still necessary ahead especially in Nepalese context for pedagogical proliferation of this crucial language skill. Nevertheless, this study would act as an epitome to arouse a keen curiosity and awareness towards the vast realm of EFL pedagogy.

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Postmethod Pedagogy in Teaching English as a Foreign Language: Students' Perceptions

Rajan Kumar Kandel

Abstract

The study deals with the background context of postmethod pedagogy (PMP henceforth), a context-sensitive and critically practical pedagogy, differentiating it from the traditional concept of teaching by adhering strictly to a particular method of teaching a foreign language (the English language here) with reference to Nepal. It aims to explore the perception and inclination of M. Phil. pursuing students towards PMP in EFL teaching in Nepal. Google form of a questionnaire consisting of closed-ended items was used to collect data from 81 (of whom 65replied) M. Phil. pursuing (in English Education) scholars from Nepal Open University and Tribhuvan University. It revealed the gradual shift of ELT practitioners of Nepal from method-based instruction to PMP along with the intents of parameters of PMP, called pedagogy of particularity that advocates context-sensitivity in teaching and learning, pedagogy of practicality that insists for practicality and teacher-generated theories (theory of practice), and pedagogy of possibility that elicits the critical consciousness of the practitioners in terms of their socio-cultural context with adequate illustration. It was found that M. Phil. pursuing students had a positive attitude and supportive perception towards PMP leading to local and contextual superiority in pedagogy over the afforded methods although the local may be the hybrid of many foreign methods leading to an eclectic method.

Keywords: context-sensitivity, particularity, possibility, practicality

Introduction

Method is a plan for the orderly presentation of language skill and subject matter to be taught in the classroom. Richards and Rodgers define a method as "an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language materials, no parts of which contradicts and all of which is based upon the selected approach" (2005, p. 19). The method is the level at which theory is put into practice and at which choices are made about the particular skills to be taught and the content to be presented although what the teachers actually perform in the classroom differs from the theorists' advocacy (Kumaravadivelu, 2008). Nevertheless, a method is a route of teaching language in a systematic way. A method serves as a link between the theory and practice of language teaching. It is procedural in the sense that it tells us about the ways or procedures of language teaching in a systematic way. In this regard, Harmer (2007) states that a teacher can perform various roles to help the learners to learn language sometimes being democratic and sometimes being autocratic. Teaching language requires a method as a guideline for the teacher. The method may have been suggested by the researchers and theorists or it may have been discovered by the teacher him/herself out of his/her practice. The latter one is what suggested in post method pedagogy.

However, no easy and quick method is guaranteed to provide success because all language teaching methods assume that what teachers do in the classroom is already determinined (Brown, 2001, p. 15).

This is because every learner is unique, every teacher is unique, and every learner and teacher relationship is unique wherever and whenever they exist. So, no perfect and ever suitable teaching method can be guaranteed to be used everywhere and for a long period of time. One method does not suit all due to many reasons. To run the teaching and learning activities smoothly, teachers need to be context-sensitive, innovative, and autonomous. In this regard, Kumaravadivlu (2008) advocates to fundamentally restructure our view of language teaching following one particular method tailored to be used in a particular context by certain methodologists guided by certain beliefs. Instead, he advocates for the emergence of PMP out of the multiple inflated images and myths of the methods, namely: there is the best method out there ready and waiting to be discovered; method constitutes the organizing principles for language teaching; method has a universal and ahistorical value; theorists can conceive knowledge, and teachers consume knowledge; method is neutral, and has no ideological motivation (2008, pp. 163–167) .

ELT practitioners in Nepal also ran head over heels without being critical to such misconceptions and the myths in support of the so-called methods for long. The methods suggested by the theorists were assumed as the universal ideological motivation equally applicable in our context. But at present, the practitioners have immensely realized the hegemony of the methods as a fox in tiger clothing. Very often they, are just white elephants because of not being able to address the practical contexts of the students, teachers, and educational institutions. They could not be equally applicable in our politico-economic context. So, the teachers, teacher trainers, and university graduates in the related field and in the ELT scenario of Nepal also aspire for the contextual method to be applied in their context. In many of the cases, we can observe that the teachers are even trying mixed-methods yielding into eclecticism. This depicts that the ELT practitioners in Nepal have also grown as the advocates of PMP. It is the matter of the fact that the post method is a new attempt in the era of methodology in our context. PMP emphasizes practical and contextual teaching through classroom context-sensitive activities. It deals with students and teachers that emphasizes situational socio-cultural, political and pedagogical context. In this line, the main objective of this study was to explore the perception, perspectives, opinions, and inclination of the M. Phil pursuing students from Nepal Open University and Tribhuvan University, Nepal towards the use of PMP in English language teaching in Nepal.

PMP does not mean that the practitioners should ignore the principles, assumptions, recommendations and procedures of established approaches, methods or theories (Kumaravadivelu, 2008). Rather, it suggests the practitioners adapt and innovate the best and the most appropriate method that is suitable for a specific context. Innovative practitioners in Nepal are also inclined to this line of thought at present.

Postmethod Practitioners: Nepali Scenario

In the EFL context of Nepal, the learners and the teachers have to be loyal to their socio-political, and cultural sensitivity. They should be encouraged not to lose their identities in the cost of learning (and teaching) English. Their native cultures, languages, identities, and social integrity should be mutually benefitted through L2 education. Teaching and learning of English should work as a catalyst for identity formation and social transformation (Kumaravadivelu, 2001) in Nepali context. The role of the education

practitioners in Nepal is supposed to be revised and renewed in PMP out of the "monolithic matrix of methods" (Kumaravadivelu, 2001, p. 545) in the present socio-political era.

PMP seeks to make the learners autonomous to their learning. This is urgently required in Nepali context taking charge of their learning themselves unlike learning whatever is prescribed as better for them like in the traditional methods. PMP advocates for the wider view of learning rather than just learning to learn on the part of the learners. Learner autonomy is further specified as academic autonomy- learners being ready and able to take charge of their own learning to be effective learners, social autonomy- learners being ready to function cooperative members of a classroom community to be collaborative partners, and liberatory autonomy- learners being ready to recognize sociopolitical impediments (overt like political oppression or subtle like discrimination of any sorts) and raise voice against such impediments being critical thinkers (Kumaravadivelu, 2001). Such autonomous learners are the cry of the day in Nepal.

Similar to the learners, the post method pedagogy considers the teachers as autonomous. Postmethod teacher autonomy requires confident and competent teachers who "want to build and implement their own theory of practice that is responsive to the particularities of their educational contexts and receptive to the possibilities of their sociopolitical conditions" (Kumaravadivelu, 2001, p. 548). Postmethod teachers own the pluralistic view of methods. They choose from among many methods to create their own blend and use it in their practice instead of following only a method and its techniques as the rule of the thumb which is said to be an eclectic practice (Larshen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011) or an eclectic method of teaching.

As suggested in PMP, Nepali English language teachers' prior knowledge as well as their potential to know not only how to teach English in Nepali context but also know how to act autonomously within the academic and administrative constraints imposed by institutions, curricula, and textbooks should be explored and brought into synergic praxis. The autonomy of Nepali English teachers and their praxis could promote their ability to know how to develop a reflective approach out of their own Nepali practice and how to analyze and evaluate their own teaching activities.

Traditionally, most models of teacher education are designed to spread a set of the preselected and pre-sequenced body of information from the teacher educator to the potential teachers. This is basically a top-down approach in which teacher educators convey their skills and knowledge to the trainee teachers (Kumaravadivelu, 2008). The task of post method teacher educator is to create a condition for potential teachers to acquire autonomy that enables them to reflect on and shape their own pedagogical experiences. The training to the teachers must be dialogic respecting the knowledge and experiences of the trainee teachers. To quote Kumaravadivelu, "A postmethod teacher education program must take into account the importance of recognizing teachers' voices and visions, the imperatives of developing their critical capabilities, and the prudence of achieving both of these through a dialogic construction of meaning" (2001, p. 552).

In Nepali context also such postmodern teacher educators who respect the feelings, experiences and understandings of the teachers are increasing in number. Many of them have realized that knowledge should be negotiated between the teachers and the students, and the teachers and the teacher educators.

The educators should encourage the teachers to think critically and shape and reshape their knowledge out of their practices in collaboration with their learners. To support such pedagogical paradigms, it is an emerging task to explore the inclinations, perceptions, perspectives, and understanding of the M. Phil. pursuing students under the stream of education in the universities of Nepal because they are the potential teachers, teacher trainers, and ELT professionals at the policy, practice and further research levels.

Review of Literature

In reviewing the literature in this section, the conceptual and theoretical review of the literature has been discussed at first followed by the discussions and understandings of pedagogic parameters of PMP in ELT pedagogy in Nepal. Then, the studies in the area in Nepal have been reviewed indicating the gap in research justifying the need for this study.

The concept of the method is a century-old obsession (Brown, 2002). It cannot work equally forever with heterogeneous students throughout the globe. PMP has emerged to make the teaching of English free from any sorts of method based restrictions (Chen, 2014) celebrating the death of the methods. Method based pedagogy confines us to follow the directions prescribed. It "authorizes theorizers to centralize pedagogic decision-making" (Kumravadivelu, 2003, p. 32) but PMP lets us go elsewhere and overcome the restrictions of method-based pedagogy. PMP encourages practitioners to produce location-specific, classroom-oriented innovative practices.

Theory-neutral and method-neutral but not atheoretical and methodless macrostrategies like: maximize learning opportunities, minimize perceptual mismatches (between intention and interpretation of the learner, the teacher, and teacher educator), facilitate negotiated interaction, promote learner autonomy, foster language awareness, activate intuitive heuristic (provide rich textual data and let students infer and internalize rules), contextualize linguistic input, integrate language skills, ensure social relevance, and raise cultural consciousness (Kumravadivelu, 2003, pp. 39–40) are suggested to the practitioners to implement the PMP appropriately at their respective contexts. PMP seeks for democratic, critical, and emancipatory learning. It is democratic and autonomous both to the students and teachers. It is also related to the science-research conception of teaching where the inexperienced teachers "gain experience, they can then modify and adapt these initial theories of teaching, moving toward the more interpretive views of teaching implicit in theory-philosophy conceptions"(Richards, 2002, p. 25).

Based on the arguments put forward above, eight main aspects of PMP following Scholl (2017, p. 99), can best summarize this short paper, viz. the parameter of particularity is the primary maxim, adherence to the parameter of practicality is moderate, the parameter of possibility is an aspect which is context-dependent, PMP is learner-centred, PMP defaults moderately toward an experimental strategy, PMP defaults moderately toward a cross-lingual strategy, PMP defaults to a central configuration on the implicit -explicit continuum, and communicative competence is a tenant of PMP.

PMP suggests for the localized and context-sensitive methods of teaching despite blind belief and practice of the long-discovered methods at the foreign land enforced by certain foreign ideological contexts. PMP is a three-dimensional (three-D) system comprising of three pedagogical parameters

(Kumaravadivelu, 2001). These three pedagogic parameters, viz. pedagogy of particularity, pedagogy of practicality, and pedagogy of possibility are shortly described herewith as the constitutive features of post method pedagogy and their relevancy in English language teaching context in Nepal.

Particularity means the pedagogy has to be context-sensitive to the local linguistic, socio-cultural, and political context of the place where the teaching takes place. To illustrate it, Kumaravadivelu mentions that a post method pedagogy, "must be sensitive to a particular group of teachers teaching a particular group of learners pursuing a particular set of goals within a particular institutional context embedded in a particular socio-cultural milieu" (2001, p. 538). All the teaching approaches, principles, theories, and methods are highly abstract and very difficult to implement in all contexts. To enhance the learning activities in an easier way, the innovation in L_2 teaching and learning constricted with a holistic interpretation of particular situations is known as a pedagogy of particularity. Thus, to address the particular issues of the particular situation an innovative set of procedures are discovered and used. We need to have situational understandings as well as local linguistic, socio-cultural and political particularities in our teachings.

Nepali pedagogy, like Nepali politics, is local. Local is always fresh, intimate, and hygienic (Phyak, 2011) either this be a product, food item or a pedagogy. The methods inherited from abroad (Kumaravadivelu, 2001), cannot be equally applicable in our context due to the diverse context and needs of our students, teachers, parents, teacher educators, educational institutions, and the concerned authorities. Thus, the pedagogic parameter of particularity (of the PMP) is one of the most important constitutive features of PMP in L2 education in Nepal since Nepal is a politically, socially, culturally, topographically, and linguistically diverse country. Even within Nepal, the only domestic method cannot be used equally well due to this heterogeneity, let alone the so-called imported methods.

Practicality mainly refers to the relationship between theory and practice. The theories must emerge from practice. The teachers are the real practitioners of teaching. So, the teaching methods must originate from the teachers' practice by enabling the teachers to construct their own theory of practice (Kumaravadivelu, 2001). Pedagogy of practicality includes teacher autonomy and teacher professional development with a principal focus on reflective teaching and action research. To justify about practicality parameter, Kumaravadivelu states:

The parameter of practicality, then, focuses on teachers' reflection and action, which are also based on their insights and intuition. Through prior and ongoing experience with learning and teaching, teachers gather an unexplained and sometimes unexplainable awareness of what constitutes good teaching. (2008, p. 173)

Practicality believes that no theory of practice is useful and useable unless it is practical. This is equally applicable in Nepali context because a lot of pedagogic practices, development models, economic, and political systems afforded from outside have either failed or turned impractical. Following pedagogy of practicality, it is the time for searching teacher-generated theories out of their practice in Nepal. Such theories developed by the teachers could be the nativized and local theories likely to be practiced in their respective birthplace/context.

Pedagogy of possibility of PMP following the works of the Brazilian educator Paulo Frere, and

such other transformative critical thinkers, stresses the importance of acknowledging the students' and teachers' identity along with the broader social, economic, and political context in which they grow (Kumaravadivelu, 2008). It encourages learners to be free from the cultural imperialism of the second language. It is concerned with sociopolitical reality and individual identity of the participants and the practitioners of the PMP. In this regard, Kumaravadivelu (2001, p. 543) mentions:

In the process of sensitizing itself to the prevailing sociopolitical reality, a pedagogy of possibility is also concerned with individual identity. More than any other educational enterprise, language education provides its participants with challenges and opportunities for a continual quest for subjectivity and self-identity.

In this way, PMP leads the teachers and learners to encourage for contextual selection and academic, socio-political, and liberatory autonomy in teaching and learning.

Based on the above-mentioned theoretical perspectives and pedagogic parameters, many studies have been carried out in the field of second or foreign language pedagogy. Paudel (2018) carried out a phenomenological descriptive study taking the sample of 12 teachers from Pokhara to find out teachers' perception towards PMP and found out that the teachers own positive attitude and reported that no method could be imposed upon assuming it as universal, best, or natural. The study reported that the teachers were hopeful to implement self-generated context-sensitive method to fit in the context of the students. The West-generated methods in the monolingual context cannot work well in our multilingual and multicultural context. However, the study is confined to eliciting the in-depth opinion of in-service teachers. Studies carried out in Nepal along with this study have yet to discover the perceptions and perspectives of pre-service teachers and teacher trainers towards PMP.

Methodology

The perception of students pursuing M. Phil. Degree under the Faculty of Education from Tribhuvan University and Nepal Open University (Who are the potential teachers and teacher trainers of the country being exposed to the exciting and innovative methods of teaching and learning including carrying out the researches), towards PMP has been depicted through the four philosophical perspectives, viz. ontology, epistemology, axiology, and methodology. Based on the ontological perspective, it was supposed that respondents' perceptions can be derived through closed-ended survey questions including the Likert Scale questions since reality is out there in the social world, can be obtained through trends, attitudes, or opinions (Creswell, 2014). The research was based on the positivist paradigm ontologically following a single reality. Epistemologically, the study aimed to collect their perceptions towards PMP (knowledge) from sense experiences, and demonstrable, objective facts collected first hand leading towards empirical epistemology (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). To ensure the objectivity of the data, validity and reliability of the research instruments was measured while piloting the instruments. The axiology behind the study was guided by the four criteria of ethical conduct, namely, teleology- the theory of morality which ensures the meaningful outcome of the research that will satisfy as many people as possible yielding more benefits to them than harm, deontology- the understanding that it intends to benefit all as a whole, morality- the

intrinsic moral values to be followed in the research, and fairness- being fair to all the research participants respecting their rights (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). Methodologically, the study followed the quantitative method, through a cross-sectional survey of the participants at the field. The data were collected to test the hypothesis and deduce the result/finding out of the analysis and interpretation of the data. The deductive approach was used to verify the quantitatively collected data.

Quantitative and non-experimental survey research design was used making it a cross-sectional survey design where the data were collected at one point in time (Creswell, 2012). The data were collected from the respondents scattered throughout Nepal who were pursuing their M. Phil. from two renowned universities of Nepal called Tribhuvan University and Nepal Open University. Out of the students studying in the first semester of their M. Phil. Degree from Nepal Open University and Tribhuvan University under the English Education Stream, sixty-five of them who replied the Google form sent to them duly filled (out of eighty-one respondents selected conveniently to whom the questionnaire in the Google form was sent) were the sample of the study. The detailed description of the population demography of the sample is presented in Table 1.

The respondents were contacted personally through phone calls and email with the help of the records of the universities. The academic area to be explored through the study was the beliefs, opinions, perceptions, and perspectives of the M. Phil. pursuing students towards PMP.

The research was mainly based on the primary data collected through a set of Google form of a questionnaire (Attached in a separate file herewith) consisting of the opinion seeking closed-ended questions as the instrument for collecting data. It included of seven informative questions including their sex, age, academic qualification, the university from where they earned their Master's Degree, their teaching experience, institution they were currently teaching at, and their ICT competency besides their name and email address and four sets of different closed-ended research. Set A included five statements with 'Yes' or 'No' responses, Set B consisted of five-point Likert Scale type of items with 'Strongly Agree (5)' to 'Strongly Disagree (1)' options, Set C comprised of five items with 'Always', 'Often', 'Sometimes', 'Rarely', and 'Never'; and Set D consisted of five items to be reflected against any one of; 'Untrue for me (1)', 'Slightly untrue for me(2)', 'Neutral (3)', 'Slightly true for me (4)', or 'True for me (5)' alternatives. The researcher mailed the Google form along with necessary instructions to the respondents for completing (filling up) the Google form both through the mail and their cell numbers. The form was collected back in the mail inbox after they duly filled up them reflecting their opinions against the alternatives. Then, the collected data were codified to insert into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS 23) software and then descriptive and inferential analysis were carried out to show the relationship among the variables in the study. Visual graphic representation and the tabulation of the result were made to make it more comprehensible and systematic to test the hypothesis and come to the conclusion.

Table 1

Population Demography of the Sample

S.N.	Indicators		Frequency	Percent
1.	*Sex*	Female	12	18.5
		Male	53	81.5
2.	*Age (years)*	25 – 30	12	18.5
		31 – 35	28	43.1
		36 – 40	19	29.2
		≥ 41	6	9.2
3.	Academic qualification	M. Ed.	51	78.5
		M. A.	7	10.8
		Both	5	7.7
		Other	2	3.1
4.	*Institution from where Master's Degree is earned*	Tribhuvan University	60	92.3
		Other Universities of Nepal	4	6.2
		Universities abroad	1	1.5
5.	*Teaching experience at any level (years)*	≤ 5	9	13.8
		6 – 10	18	27.7
		11 – 15	30	46.2
		16-20	5	7.7
		≥ 21	3	4.6
6.	*Institution teaching at*	School	20	30.8
		College	29	44.6
		Both	15	23.1
		Other	1	1.5
7.	*ICT competency*	ICT illiterate	1	1.5
		ICT literate	15	23.1
		Basic ICT skill	44	67.7
		Advanced ICT skill	5	7.7

To ensure the validity and reliability of the research instrument the researcher piloted the questionnaire to ten of the students and reliability was calculated statistically using SPSS software. Further, the content validity, construct validity, and criterion-related validity of the items were measured in collaboration

with the colleagues, instructors, and the expert. The items of the questionnaire in the Google form were revised on the basis of the piloting feedback obtained. To maintain ethical consideration, informed consent was granted by informing the participants about the study and the tools were administered only after the permission was granted from them. The information given by the respondents was kept anonymous and confidential.

Results and Discussion

The result obtained from the data has been presented and discussed as per four different sets of the questions comprising of five items each in a set as follows:

Five items asked to collect their perception regarding the activities they think that should take place in the classroom were replied as follows by the participants (from between two alternatives; yes and no):

Table 2

Respondents' Opinion Regarding the Basic Aspects of PMP

S. N.	Item Statement		Frequency	Percent
1.	Students should be encouraged to take part in contextual activities in the classroom.	Yes	65	100.0
2.	I consider social and political issues while teaching in the classroom that are related to students' context.	Yes	57	87.7
		No	8	12.3
3.	I encourage learners through activities that interest them.	Yes	64	98.5
		No	1	1.5
4.	I respect cultural and cross-cultural differences of the students in the classroom.	Yes	63	96.9
		No	2	3.1
5.	I follow one particular method strictly while teaching.	Yes	3	4.6
		No	62	95.4

Table 2 depicts that all the participants believed that students should be encouraged to take parts in the contextual activities in the classroom. So, most of them (87.7%) considered socio-political issues related to the students while teaching but 12.3% of them viewed that they did not notice it. All most all (98.5%) responded that they encouraged the students with the activities that interest their students. Most of them (96.9%) reported that they respected cultural and cross-cultural differences of the students. Only 4.6% of the respondents said that they followed on a particular method strictly while teaching but rest of them (95.4%) did not reflecting their implicit inclination in favor of PMP.

One of the questions asked to the respondents, for example, has been illustrated in figure 1:
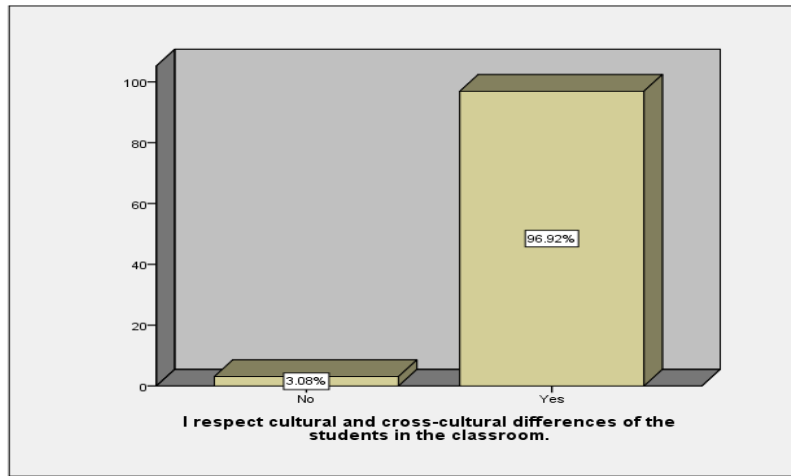
Figure 1. Respondents' response of respecting students' cultural differences. `

Figure 1 illustrates that a huge majority of the respondents respected cultural and cross-cultural differences of the students in the classroom while only 3.08% of them did not.

Five statement items to check against the five points Likert Scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree was included in set B. The statistics of the responses of the respondents displayed the following statistics as shown in table 3.

Table 3

Statistic of the Respondents' Agreement Towards PMP

Statistic	1. PMP provides autonomy to the teachers and students.	2. PMP ignores other methods of teaching.	3. Teachers should not follow a certain method in their classes.	4. Teachers should be sensitive to socio-politico-economic and educational environment.	5. Teachers are resourceful enough to produce their own teaching methods.
N Valid	65	65	65	65	65
Missing	0	0	0	0	0
Mean	4.062	2.262	3.723	4.431	4.062
Std. Deviation	1.1974	1.3725	1.3751	1.1588	1.1302
Skewness	-1.249	.706	-.856	-2.220	-1.196
Std. Error of Skewness	.297	.297	.297	.297	.297
Kurtosis	.683	-.801	-.492	3.909	.751
Std. Error of Kurtosis	.586	.586	.586	.586	.586

Table 3 displays that the mean score of items number one, four and five is higher than four (which means agree). The respondents' agreement towards these items is inclined towards strongly agree from agree. So, they were (strongly) agreed that PMP provides autonomy to the teachers and students, teachers should be sensitive towards the social, political, economic and educational environment of the students, and teachers are resourceful enough to produce their own teaching methods. They were neutral but inclined towards agree (M=3.723) in the saying that teachers should not follow a certain method in their classes but they disagreed (M= 2.262) that PMP ignores other methods of teaching. Similarly, the standard deviations, skewness, Kurtosis are also not very high. This shows that the responses of the respondents were not very different.

To illustrate the responses, the histograms in figure 2 represent each of the items:
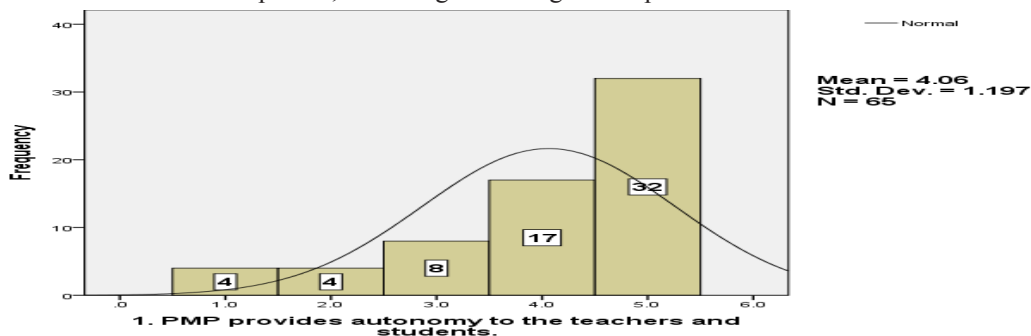

Figure 2. Respondents' agreement on autonomy attributed to PMP.

Figure 2 shows that the mean of the responses of the respondents is agree (4.06) inclined slightly towards strongly agree because the scale ranged from one to five of strongly disagree to strongly agree respectively. The distribution positively deviates from the mean score.
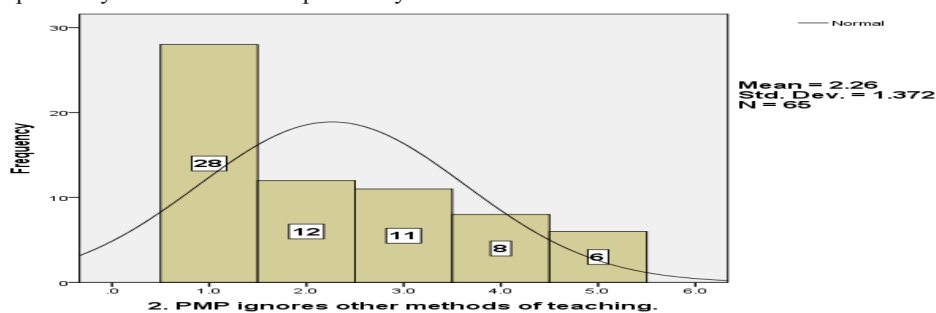

Figure 3. Respondents' agreement on treatment of PMP to other methods.

Figure 3 illustrates that the respondents did not agree that PMP ignores other teaching methods (M=2.26). The figure shows that the responses of the respondents positively deviated to disagreement (SD=1.372).
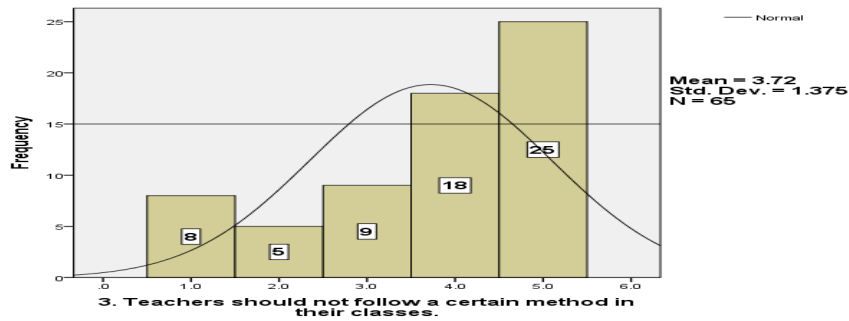
Figure 4. Respondents' agreement on selection of methods.

Figure 4 depicts that the respondents were inclined to agree (M=3.72) and the distribution of the responses was deviated positively (SD=1.375) towards an agreement. It means that they thought that the teacher should not follow one particular method while teaching different contents in different contexts.
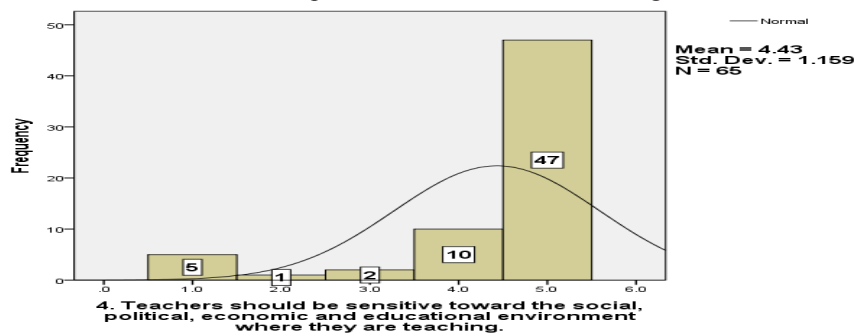

Figure 5. Respondents' agreement on teachers' sensitivity to the context.

Figure 5 shows that the respondents were more than agreed (M=4.43) that teachers should be sensitive towards social, political, cultural, economic, and educational contexts of the students while teaching. The responses here too were positively deviated (SD= 1.159) towards an agreement.
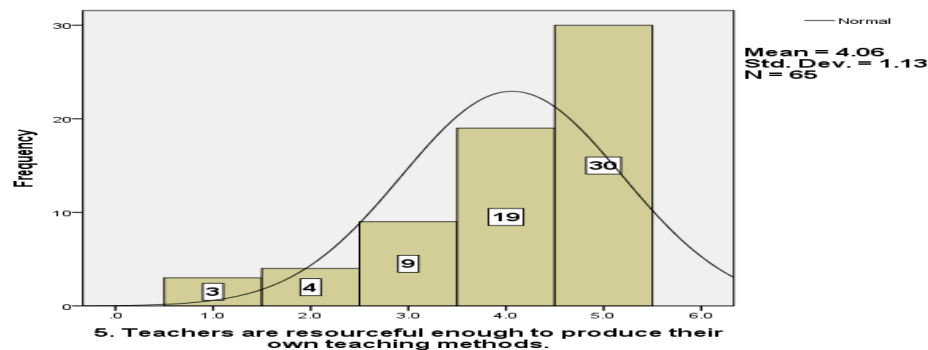

Figure 6. Respondents' agreement on potentialities of the teachers.

Table 6 also depicts that the respondents opined in favour of teachers' resourcefulness and their potentiality to produce their own teaching methods (M= 4.06) and their agreement was positively deviated towards strongly agree from the mean (SD= 1.13). Table 4 displays the overall responses of the items in Set B:

Table 4

Respondents' Agreement Towards PMP

S.N.	Item statement		Frequency	Percent
1.	*PMP provides autonomy to the teachers and students.*	Strongly disagree	4	6.2
		Disagree	4	6.2
		Undecided	8	12.3
		Agree	17	26.2
		Strongly Agree	32	49.2
2.	*PMP ignores other methods of teaching.*	Strongly disagree	28	43.1
		Disagree	12	18.5
		Undecided	11	16.9
		Agree	8	12.3
		Strongly Agree	6	9.2
3.	Teachers should not follow a certain method in their classes.	Strongly disagree	8	12.3
		Disagree	5	7.7
		Undecided	9	13.8
		Agree	18	27.7
		Strongly Agree	25	38.5
4.	*Teachers should be sensitive toward the social, political, economic and educational environment where they are teaching.*	Strongly disagree	5	7.7
		Disagree	1	1.5
		Undecided	2	3.1
		Agree	10	15.4
		Strongly Agree	47	72.3
5.	*Teachers are resourceful enough to produce their own teaching methods.*	Strongly disagree	3	4.6
		Disagree	4	6.2
		Undecided	9	13.8
		Agree	19	29.2
		Strongly Agree	30	46.2

Table 4 illustrates that many of the respondents (26.2+49.2=75.4%) agreed that PMP provides autonomy to the teachers and students but some of them (12.3%) disagreed while others (6.2+6.2=12.4%) remained undecided. Similarly, many of them (43.1+18.5=61.6%) did not agree that PMP ignores other methods of teaching while 16.9% remained undecided. In the same vein, more than half (27.7+38.5=66.2%) of them agreed that teachers should not follow one particular method while teaching while 13.8% of them were neutral. Many of them (72.3+15.4=87.7%) were agreed to the fact that teachers should be sensitive to the socio-politico-economic and educational context of the students but only 9.2% of them disagreed it. In the same way, a large number of the respondents (29.2+46.2=75.4%) agreed that teachers are resourceful enough to produce their own teaching methods while 13.8% of them were not sure but 10.8% of them disagreed it.

Responses to each of the items were concentrated towards strongly agree except in the case of item number two which in its sense was negatively worded. It means that the respondents agreed to item number one, three, four, and five but they did not agree (item number two) that PMP ignores other methods of teaching.

More over table 5 justifies the agreement of the respondents more realistically:

Table 5

Statistics of Mean of Respondents' Agreement Towards PMP

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
MeanSetB_SDA_SA	65	3.7077	.71070	-1.146	.297	1.929	.586
Valid N (listwise)	65						

Table 5 shows the mean, standard deviation skewness and Kurtosis of the five items in Set B. The overall mean value of all the items in Set B seems to be higher than neutral (M= 3.7077). Further, in one of the items, i.e. item number two, the respondents disagreed. So, their agreement to rest of the items is very good.

Five statement items to check against the five points Likert Scale consisting of always, often, sometimes, rarely, and never was included in Set C. The overall responses of the respondents to these items are displayed in table 6:

Table 6

Frequency of Respondents' Tasks as They Perceive PMP

S.N.	Item statement		Frequency	Percent
1.	*I involve my students in workshop and conferences related to the content of teaching.*	Always	6	9.2
		Often	14	21.5
		Sometimes	38	58.5
		Rarely	7	10.8
		Never	0	0.0
2.	*I talk to my students, to learn about their learning styles and preferences.*	Always	14	21.5
		Often	35	53.8
		Sometimes	15	23.1
		Rarely	1	1.5
		Never	0	0.0
3.	*I teach my students based on their educational, social, cultural and economic background.*	Always	24	36.9
		Often	29	44.6
		Sometimes	11	16.9
		Rarely	0	0.0
		Never	1	1.15
4.	*I select the method of teaching based on socio-political and institutional context.*	Always	19	29.2
		Often	28	43.1
		Sometimes	13	20.0
		Rarely	5	7.7
		Never	0	0.0
5.	*I think about instance of co-operation and social justice in my own surroundings and try to discuss them in my class.*	Always	18	27.7
		Often	24	36.9
		Sometimes	22	33.8
		Rarely	1	1.5
		Never	0	0.0

Table 6 vividly shows that many of them involve the students in workshops and conferences related to the content of teaching though only 9.2% of them always involved their students in conferences and workshops. Only 10.8% of them did it rarely while a large number of them (58.5%) did it sometimes and 21.5% of them often did it. Similarly, they talked to their students to learn about their learning styles and preferences. Among them, 53.8% of them did it often, 23.1% sometimes did it, and 21.5% always did it but only 1.5% of them rarely did it. In the same way, many of them (44.6%) often teach based on their students' educational, social, cultural, and economic background while 36.9% of them did it always and 16.9% of them did it sometimes but only 1.5% of them never did it. Likewise, many of them (43.1%) often selected the method of teaching based on socio-political and institutional context while 29.2% of them always did it, 20.0% sometimes did it, and 7.7% of them rarely did it. In the like manner, 36.9% of the respondents thought about the instances of co-operation and social justice in their own surroundings and tried to discuss them in their classes while 27.7% of them always did it, 33.8% of them did it sometimes, and 1.5% of them

rarely did it.

The replies of the respondents concentrated to the higher frequencies. They involved (often, always, and sometimes based on frequency from highest to lowest) their students in workshop and conferences related to the context, talked to their students about how they could learn, taught their students based on their context/ background, selected the contextual and apt method to address their needs, and thought about co-operation, and social justice in their own surroundings. This result showed that they were well aware of the tenants of the PMP.

Five statement items to check against the five points Likert Scale from untrue for me to true for me was included in set D where one represented untrue for me, two represented for slightly untrue for me, three represented for neutral, four represented for slightly true for me, and five represented for true for me. To analyze the responses of each item in this set, the following histogram charts of the individual items first.
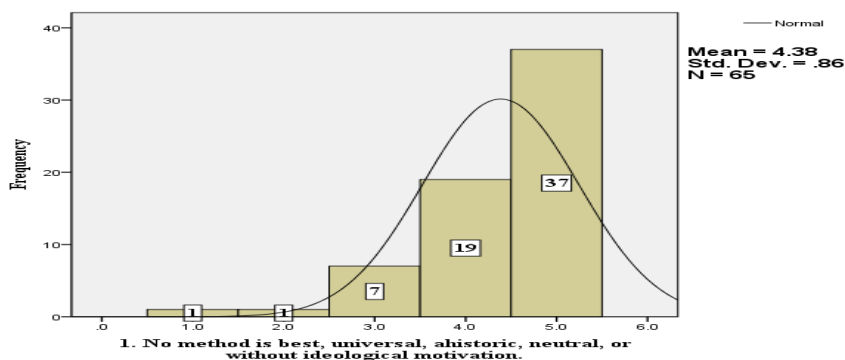

Figure 7. Respondents' view on method.

Figure 7. demonstrates that 'no method is best, universal, ahistoric, neutral or without ideological motivation' was true for them (M=4.38). The trueness of this item is deviated towards true (SD = .86) based on their responses.
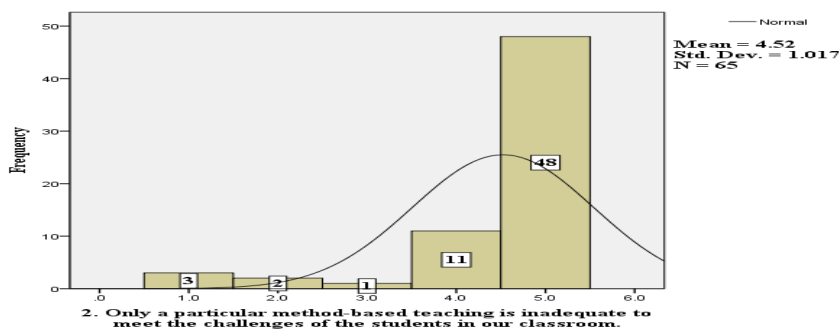

Figure 8. Respondents' view on sufficiency of one particular method.

Table 8 depicts that the respondents found it true that only particular method-based teaching is inadequate to meet the challenges of the students in their classroom (M=4.52).
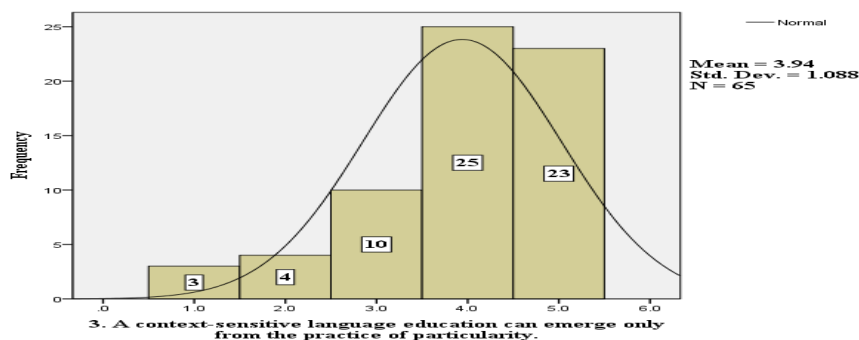
Figure 9. Respondents' view on the birth of contextual method.

Table 9 illustrates that the respondents were above the neutral inclined towards true (M=3.94) to the idea that a context-sensitive language education can emerge only from the practice of particularity. So, they found it true.

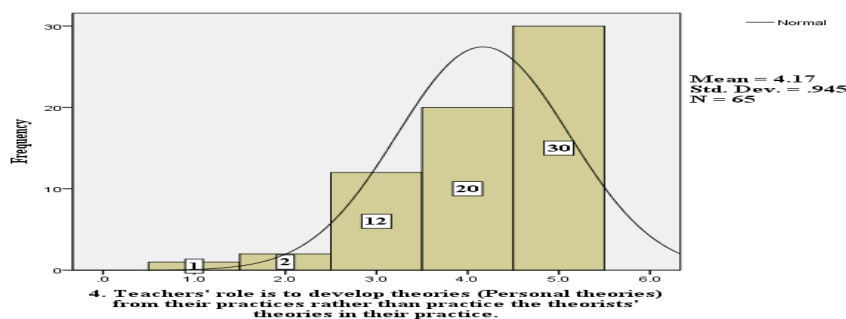*Figure 10.* Respondents' view on teachers' role.

Table 10 illustrates that the respondents found it more than slightly true (M=4.17) to the opinion that teachers' role is to develop their own theories from their practices rather than practising the theorists' theories alone. So, they found that teachers can also develop their theories from their practices.
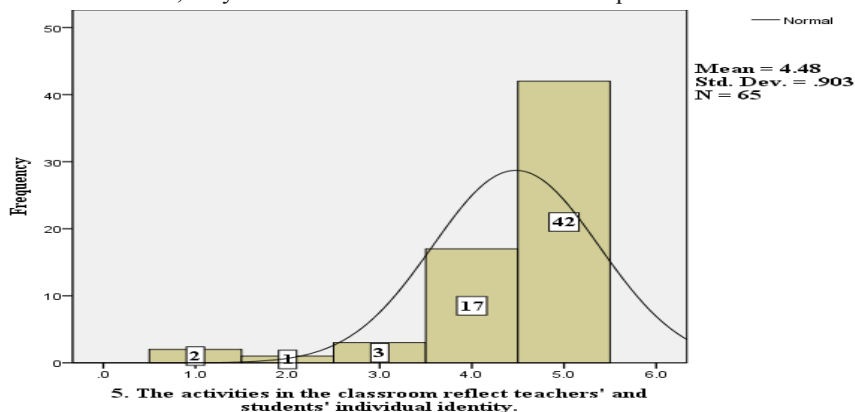

Figure 11. Respondents' view on classroom activities.

Figure 11 shows that it was true (M=4.48) that the activities in the classroom reflect the teachers' and students' individual identity. The distribution of the responses deviated to 0 .903 from the mean (SD = .903). Many of the respondents replied it as true.

Now, the overall statistics of the responses of the items in the set can be shown through in table 7.

Table 7

Respondents' Overall Belief Towards PMP

Statistic		1. No method is best, universal, ahistoric, neutral, or without ideological motivation.	2. Only a particular method-based teaching is inadequate to meet the challenges of the students.	3. A context-sensitive language education can emerge only from the practice of particularity.	4. Teachers' role is to develop theories from their practices rather than practice the theorists' theories.	5. The activities in the classroom reflect teachers' and students' individual identity.
N	Valid	65	65	65	65	65
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		4.385	4.523	3.938	4.169	4.477
Std. Deviation		.8605	1.0172	1.0880	.9449	.9033
Skewness		-1.604	-2.500	-1.077	-1.038	-2.292
Std. Error of Skewness		.297	.297	.297	.297	.297
Kurtosis		2.959	5.702	.738	.770	5.832
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.586	.586	.586	.586	.586

Table 7 depicts that the mean value of all the items is about four. Specifically, it is higher than four in four items and it is nearly about four (M=3.938) in item number three. This justifies that the respondents thought that the items were true for them. In other words, they supported the items mentioned. Similarly, the standard deviation is also not very high and the distribution is skewed towards untrue and most of the data concentrated towards slightly true for me and true for me (value 4 and 5 respectively).

Table 8 demonstrates that no method is ahistoric, neutral or any ideological motivation was true for most of them (81.1%) while 10.8% of them were neutral. It was untrue only for three percent of them. Similarly, 90.7% of the respondents thought that one particular method is inadequate to meet all the challenges of the students in their classroom is true while only 7.8% of them found it untrue. In the same way, it was true for most of the participants (73.9%) that context-sensitive language education can emerge only from the practice of particularity to which 15.45 of them remained neutral and 10.8% of them found

it untrue for them. Likewise, for a large number of the participants (77.0%) teachers' roles were to develop personal theories from their practices rather than practice others' theories was true while 18.5% of them appeared to be neutral and 4.6% of them found it untrue for them. Likewise, the activities in the classroom reflect teachers' and students' individual identity was true for 90.8% of the participants while only 4.6% of the respondents each found it neutral and untrue for them.

To show the responses of the respondents to each of the items individually, let us see the frequency table 8.

Table 8

Respondents' Individual Belief Towards PMP

S.N.	Item statement		Frequency	Percent
1.	*No method is best, universal, ahistoric, neutral, or without ideological motivation.*	Untrue for me	1	1.5
		Slightly untrue for me	1	1.5
		Neutral	7	10.8
		Slightly true for me	19	29.2
		True for me	37	56.9
2.	*Only a particular method-based teaching is inadequate to meet the challenges of the students in our classroom.*	Untrue for me	3	4.6
		Slightly untrue for me	2	3.1
		Neutral	1	1.5
		Slightly true for me	11	16.9
		True for me	48	73.8
3.	*A context-sensitive language education can emerge only from the practice of particularity.*	Untrue for me	3	4.6
		Slightly untrue for me	4	6.2
		Neutral	10	15.4
		Slightly true for me	25	38.5
		True for me	23	35.4
4.	*Teachers' role is to develop theories (Personal theories) from their practices rather than practice the theorists' theories in their practice.*	Untrue for me	1	1.5
		Slightly untrue for me	2	3.1
		Neutral	12	18.5
		Slightly true for me	20	30.8
		True for me	30	46.2
5.	*The activities in the classroom reflect teachers' and students' individual identity.*	Untrue for me	2	3.1
		Slightly untrue for me	1	1.5
		Neutral	3	4.6
		Slightly true for me	17	26.2

The mean of all the items was also calculated through the SPSS software to observe what the

mean of the mean and standard deviation and skewness of the distribution is. The table below shows the descriptive statistics of the mean of Set D as it is was obtained through SPSS analysis:

Table 9

Statistics of Mean of Respondents' Belief Towards PMP

Mean Statistic	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
MeanUntrueTrue5_1_5	65	4.2985	.64916	-2.195	.297	9.244	.586
Valid N (listwise)	65						

Table 9 illustrates that the mean of the mean score of the five items in the set is 4.2985 (higher than slightly true for me), though some of the scores were negatively skewed (-2.195) and the standard deviation is 0.64916. The multiple responses, however, were centred towards slightly true or true for me.

Conclusion and Implications

Based on the result and discussion of the data collected, most of the M. Phil. pursuing scholars strictly supposed that teachers should encourage the students to take part in different contextual activities in the classroom.They opined that socio-politico-cultural and economic context of the surroundings of the students should be considered in teaching and such instances of the students should be respected fully. PMP provides autonomy to the teachers and students without ignoring any other methods in their understandings. For them, one method only cannot meet the needs of the teachers and students. The activities in the classroom that the teachers initiate are different from those suggested by any one method. Sometimes, they are uniquely utilized to solve the unique needs of the classroom.

They insisted that teachers are not just the practitioners of the theories developed by others. Instead, they can and should develop their own theories out of their practices. Teachers, for them, should encourage their students through interesting activities. So, most of them also encourage their students through the activities that interest their students when they work as teachers. They insisted that they do not follow any one particular method strictly while teaching. Rather, they try to be innovative to meet the needs of the students and the classroom setting and suggest others too. Teachers, for them, are resourceful enough to produce their own methods out of their experiences and practices. They often talked to their students to know about how they learn better. They liked to make their students creative and critical to the social phenomena and speak for social justice and social transformation. They believed that all the methods developed by now are historic and inclined to certain ideological motivation. So, they are not and cannot be neutral.

Teachers and teacher practitioners are very much aware of the recent practices and the researches in the field of teaching and learning. Professionals and potential professionals keep their eyes open and ears attentive towards the matters that influence their professional practices. Trainee teachers, teachers, and teacher trainers try using and learning about different methods of teaching during their professional and academic lives. They are the real evaluators of the methods discovered so far because they actually try

them at their classroom. They know how to solve the problems in the classroom then any of the theorists do by learning. They actually practise the difference between saying and doing. Out of their experience and learning, they have developed their own ways of teaching the students unlike any other person suggests.

The teachers should be given choices to select any of the methods and techniques to meet their needs and address their students' needs in their own ways. The same method cannot fit equally well in each and every classroom of the world. Each teacher, each student, each classroom, the needs and necessities of the students, the surroundings, the infrastructure, the socio-politico-cultural and economic context, etc. are different in different places. So, claiming one particular method as the best is just like claiming 'one size fits all' which is not true. The contexts of the students and the teachers are best identified by the practitioners. So, the potential problems likely to occur should be left to their hands to be solved. And the teachers should not be compelled to use one particular method used elsewhere. Rather, the teachers should be left encouraged to develop their own methods to fit their situation. The era of the method has gone; it is the era of postmethods.

PMP is still waiting to be implemented in English language teaching context of Nepal. It is the turn of we practitioners to enact our ideological percepts to use and motivate using PMP in our classroom practices. This study has left many other aspects of PMP to be explored like present scenario of PMP in Nepal, methods practiced in ELT in Nepal at different levels, challenges and possibilities of the teachers in developing a context-sensitive method, etc.
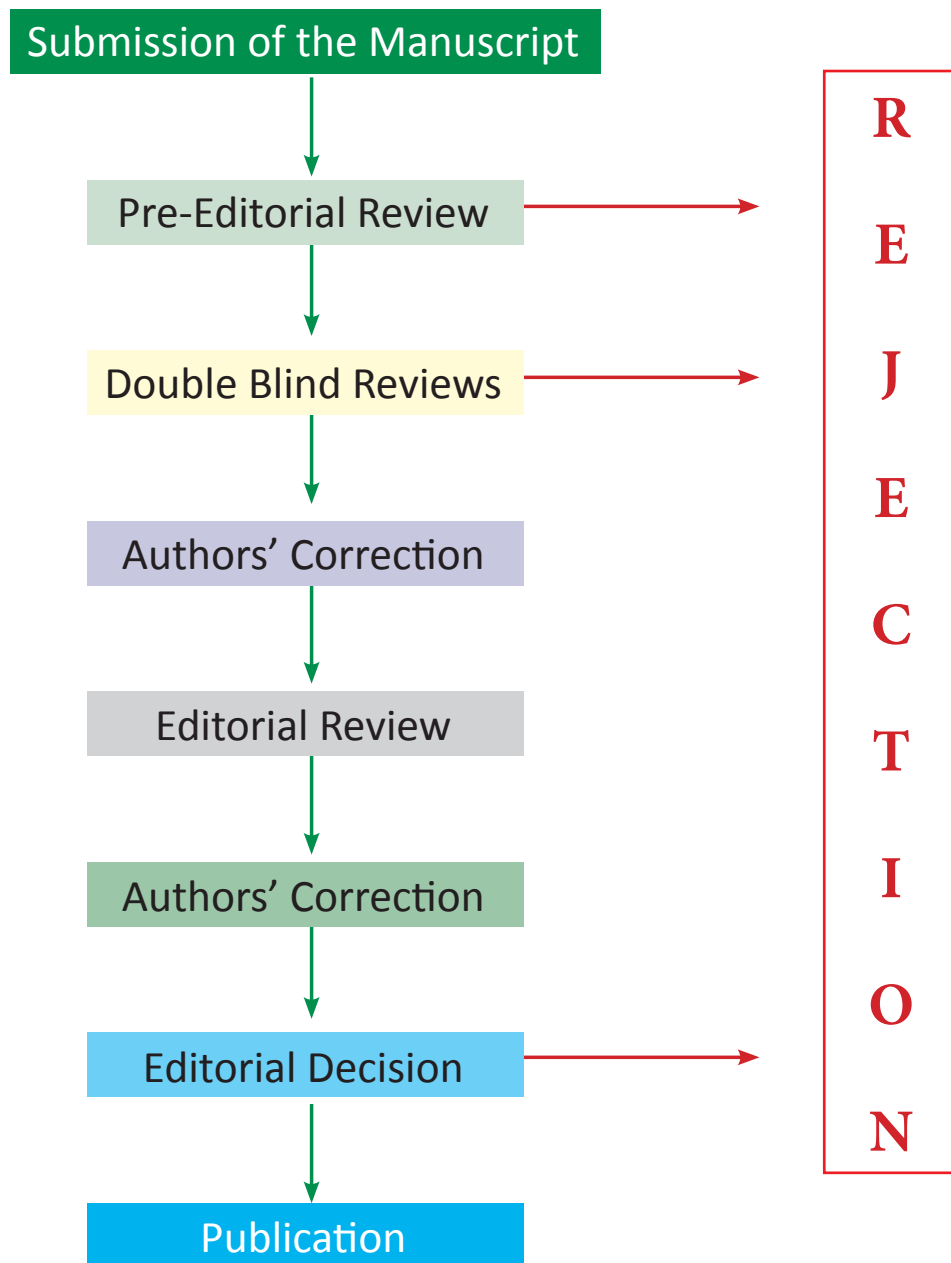
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