English Language Education Research in Bangladesh, 1995-2013: The State of the Art

by

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ABSTRACT

The objective of this study is to offer a symptomatic reading of 326 journal articles produced in the field of ELE from 1995 to 2013 in Bangladesh. In the *first reading* of symptomatic reading, I tried to discover presences/absences or sightings/oversights of the ELE research establishment of Bangladesh. In the *second reading*, I tried to detect the problematic/unconscious of the journal articles. Precisely, the first reading reveals that ELE research in Bangladesh revolves around technical-mechanical issues—which signifies the presence of *reification* in the field. The second reading indicates that the unconscious/problematic of the ELE research establishment of Bangladesh is *positive, eurocentric,* and *dehumanized*. In addition, research activities of Bangladesh are not immune to professional fallacies and mechanical reproduction. In short, ELE research establishment of Bangladesh is suffering from—what I have termed—*creative impotency*. In this study, I have proposed a *South Asian Paradigm* which can democratize and humanize ELE research. In particular, the *South Asian Paradigm* contains the following components: dialectic materialism, anti-colonial struggle, and peoples' humanism. Precisely, a paradigm shift can cure the creative impotency of this discipline.

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Chapter One

Introduction

"But as there is no such thing as an innocent reading, we must say what reading we are guilty

of" (Althusser, 1968, p. 14).

I

The objective of this study is not to offer a meta-analysis of ELE research articles of

Bangladesh. The study does not offer any critical appreciation of ELE research articles

either. In addition, the objective of this work is not to find out a solution to the ELT

problems of Bangladesh. Further, this article does not merely seek to identify the issues and

themes of ELE research in Bangladesh. This work does not even intend to offer a wholesale

criticism of ELE journal articles of Bangladesh. The objective, then, is to offer a

symptomatic reading (Althusser, 1968) of ELE research produced in the Bangladeshi

academia. In particular, symptomatic reading enables a reader to (a) detect the absences and

oversights in texts, and (b) to discover the problematic i.e. (philosophical framework) of the

texts by examining the system of presence/absence in a text. In other words, the

presence/absence in a text is not an abrupt quality of the text; presence/absence or

sight/oversight reveals the composition of the unconscious of the text. However,

symptomatic reading requires an *Informed Gaze*. In other words, symptomatic reading is a

philosophically informed reading. In this study, my understanding of philosophy and critical

theory constituted an informed gaze for me. I am interested in a philosophical (or

symptomatic) reading of ELT journal articles for the following reasons. First, an

unsystematic reading deals with surface and facts of texts whereas a symptomatic reading exposes the *mechanism* of knowledge production. Second, symptomatic reading reveals the *ontological* dimension of research product. Thus, symptomatic reading unearths the paradigm of an academic establishment. In this study, I tried to discover the mechanism and ontological composition of ELE research articles. This discovery led me to a critical examination of the existing ELE research paradigm.

II

There are two layers in the method of symptomatic reading: *first reading* and *second reading* (Althusser, 1968). The *first reading* of symptomatic reading reveals absences/oversights in a text. The *second reading* of symptomatic reading constitutes the *problematic* (philosophical framework) of the text. In addition, symptomatic reading detects the *mechanism* of knowledge production. Further, it identifies the system of the production of *knowledge effect* in a paradigm. Precisely, "knowledge effect" refers to the cognitive appropriation of the real world. A *conception of knowledge* (i.e. what constitutes knowledge) and a historical condition (e.g. politics, religion) produces knowledge effect. On the other hand, mechanism of knowledge production means order of appearance of forms/concepts or arrangement of concepts. In other words, a combination of 'real order' and 'logical order' produces knowledge. The movement of these concepts confirms the validity of knowledge.

In this study, by employing the technique of first reading, I tried to discover sightings and oversights in the ELE research establishment of Bangladesh. The *first reading* discloses that ELE research of Bangladesh sights methods/techniques in ELT, skill development (lower order mechanical skills), perceptions/attitude of teachers/students etc. On the other hand, the ELE research oversights multilingualism, anti-colonial struggle of the people, anthropological specificity, agency of the people, creativity of the people etc. The *second*

reading indicates that the ELE research establishment of Bangladesh is *Positive*, *Orientalist*, and *mechanically reproductive*. In this study, I have employed symptomatic reading for the following reasons: (a) symptomatic reading is an apparatus to discover the mechanism of knowledge production, (b) symptomatic reading reveals the politico-philosophical tendency of a discipline, (c) symptomatic reading reveals the meaning of silence, (d) symptomatic reading reveals the unconscious of a discipline, (e) symptomatic reading destabilizes the Logos (i.e. authority of a discipline, and (f) symptomatic reading can lead to an epistemological break in a discipline.

III

In chapter 2, I have tried to explain the politics of research. In particular, in my discussion of the politics of research I have analyzed the process of knowledge production in the existing world order. In this chapter, I have used an undocumented concept of Ahmed Javed (Editor, *Pathshala*, A multidisciplinary journal based in Bangladesh). In a personal dialog, Ahmed explained his concept of *Proletarization of Knowledge* to me. This concept adequately explains the poverty of knowledge in the post-colonial world. In chapter 3, I have discussed the themes of ELE research in Asia. The objective of this discussion was to situate ELE research issues of Bangladesh in the global context. This discussion reveals the epistemological structure of the post-colonial countries. In chapter 4, I have elaborately described Althusser's method of symptomatic reading. In addition, I have recorded the research questions of this study in this chapter. In chapter 5, I have documented the collected journal articles. I have generated 24 categories to record these articles. The table of this chapter contains category, source, title, and method of the articles. In chapter 6, I have discussed sights (e.g. Methods and Techniques, Curriculum/Syllabus and Material Design) oversights (e.g. higher order thinking skills, EIL issues, Cognitive Linguistics) of ELE

research establishment of Bangladesh. In addition, I have tried to analyze the *mechanism of knowledge production*. In particular, it appears that a *positive conception of knowledge* dominates the ELE research in Bangladesh. In addition, Orientalism, Eurocentrism, and some Professional Fallacies determine the *condition of knowledge production*. In other words, an ideological and political system appears to crystallize the combination of 'logical order' and 'real order'. This mechanism appears to be responsible for the mechanical reproduction of "knowledge" in the field of ELE that hardly contains any use-value. In chapter 7, I have defined the collected articles (produced from 1995-2013) as *First Generation Research*. In particular, the *first generation research* in ELE is non-creative, Orientalist, mechanical, and dehumanized. In this chapter, I have also proposed a paradigm shift—a shift from *positive* research to *dialectic materialist* research. In particular, I have tried to outline a *South Asian Paradigm* in this chapter.

IV

At this point, it seems pertinent to mention the status of the English language in Bangladesh. English language is taught as a separate subject from Grade-I to Grade-XII in the mainstream education of Bangladesh (see "Preface" in Hoque, 2012). In addition, CLT is the officially declared method of ELT in the pre-university education in Bangladesh. At university level, both Bangla and English are used as medium of instruction. It is to note that autochthonous peoples of Bangladesh are streamed into the mainstream education system (see *National Education Policy 2010*, p. 4).

Finally, I would like to note that I have used the term "Eurocentrism" throughout the study in the following senses. First, According to Macey (2000, p. 115), Eurocentrism "holds that Europe is the centre of the world and that its culture is by definition superior to all others". Second, Brooker (2003, p. 95) maintains: the term Eurocentrism describes "the way

a particular cultural model, 'centred' upon European intellectual traditions and socio-political systems, has been generalized so as to apply to the world at large". By the term "reification", I mean an extreme form of alienation—an imposed dissociation (see Brooker, pp. 221-222). By the term *Political Linguistics*, I mean a branch of academic study that addresses the connection between language and politics. In particular, Political Linguistics may address the following issues: cultural conceptualization, decolonization of English language, language endangerment/death, interactions between languages, class and language (teaching), gender and language (teaching) identity, power etc. This apart, I have used the terms ELE and ELT interchangeably.

Chapter Two

Politics of (English Language Education) Research

Domination of masses by elites is rooted not only in the polarization of control over the means of material production but also over the means of knowledge production including, as in the former case, the social power to determine what is valid or useful knowledge. Irrespective of which of these two polarizations sets off a process of domination, it can be argued that one reinforces the other in augmenting and perpetuating this process (Rahman, 1982, p. 14).

In this chapter, I have tried to detect the politics of research in the world. In order to examine the politics of research, I have mainly engaged ideas of Phillipson, Cohen, Manion & Morrison, Aijaj Ahmed, Arundhati Roy, and Ahmed Javed. In particular, Phillipson addresses the issue of 'Educational Imperialism'; Cohen, Manion & Morrison explain how power determines 'research agenda'; Aijaj Ahmed analyzes the operation of 'Academic Imperialism'; Arundhati Roy explains the process of 'Colonization of Knowledge'; and Ahmed Javed explains politics of research by using his term 'Proletarization of Knowledge'.

2.1 Crystallization of Research Approach/Agenda

Cohen et al. (2007, pp. 46-47) contend that connection between politics and research can be detected at both macro and micro level. Macro-political level concerns the determination of research agenda. In particular, policy-maker, donors, funders, or sponsors may define

research agenda, and may identify topics to be investigated. In such cases, research activities may revolve around evaluation and policy and implementation related issues. However, Burgess (1993, in Cohen et. al., 2007, p. 46) suggests that researchers, not sponsors, should determine and specify research topics. In this context, Caplan (1991, in Cohen et. al., 1997, maintains that the objective of research is not to "simplistically" serve policy decision; the objective of research is to construct knowledge, i.e. concepts, propositions, explanations, theories, methodologies etc. At micro-political level, policy makers or sponsors may affect research design. For instance, policy makers who are concerned with short-term solutions and simple recommendations to solve complex problems may force researchers to adopt 'Simple Impact Model' and positivist approach. Thus, policy makers and researchers may contribute to simplification of complex reality. Usher and Scott (1996, p. 176 in Cohen 2007, p. 47) maintains that positivist research [a dominant paradigm of research] does not challenge existing power-structure of a society and does not question traditions. Therefore, the central question pertaining to the politics of research is: "Who defines the 'traditions of knowledge' and the disciplines of knowledge; the social construction of knowledge has to take into account the differential power of groups to define what is worthwhile research knowledge, what constitutes acceptable focuses and methodologies of research and how the findings will be used" (p. 47).

2.2 The Politics of Paradigm

The term 'paradigm' is connected with Kuhn' book *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions* (1962). Precisely, the term paradigm refers to "a framework of concepts, results, and procedures within which subsequent work is structured" (Blackburn, 1996). Cohen et al. (2007) offer a comprehensive discussion of research paradigm. Cohen et al. begin their discussion with the description of philosophical foundation of research. Cohen et al. record that any research approach evolves through the following process: ontological assumptions

leading to epistemological assumptions; epistemological assumptions leading to methodology; and methodology leading to instrumentation and data collection. Ontological assumptions refer to the notion about the formation or nature of social phenomena. Precisely, ontology deals with the question whether social reality exists independently outside individual consciousness; or whether social reality is constructed by individual consciousness. In addition, ontology is also concerned with the question whether social reality is 'objective' or a manifestation of individual human perception. In short, the central question of ontology addresses the formulative process of social reality. In other words, the question is whether social reality is [linguistically] constructed or social reality exists irrespective of the presence of human consciousness. These ontological questions are addressed by 'nominalism' and 'realism'. Nominalism holds that reality is linguistically constructed; on the other hand, realism claims that [concrete] reality exists independent of human consciousness or linguistic signification. Balckburn (1996) describes the following characteristics of realism. First, realism holds that certain "kinds of thing" (p. 320) exist. Second, the existence of thing is not dependent on language or concepts. Third, it is possible to "attain truths" (p. 320) about things or facts. On the other hand, nominalism holds that phenomenon [or reality] is constituted by language. In addition, nominalism maintains that "everything that exists is a particular individual, and therefore there are no such things as universals" (Blackburn, 1996, p. 264).

Epistemological assumptions are concerned with the process of attaining knowledge about something. The following two schools of thought deal with epistemological questions: Positivism and anti-positivism. The proponent of positivism is Auguste Comte (1798-1857), a French philosopher (Macey, 2000). Positivism, as a strand of epistemology, intends to unravel 'universal laws' of the universe. Positivism depends on observation, experimentation, and calculation to uncover universal or general laws in phenomena.

According to positivism, knowledge is the product of observation. Blackburn (1996) defines positivism as "the philosophy of Comte, holding that the highest or only form of knowledge is the description of sensory phenomena" (p. 294). Comte's positivism assumes three states of the evolution of human knowledge or human existence (Macey, 2000, p. 303): Theological, metaphysical, and positive. Theological state is characterized by a shift from primitive fetishism [worship of inanimate objects] to polytheism to monotheism. Metaphysical state refers to the abandonment of search for supernatural causes; this state is characterized by secularism. Positive state is characterized by a desire to know "how things happen" (Macey, 2000, p. 303), and abandonment of speculation (Blackburn, 1996, p. 294). Comte's positivism appears to carry political implication for non-European societies. Macey (2000, p. 303) writes: "The evolutionary schema is a classic expression of the assumptions of Eurocentrism; it is made quite clear that non-European societies are still living in the theological state". Positivism holds that knowledge is objective and tangible (Cohen et. al., 2007, p. 7). In addition, it advocates application of the methods of natural science to sociology. In positivism, researchers play the role of an 'observer'.

Anti-positivism, on the contrary, views knowledge as subjective and personal. In anti-positivist paradigm, a researcher is required to establish symmetrical relationship with the subjects under study. This paradigm avoids imposition of the methods of natural science to understand social reality.

Conceptualization of human nature bears implication for the adoption of research methodology. In particular, notion of 'determinism' and 'voluntarism' define the relationship between humans and environment [i.e. society]. According to determinism, humans are produced by environment, and they mechanically respond to environment. On the other hand, voluntarism views humans as creative and independent actors— who create environment [i.e. society]. The researchers who subscribe to positivist paradigm [and

determinism] would make use of methodologies such as surveys, experiment etc. On the contrary, those who believe in anti-positivism or subjectivism [and voluntarism] would adopt methodologies such as accounts, participant observation, personal constructs etc. Cohen et. al., 2007, p. 8) write: "Two images [models] of human beings emerge from such assumptions— the one portrays them as responding mechanically and deterministically to their environment, i.e. as products of the environment, controlled like puppets; the other, as initiators of their own actions with free will and creativity, producing their own environments".

There are two methodological notions of research: nomothetic and idiographic. Nomothetic approach to research is associated with objectivism. This approach seeks to identify regularities, general laws or universal laws in phenomena. This approach, employing quantitative tools, intends to discover interrelations between facts. On the other hand, idiographic approach is associated with subjectivism. This approach seeks to explore particular-individual-subjective experience. This approach may deploy both qualitative and quantitative analytical tools. Citing Burnell and Morgan (1979) and Kirk and Miller (1986), Cohen et. al. (2007, p. 8) notes: "Emphasis here is placed on explanation and understanding of the unique and the particular individual case rather than the general and the universal; the interest is in a subjective, relativistic social world rather than an absolutist, external reality".

To recapitulate, philosophical notions or assumptions that lead to distinctive research approaches are as follows: Ontological assumptions are divided into nominalism and realism; epistemological assumptions are divided into positivism and anti-positivism; question on human nature centers around voluntarism and determinism; and methodological assumptions have been categorized as nomothetic and idiographic. At this stage, it seems essential to illustrate the distinction between objectivist and subjectivist paradigm. Precisely, objectivism holds that reality exists external to humans whereas subjectivism maintains that reality is

constituted distinctively by different individuals. Second, objectivism intends to uncover 'universal laws' of society and human behavior; subjectivism, on the other hand, seeks to present interpretations of the world offered by different individuals. Third, objectivist paradigm use mathematical models and quantitative tools; contrarily, subjectivist paradigm analyzes language and meaning. Fourth, objectivism views society as ordered and governed by rules whereas subjectivism views society as conflicted.

Positivism received considerable and provocative criticism— from philosophers, scientists, social critics and artists. Critics marshal the following arguments against positivism. First, positivists' understanding of life and nature is mechanical and reductionist; it oversights "choice", "freedom", and "individuality". Cohen et al. (2007, p. 17) observe: "Essentially, it has been a reaction against the world picture projected by science which, it is contended, undermines life and mind" (p. 17). Second, Kierkegaard, a Danish philosopher, attacks positivism for its tendency to dehumanize individuals. In Kierkegaard's view, objectivity is an illusion. In other words, the attempt to attain objectivity by assigning general rules to human behavior is an illusion. In Cohen et. al.'s (2007, p. 17) words: "By this [illusion of objectivity] he meant the imposition of rules of behavior and thought, and the making of a person into an observer set of discovering general laws governing human behavior". Third, Ions (1977) also addressed the issue of dehumanization in the positivist paradigm. Ions holds that quantification, computation and statistical theory lead to collectivism and depersonalization. Cohen et. al. (2007, p. 17, italics in original) notes: "His objection is not directed at quantification *per se*, but at quantification when it becomes an end in itself". Fourth, Roszak (1970, 1972) maintains that positivism's search for objectivity results in alienation of self and nature. Fifth, Holbrook (1977) stresses on the enrichment of human consciousness and inner world, and "condemns positivism and empiricism for their bankruptcy of the inner world, morality and subjectivity" (Cohen et. al., 2007, p. 18). Sixth,

Hampden-Turner (1970) points out that positivism overlooks significant qualities of human and projects their limited image. In particular, positivism deals with 'repetitive', 'predictable', and 'invariant' dimensions of humans—and portrays a fragmented picture of humans; it favors observable external behavior of humans over subjective [inner] experiences. Seventh, Habermas (1972) defines positivism as 'scientism' which is reductive and technicist. He attacks 'positivism' or 'scientism' because it claims itself as the only possible form of gaining knowledge, excluding other forms such as hermeneutic, aesthetic, critical, moral, creative etc. Cohen et al. (2007) indicates that positivism is a threat for creative and humanitarian dimension of social behavior, because positivism views social behavior as passive. Eighth, positivism fails to recognize its difference from natural science. In particular, the relationship between researcher and researched in natural science is subject-object relationship; on the other hand, the relationship between researcher and researched in social science is subject-subject relationship. Cohen et al. (2007, p. 19) write: "The findings of positivistic social science are often said to be so banal and trivial that they are of little consequence to those for whom they are intended, namely, teachers, social workers, counsellors, personal managers, and the like. The more effort, it seems, that researchers put into their scientific experimentation in the laboratory by restricting, simplifying and controlling variables, the more likely they are to end up with a 'pruned, synthetic version of the whole, a constructed play of puppets in a restricted environment'".

Cohen et al. (2007) record some principles of anti-positivist approaches. First, anti-positivism holds that human behavior cannot be subsumed under general/universal laws or regularities. Second, anti-positivism views humans as autonomous. Third, anti-positivism maintains that human behavior has to be understood from inside— i.e. individuals' [or participants'] interpretation of the world would lead to the demystification of social reality. Fifth, social reality is dynamic, not fixed or static. Sixth, each event or individual is "unique"

and "non-generalizable". Seventh, social reality has to be investigated in its natural context. Eighth, there might be multiple interpretation of a particular event/situation. Ninth, 'thick description' is preferable to simplistic interpretation.

Two terms are generically used to refer to positivistic approach and anti-positivistic approach: Normative paradigm and interpretive paradigm, respectively. Normative paradigm holds that: (a) human behavior can be explained in terms of underlying regularities; and (b) methods of natural science is directly applicable to social science. In addition, normative paradigm intends to constitute general theories of human behavior. In contrast, interpretive paradigm concentrates on understanding subjective human experience by concentrating on individual. Cohen et al. (2007, p. 21) writes: "The imposition of external form and structure is resisted, since this reflects the viewpoint of the observer as opposed to that of the actor directly involved". Besides, interpretive paradigm views theory as emergent and grounded in data. In addition, according to interpretive paradigm, construction of theory is contingent on spatio-temporal particularities. Therefore, diverse and multiple set of theories might evolve in time and space. Thus, "from an interpretive perspective the hope of a universal theory which characterizes the normative outlook gives way to multifaceted images of human behavior as varied as the situations and contexts supporting them" (Cohen et. al., 2007, p. 22).

2.3 Monopolization of English Language Education Research

Phillipson (1992) in his seminal work *Linguistic Imperialism* explicates the process of *monopolization of research* by the West. Phillipson uses the following terms to address research monopoly: English linguistic imperialism, scientific imperialism, media imperialism, and educational imperialism. English linguistic imperialism means the way "the dominance of English is asserted and maintained by the establishment and continuous

reconstitution of structural and cultural inequalities between English and other languages" (p. 47). 'Structural inequality' means material or economic inequality, and 'cultural inequality' means immaterial inequality (e.g. pedagogic inventions and their hegemony). Two mechanisms have been used to legitimize English linguistic imperialism: 'Anglocentricity' which deals with language and culture; and 'professionalism' which is connected to pedagogy. Anglocentricity means evaluation of cultures using norms or standard of English culture as criteria. Anglocentrism contributes to the devaluation of languages other than English. On the other hand, the term 'professionalism' is defined as a totalitarian view regarding methods, techniques, and language teaching/learning theories. In other words, 'professionalism' in ELT refers to the belief that existing ELT theories can account sufficiently for language learning process. Phillipson indicates that ELT professionalism intentionally tries to detach ELT from socio-political concerns (p. 48). This 'ELT professionalism' appears to determine research agenda in the field of ELT/ELE. According to Phillipson (p. 48): "The professional discourse around ELT disconnects culture form structure by limiting the focus in language pedagogy to technical matters, that is, language and education in a narrow sense, to the exclusion of social, economic, and political matters". Phillipson (pp. 48-50) mentions three phenomena pertaining to 'ELT professionalism' which typify export of Western pedagogic inventions to non-English speaking countries. First, non-English speaking countries seem to be dependent on material and immaterial ELT commodity produced in core-English speaking countries. Material commodity refers to books, language experts etc.; and immaterial goods mean ideas or theories of teaching/learning English. Second, in the mid 1980s, China telecasted a program entitled "follow me" as part of BBC English teaching series which covered 100 million viewers. Phillipson argues: "This type of language pedagogy export is considered a good political investment can be seen by the fact that the United States information agency felt prompted to begin work on an equivalent

multi-media English teaching series aimed at false beginners, in collaboration with the Macmillan publishing company" (p. 49). Third, the US 'Defense Language Institute' invented audiolingual method and underdeveloped countries enthusiastically imported this method. However, "American audiolingual doctrine" had structural or economic implication as it exported books, teachers and aid projects along with the doctrine or ideas. Phillipson observes: "The impact audiolingualism was great in countries which were themselves economically weak and lacked an effective pedagogical counterweight, that is, in underdeveloped countries" (p. 49).

Phillipson points out that mainstream theories of imperialism predominantly deal with political economy, class, and capital accumulation. Phillipson identifies a flexible theory of imperialism in J. Galtung's book *The True Worlds: A Transnational Perspective* (1980). Galtung's taxonomy of imperialism includes six categories of imperialism: Economic, political, military, communicative (i.e. communication and transport), cultural, and social. Galtung's category of 'cultural' imperialism allows Phillipson to formulate the concept of linguistic imperialism. According to Galtung, imperialism refers to the domination of one society over another. In addition, the following four mechanisms perpetuate imperialism: Exploitation, penetration, fragmentation, and marginalization. Thus, Galtung's formulation of imperialism covers a wide range of reality. This theory of imperialism distinguishes between dominant center and dominated peripheries. Dominant center determines norms (e.g. economic, linguistic) and periphery accepts and practices these norms. This relationship indicates an asymmetrical power relation between center and periphery. In this model, research norms and agendas are expected to be determined and monopolized by the center.

Galtung identifies 'scientific imperialism' as a sub-category of 'cultural imperialism'. Galtung detects the following features of scientific imperialism. First, center determines curriculum and pedagogy of periphery. Second, scientific researchers of center objectify

periphery— by considering periphery as simply sources of raw data. Third, center

universities construct pedagogic materials/tools and export them to periphery. Galtung

(1980, p.130, in Phillipson, 1992, p. 57): "If the Center always provides the teachers and the

definition of what is worthy of being taught (from the gospels of Christianity to the gospels of

Technology and Science), and the Periphery always provides the learners, then there is

pattern of imperialism…a pattern of scientific teams from the Center who go to Periphery

nations to collect data (raw material) in the form of deposits, sediment, flora, fauna,

archaeological findings, attitudes, opinions, behavioral patterns, and so on for data

processing, analysis, and theory formation (like industrial processing in general). This takes

place in the center universities (factories), in order to send the finished product, a journal, a

book (manufactured goods) back for consumption in the center of the periphery, first having

created a demand for it through demonstration effect, training in the center country, and some

degree of low level participation in the data-collection team. This parallel is not a joke, it is a

structure".

Phillipson relates Galtung's conception of scientific research to the field of ELT.

Phillipson remarks that West has monopolized scientific research; in particular, West has

monopolized research in the field of English language pedagogy. Scientific imperialism is a

process through which Center maintains its domination over periphery by conducting

research and constructing knowledge. Phillipson argues: "The imperialist structure ensures

that the West has a near monopoly of scientific research, whether into technological

questions, Third World development issues, or English language pedagogy.…The cultural

resources of the center (ideas, theories, experience) are constantly renewed, partly also

through scientific imperialism, with the periphery remaining in a dependent situation" (p. 58).

Phillipson (pp. 61-62) uses the notion of 'media imperialism' to construct his theory

of 'educational imperialism'. Phillipson quotes Boyd-Barrett's (1977, p. 117, in Phillipson,

1992, p. 61) definition of 'media imperialism'. According to Boyd-Barrett, media imperialism means exertion of power by one country over ownership, structure, distribution, and content of media of another country. In other words, media imperialism refers to Center's domination of media over Periphery countries. For instance, underdeveloped countries collect a large number of international news from Reuter's. Second, 'modelling' is a significant term in media imperialism. Precisely, Modelling refers to a process in which local television program is manufactured imitating a foreign program. Third, media imperialism involves export of professionalism. Precisely, three ingredients of professionalism are exported to periphery countries: 'Institutional transfer', 'training and education', and 'diffusion of occupational ideologies'. Dependence on Center inhibits the discovery of local solutions. Citing Golding (1977) Phillipson states that 'professionalism in ELT' is similar to professionalism in media. In particular, the idea of export of professionalism (i.e. 'professional transfer') is applicable to ELT. First, Center ELT institutions serve as the model for periphery. Second, Center provides 'training and education' to periphery. Third, Center defines and determines professional behavior (e.g. skills, knowledge) in ELT. Consequently, periphery becomes dependent on center, and an ideological indoctrination takes place. Therefore, periphery cannot devise solutions to their own problems. In Phillipson's (pp. 62-63) words: "Training and education is what most ELT 'aid' has been about. ELT has aimed at the diffusion of an occupational ideology, an accepted definition of what legitimate behavior, skills, and knowledge characterize the profession at its various levels….dependence on the technology and professionalism of centre ELT…serves to facilitate the reproduction in the periphery of the institutions and practices of the Center and militates against finding (more appropriate) local solutions. One can classify this structure as forming part of 'educational imperialism'". Phillipson quotes Dale and Wickham (1984, p.43, in Phillipson, 1992, p. 43) who, on the basis of their reading of the

history of aid agencies, indicate that aid agencies fail to detect appropriate problematics and solutions in recipient countries. In addition, Phillipson records that Berman (1982a, 1982b) reviewed activities of aid agencies in Africa, and Sancheti (1984) reviewed activities of aid agencies in India. Analysis of these authors reveals that Center, as part of educational imperialism, determines "education reform and innovation" in Periphery countries. Phillipson quotes Yoloye (1986, pp. 41-42 in Phillipson, 1992, p. 64) who observes that donor agencies set research agenda in Africa: "The current trend in African countries of creating curriculum development centers is a result of the impact of educational ideas and practice from the United States of America…The direction of research is…heavily influenced by the policies and orientations of the donor agencies". Phillipson states that ELT aid involves export of teaching/learning theories of language, skill, and training (1992, p. 64).

Phillipson notes that "Report of the commonwealth Conference on the Teaching of English as a Second Language" defined, determined, and influenced ELT research agenda. The conference took place in 1961, at the University College of Makerere. Representatives from 23 commonwealth countries participated in the conference. This conference made an attempt to crystallize ELT as a non-political and technical field. In the inaugural speech, Michael Grant (conference Chairman) emphasized on the non-political characteristic of ELT. Consequently, the conference report stressed on the technical activities of ELT—dissociating it from politics. Thus it seems that ELT professionalism consciously constructs a false consciousness— i.e. ELT is apolitical. This false consciousness is likely to contribute to the selection/identification of research problematics in the field of ELT. Phillipson observes that by projecting non-political characteristic, ELT tries to dissociate culture and structure [which is not possible]. Phillipson (1992, p. 67) observes: "The belief that ELT is non-political serves to disconnect culture from structure. It assumes that educational concerns can be divorced from social, political, and economic realities…It encourages a technical approach to

ELT, divorced even from wide educational issues." Phillipson refers to neo-Marxist theories to affirm that education/ELT cannot be dissociated from economic structure. Specifically, Phillipson cites Carnoy (1982) who identifies three functions of education: Economic-reproductive (i.e. producing efficient labor force), ideological, and repressive. Phillipson employs this framework to analyze functions of ELT. According to Phillipson, ELT serves economic-reproductive function. To elaborate, state may decide to develop English language skills of its people to gain access to technology, and language curriculum may be designed in synchrony with the specific objectives of the State (i.e. where the language skills would be used). Second, ELT serves ideological function— by representing English language as an instrument of material gain. Third, ELT serves repressive function when English language is used as a medium of instruction, because use of other languages is discouraged in such cases. Thus, ELT is not a non-political activity. Phillipson (1992, p. 74) maintains: "ELT and applied linguistics… are bearers of value judgments which reflect political and socio-historical determinants, though positivistic science attempts to exclude such matters from its preview at its peril".

Phillipson explains the mechanism of *research monopoly* of Britain and America in the field of ELT. For instance, Phillipson notes that Drogheda Report (1954) envisaged the installment of a desire to learn about British people and culture through teaching English (pp. 145-146). This policy carries implication for research agenda in ELT around the world. Besides, Drogheda report (1954) saw teaching of English as a tool to reap benefit in foreign trade— by influencing public opinion of different nations. Phillipson notes: "ELT is unquestionably neo-colonialist and operates within a framework of imperialism" (p. 152).

Phillipson quotes Bourdieu (1982) who states that language creates and recreates mental structures. ELT research, according to Phillipson, does not concentrate on examining the mutation of mental structure caused by English language. Phillipson writes: "What is at

stake when English spreads is not merely the substitution or displacement of one language by another but the imposition of new 'mental structures' through English….yet the implications of this have scarcely penetrated into ELT research or teaching methodology" (p. 166).

British council, an agent of English language teaching, does not disburse fund for ELT research. It finances for improving language proficiency test. In the 1960s, British universities concerned themselves with language teaching or teacher training rather than research. Research activities were left for individuals. The individuals who were expected to conduct research were engaged in consultancies, lecture etc. in the periphery. These individuals in the periphery are connected with British council, and they function to export center ideas to periphery, and collaborate in the maintenance hegemony of the Center. Besides educational/ELT aids strongly discourage hardcore research. The 'aid' money is intended to arrange teacher training programs, consultancy etc. Phillipson records: "Researchers from the Centre can of course learn a great deal during brief visits to the Periphery, but the general orientation and structure of 'aid' activities militates against hard research. The 'aid' effort tends to get channeled into teacher training, advisory work, and the like, rather than into research" (p. 227).

Phillipson provides an example of biased research undertaken by Center (Ford Foundation) in Periphery. The title of the study was "English-Language Policy Survey of Jordan. A Case Study in Language Planning". Phillipson refers to Jernudd's critique of this study who found that the questionnaire used in this study was manipulative; the study ignored the holistic language planning issue; and the author appeared to be ignorant about the connection between 'needs' and socio-economic differential of the country Phillipson (1992, p. 229).

Phillipson quotes Anna Obura, a Kenyan scholar (1986, p. 415, in Phillipson, 1992, p. 232) who describe the condition of research in the field of language education. Obura points out that the speed of research in language education is slow; research community is tiny; research output is unsatisfactory and marginal. This apart, Phillipson identifies the purpose of Anglo-American ELT activism. Phillipson records that the purpose of Anglo-American ELT activism is to influence and dominate the language education system of Periphery. Britain and America strive to continue their hegemony in the post-colonial world by exporting ideology of the Center to Periphery, and by distributing ideology of the center. They can hegemonize a periphery scholar and confirm ideological subservience when the periphery scholar conducts research or receives education in the Center. British universities are unwilling to conduct any research that might be beneficial for Periphery countries. Besides, Anglo-American ELT paradigm maintains an impression that the field of ELT does not need to conduct research, because existing ELT paradigm can offer solutions to all kinds of problems. In Phillipson's words: "Seen from a structural point of view, what was important for the British and the Americans was to have a bridgehead in the periphery, an influential voice in Ministries of Education, teacher training colleges, and so on. This the centre has had in the entire post-colonial era, reflecting the fact that in the neo-colonial phase of imperialism, hegemony is maintained by means of ideas and structures rather than force. Strategically speaking, no research was needed. Research by fledging Periphery scholars could best be influenced when it was conducted and 'supervised' as graduate study in Centre countries. And why should the British engage in research which might indicate that there ought to be quite different priorities in education? British universities and research councils, financed by the British taxpayer, were never likely to fund research fund purely for the benefit of a given periphery country. In a sense, the ELT academic world did not need further research either, because their services were already in great demand, thereby creating

the impression that the knowledge, skills, and methods for solving ELT problems already existed" (p. 234).

Phillipson points out that American foundations distribute research fund to establish intellectual hegemony around the world by imposing its value system on the recipient of funds. Precisely, the foundation determines research method and type. Phillipson mentions that Rockefeller foundation of Britain played a determining role in defining content, method, and objective of research in social science in the inter-war period. Likewise, research fund disbursed by America in Periphery countries ensures domination of American professionalism, norms, and values (in research) in periphery countries.

Phillipson (1992, p. 250) notes that ELT is disconnected from macro educational context. Phillipson refers to Parren who remarks that British council tends to draw a demarcation line between language teaching and education. The root of this tendency is historical, because British council operated outside the context of education system. Phillipson (1992, p. 250) quotes Brumfit who maintains that ELT is considered a technical enterprise detached from general education system. Brumfit remarks: "Language teaching was seen to a very heavy extent as something that was a technical matter that could be isolated from the rest of education, and often it would ignore the general educational research". As an illustration, an ELT project of Ford Foundation (from 1964-1969) failed in Nigeria, because it did not take local linguistic and educational context into account. In particular, the western framework of pre-university education was not suitable for Nigeria. This apart, the disconnection of ELT form overall educational context is reflected in the field of "English across the curriculum". This field received scant attention and remained underdeveloped. In Tanzania, ELT has failed to integrate itself with different academic subjects. A conference in Namibia held in 1986 revealed that "English across curriculum received" little attention. Phillipson remarks: "The fact that ELT has traditionally operated in

isolation from thought and practice in general education, is part of the explanation for this failure" (p. 253). In this context, Brumfit remarks: "The training and development of language teaching experts has been very insensitive to economic, social, and political implications of what happens" (Phillipson, 1992, p. 254).

Phillipson indicates that Applied Linguistics is not interdisciplinary, and it does not utilize insights from education, cultural theory, sociology etc. In addition, ELT teacher training is concerned with classroom techniques and material development, and overlooks issues such as social and cognitive variables in learning. Phillipson notes that British council deals with the following issues [from 1978-1989] (cited from Dunford Seminar Report 1988/1989): (1) ESP course design, (2) ELT course design, (3) communicative methodology, (4) design, evaluation, and testing in English language projects, (4) teacher training and the curriculum, (5) design and implementation of teacher training programs, (6) curriculum and syllabus design in ELT, (7) communication skills in bilateral aid projects, (8) appropriate methodology, (9) ELT and development: The place of English language teaching in aid programs, (10) ELT in development aid: Defining aids and measuring results.

Phillipson states that Center defines problems for periphery and offer solutions. In addition, Narrow-technical ELT fails to detect practical and ideological issues/research questions of the Periphery. ELT training also superficially covers social, political, and economic questions. Besides, anglocentrism and professionalism of ELT deter Periphery from exploring its own problems and solutions. In Phillipson's words (1992, p. 259): "Centre perceptions tend to define both the problems to be pursued and the proposed solutions….It is likely that anglocentricity and professionalism effectively preclude the periphery perspective from decisively influencing ELT decisions".

Phillipson (1992, p. 262) identifies the following 'unexplored' issues in ELT: (1) the role of English internationally, cultural and linguistic imperialism, foreign 'aid', hegemony; (2) the role of English in particular periphery countries, nativization, its local origins and local cultural values; (3) comparative educational theory and psychology; (4) intercultural communication, communication in non-Western cultures; (5) language learning, language planning and policy in bilingual and bicultural communities. In addition, Phillipson points out that education in Center does not equip periphery students to undertake research independently. In Phillipson's words: "One consequence of the relatively narrow basis of research has been that Periphery ELT experts sent for training in the Centre have learnt many useful skills but have tended not to be familiarized with research methodology that would be relevant for many applied language tasks on their return home" (p. 312).

In his description of the evolution of ELT as an academic discipline, Phillipson (1992, pp. 177-179) detects Anglocentricity and Eurocentricity in ELT. For instance, British ELT academics (in 1960) believed that only center can establish theoretical foundation of ELT. Second, Center did not allow periphery to exercise autonomy in making any decision about English language teaching. Center decided to determine the needs of periphery. Phillipson writes: "The structural relations between Centre and Periphery ensured that all the beneficial spin-offs would accrue to the Centre, as it built up its research and training capacity" (p. 179).

Phillipson suggests that ELT shows the tendency of subscribing to an "atomistic technocratic approach". Though Phillipson did not elaborate the concept 'atomistic technocratic approach', it can be assumed from the context that the word 'atomistic' refers to sociolinguistic detachment of ELT and the term 'technocratic' refers to reductive use of technology and linguistic theories in language teaching.

Phillipson notes that the blueprint of domination of Center in the field of research and innovation over periphery was designed in the Makerere conference. The conference proposed to establish "Commonwealth English Language Information Center (CELIC)" to accumulate and distribute information about ESL. After Nutford House Conference (took place after a few months of Makerere conference (held at Makerere, Uganda in 1961)), in accordance with the recommendation of the participants, British council built English-Teaching Information Center (ETIC). Parren remarked: "British council was keen to establish such a center so that no one else, for instance the Institute of Education at the University of London or another Commonwealth country, would get in first" (Phillipson, 1992, p. 218). A parallel of this information center was "Center for Applied Linguistics" in America. According to Phillipson:

> The effect of this action was to concentrate information and power in the Centre and maintain the rest of the Commonwealth in a peripheral role. Instead of sharing equitably in the collection and dissemination of information, plans for research projects, and the formation of strategy, the interests of the Periphery were fragmented and marginalized. British academics, publishers and administrators have had incomparably better access to information on ELT in all parts of the Periphery than their counterparts in the Periphery. In Galtung's theory of imperialism, fragmentation and marginalization are two of the four central processes in imperialism, along with exploitation and penetration (1992, p. 218).

2.4 Colonization of Knowledge/Research

In a conversation with David Barsamian in February 2001, Arundhati Roy explains how knowledge is produced and deployed by imperial power to dominate periphery countries. In particular, Roy addresses the issue of ownership and centralization of research. David

Barsamian asks: "You've talked about the colonization of knowledge and its control and a Brahmin-like caste that builds walls around it. What do you think the relationship should be between knowledge and power and politics?" (p. 37). In response to this question, Roy shows the connection between knowledge, power and politics in the activities of multinational corporations and governments of nation states. Roy says that contracts between multinational corporations and government are secret documents. The implications of these documents [knowledge] are not made public. In particular, Roy refers to the contract between Enron and the government of Maharashtra which is a secret document, though people have the right to access to this document. Roy points out that different interest groups conceal politics-economic documents, repercussion of contracts; but contracts are supposed to be disclosed before public. According to Roy, the contract between Enron and government of Maharashtra exemplifies the connection between knowledge and power [in which people were deprived of knowledge]. Roy suggests that education sometimes alienates people from reality. In other words, education systemically obfuscates violence and produces passive and ignorant people. In Roy's words: "Education sometimes makes people float even further away from things they ought to know about. It seems to actually obscure their vision. The kind of ignorance that people with PhDs display is unbelievable" (pp. 37-38).

Roy paints out the dishonesty of experts and consultants. The projects reports of experts and the concrete reality do not match. To put it another way, experts on their project reports misrepresent the reality. Roy sys: "I think you'll see the entire 'development' debate is a scam. The biggest problem is that what they say in their project reports and what actually happens are two completely different things." (p. 38). Roy says that world Bank and WTO bureaucrats have scratched away the power of poor in making decisions. World Bank and WTO bureaucrats have snatched away the power of poor in making decisions. World Bank and WTO bureaucrats make decisions on behalf of the poor. Roy asserts that whatever

decisions they take on behalf of the poor countries—good-or-bad—are politically unacceptable. Roy suggests that consultancy and policy recommendations of WTO and World Bank are new forms of colonization. In Roy's words: "Those men in pin-striped suits addressing the peasants of India and other poor countries all over again—assuring them that they're being robbed for their own good, like long ago they were colonized for their own good—what's the difference?" (p. 38). This apart, Roy says that World Bank controls the production of knowledge to represent its own version of reality. World Bank funds research and sets research agenda to serve its own purpose. Precisely, World Bank legitimizes injustice by its research enterprises. In Roy's words: "The power of the World Bank is not only its money, but its ability to accumulate and manipulate knowledge. It probably employs more PhDs than any university in the world. It funds studies that suit its purpose. Then it disseminates them and produces a particular kind of world view that it supposedly based on neutral facts" (p. 39).

2.5 Academic Imperialism

A very underrated aspect of the global hegemony the US established after the Second World War was the role its knowledge industry came to play in training and nurturing large elements of the ruling strata in the Third World (Ahmed, 2004, p. 254).

Aijaj Ahmed (2004), a political economist of India, contends that academic imperialism consolidated the hegemony of the US. In the post-Second World War era, the "knowledge industry" (p. 254) of the US played a crucial role in establishing hegemony around the world. Knowledge industry of the US hosted and trained elites of the third world. Besides, the US exported its teachers, syllabi, research instrument, libraries etc. as part of academic imperialism. After the Second World War, the US became the leader in the leader in the knowledge industry. In Ahmed's words:

The US developed the largest, best funded, richest academic establishment ever

known to humankind, and systematically set out to bring key intellectual strata from

the newly decolonized countries into its own academic institutions, across the diverse

fields of physical and technical sciences, social sciences and the humanities, arts,

diplomacy, jurisprudence, and so on (2004, p. 255).

Thus, third world intellectuals were integrated into the US academia. To put it

another way, economists, scientists, diplomats, professors, and politicians came under the

hegemony of the US knowledge industry. They began to imitate academic and institutional

practices of the US. The US became the norm-setter in the knowledge industry and culture

industry. Ahmed writes: "There was an attendant training of sense and sensibility, of literary

and artistic taste, of patterns of consumption, the telecasting and absorption of news, the

duplication of forms in the entertainment industry" (2004, p. 256).

2.6 Proletarization of Knowledge

Ahmed Javed (personal communication, 2014) defines the notion of "labor", "proletariat"

and "knowledge proletariat" in the context of his concept of *Proletarization of Knowledge*.

Ahmed contends that the term "labor" encompasses both *manual labor* and *mental labor*. He

categorizes the producer of knowledge as "mental laborer". On the other hand, Ahmed

defines "proletariat" as the class of people who do not own the means of production. He

coins the term *knowledge proletariat* to define those who do not own and control the means

and mechanisms of knowledge production. In other words, Ahmed conceptualizes the

powerless condition of researchers and academicians through his term *knowledge proletariat*.

This apart, Ahmed describes the following mechanism of *proletarization of knowledge*. First,

Euro-American political system creates a new type of leaders by using its academia who

would serve the new world order (i.e. who would ensure the reproduction of the existing

world order both intellectually/ideologically and economically). Second, Euro-American academia controls and monitors (by using its fund/grant) the production and reproduction of pro-capitalist knowledge. To elaborate, it creates a system of sight (i.e. what should be seen) and oversight (i.e. what should not be seen). Third, Euro-American academia tries to control the production of insurgent/useful knowledge by stigmatizing Marxism, Socialism or Left Theory. Fourth, Euro-American academia psychologically colonizes Periphery scholars; therefore, Periphery scholars cannot resist Eurocentrism in research. Thus, Euro-American political system and Euro-American academia disempower researchers and proletarize them by using economic and ideological apparatuses.

Chapter Three

English Language Education Research in Asia

In this chapter, I have made an outline of research activities on English Language Education in Asia. The objective of this outline is to trace the issues, approaches, and methods of ELE research in Asia. In particular, I randomly selected some articles which tried to capture research activities in Asia. I have managed to trace the research practices of the following countries: Hong Kong, Malaysia, GGC countries, Turkey, China, Japan, Singapore, and Choi and Lee's (2008) "Cluster of 16 Asian Countries". These countries appear to deal with similar type of themes using similar type of research methods. In other words, research issues appear to have crystallized in these countries.

2.1 Hong Kong

Poon (2009) (Education Studies at Hong Kong Baptist University) reviews 108 research articles of Hong Kong Produced in the last 25 years. She generated the following five themes to categorize the published articles: (a) English language teaching, (b) English language curriculum, assessment and reform, (c) students' perspectives: Motivation and attitudes, learning experience and strategies, (d) teachers' perspectives: Attitudes and values, language awareness, teacher training and qualifications, and (e) learning outcome: Language use, English standards and the impact on teaching and learning. For this study, Poon selected her articles based on three criteria. The first criterion was thematic relevance, i.e. whether the articles can be subsumed under the above mentioned five themes; therefore, articles on technical aspects of language or linguistics have been excluded. The second criterion was empirical relevance, i.e. whether there is any "empirical component or some data for analysis" (p. 8) in the article; hence, argumentative or discursive research publications have not been included. The third criterion was spatio-temporal relevance, i.e. only those studies

have been included that were published locally or internationally in the last 25 years covering the context of Hong Kong. Poon collected data from both online resources and print resources. Among online resource, she collected data by using "Google", the database "ERIC", and "LLAB". She also used some local and international journals that are not included in these databases. From print medium, she used books, edited volumes, research report series, and local conference proceedings as her data. However, she points out the limitation of her data: "The list is not meant to be exhaustive" (p. 8).

Poon generated five themes based on her notion of the field of English language education (ELE). According to Poon, as a field/discipline, ELE encompasses the field of ELT, the issue of methodology, skills, curriculum, assessment, teachers, students, language use, and English standard.

Poon reviews 33 research articles on ELT. She identifies seven topics in these articles: (1) ELT methods, (2) the teaching of listening, (3) the teaching of reading, (4) the teaching of writing, (5) the teaching of vocabulary, (6) error correction, and (7) NET (Native English Teachers) scheme. Poon locates the following 4 studies on ELT methodology. In particular, Carless (2004) examines how Task-based approach was applied in 3 primary schools, adopting the case study method. In another study, Carless (2007) investigated the implementation of Task-based approach in 11 primary schools by employing survey and interview method. Based on these studies, Carless concludes that Task-based approach has to be modified to meet the needs of the local context. Poon (2004a) in her [own] study invented Integrative-Narrative Method that uses children's literature and integrated skill approach to teach writing. This apart, some studies tried to discover innovative method/technique of teaching English. For instance, Chapple & Curtis (2000) explored the effect of using film in the classroom by deploying survey/interview method; and Klassen & Milton (1999), by using test method, investigated the impact of using multimedia in the classroom. Poon (1992)

conducted an action research to identify the impact of using TV news as an authentic material in improving listening skill. Poon (2009) writes: All "these studies generated positive results in terms of students' attitudes and language skills".

Poon locates 14 studies on writing. In particular, Lo and Hyland's (2007) action research—intended to measure motivation of young learners while writing on topics of interest to them—generated positive results. Five researches (Ho, 2006; Keh, 1988; Li, 1994; Lo, 1996; Pennington & Cheung, 1995) dealt with process writing and student-centered classroom in relation to communicative language teaching. Poon (2004) discovered Integrative-Narrative Method that fuses children's stories and integrated skill approach to teach writing. Ma (1988) and Mak & Coniam (2008) explored the effectiveness of using CALL in teaching writing. In particular, Ma explored the use of "outline planners" whereas Mak & Coniam worked on the use of "Wikis". Poon identifies 3 studies pertaining to feedback on writing. In Tsang, Wong & Yuen's (2000) study, teachers' feedback on both grammar and content had been found useful. Shi (1998) suggests that written comments of teachers, and face to face writing conferences between teachers and students help improve writing skills. Braine (2003) found that peer feedback through using LANs (Local Area Networks) is an effective technique to improve writing skills. These studies adopted the method of content analysis.

Poon examines 3 studies on reading skills. To be specific, Pierson's (1987) content analysis of textbooks in Hong Kong indicates that reading texts are not affectively, intellectually, and culturally relevant for the 14-year-old students. Foo's (1989) study concluded that rhetorical structure of a reading text affects reading recall of L2 readers. This study was conducted by giving students two versions of an expository text with different rhetorical structures. Tinker Sachs & Mahon's (1997) study found that primary children

instead of using phonic rules rely on memory to recognize words. In this study, a test was used as research method.

Poon detects 3 studies on listening skills. Precisely, Young's (1997) study indicates that 'inferencing' and 'elaboration' are two common strategies used in listening. This study interviewed 18 university students. In an experimental study, Poon (1992) found that authentic materials (i.e. TV news) are more effective than standard listening comprehension in motivating and improving listening skills of the students. Coniam (1998) found a CALL software named "Text Dictation" effective in discriminating between different abilities of students. Coniam used test method to draw the conclusion.

Poon examines 3 studies on error connection. In particular, Lee (1997) found that students cannot identify errors due to lack of knowledge in grammar. Lee employed test method in her study. In another study, Lee (2003), by deploying task method, found that teachers' strategies of giving feedback are limited. In an experimental and survey research, Lu (2005) found that explicit feedback on error is effective in poor English environment.

Poon records 2 studies on vocabulary teaching. In one study, McNeill (1991), by using test method, explored how students make sense of formal and semantic value of lexis in reading material. In another study, McNeill (1994), through a comparative study, found that teachers' and students' perceptions of difficulty in vocabulary learning is different. In 1991 study, McNeill suggests that non-native teachers of English do not follow any systematic approach in dealing with pre-taught vocabulary that occurs in reading texts.

Poon documents the findings of 4 studies on NET (Native English Teachers) scheme. Particularly, Tang & Johnson's (1993) study indicates that local English teachers perceive the role of Native English Teachers as evangelical; therefore, they resent NET's presence in Hong Kong. Walker (2001) found a decline in the resentment toward NET. In a case study, Carless and Walker (2006) found that collaboration between NET and LET can improve

language teaching. In a survey, Luk (2001) research identified positive attitude of students toward NETs.

Poon records the following 5 studies on curriculum, assessment and educational reform. In particular, Chan (2002), using survey method, investigated teachers' attitude toward Target Oriented Curriculum (TOC), and found that teachers are skeptic about the innovative curriculum. On the other hand, Carless (1998), in a case study, identified positive attitude of teachers toward TOC. In a longitudinal study about assessment Lewkowicz, Chan & Tong (1991) compared university students' performance between internal English tests and HKALE test (Hong Kong Advanced Level Examination). Chan, Drave, & Wong (1992), in a survey study, tried to determine minimum English language proficiency for the certification of teachers. In a survey study, Lee (2006) found that web-based classroom requires learners to manage learning in a way that is different from traditional classroom.

Poon locates 25 studies pertaining to teachers' values and attitude toward English language teaching, language awareness of teachers, and teacher training and qualifications. To be specific, in a survey research, Lai (1994) found that English teachers prefer flexible curriculum. Lee's (1996) survey study suggests that primary English teachers in Hong Kong understand the significance of having good command over English though they are not confident about their own proficiency over English language. Richards, Tung, and Ng (1991), in a survey study covering 249 teachers, conclude that teachers' goals, values and beliefs correlate with teaching experience, training, and approach to language teaching. Ho, Tang, & Tam (1993) employed interview/classroom observation method and Tsui (2003) adopted case study method to investigate challenges encountered by novice teachers. These two studies indicate that non-English major or professionally non-trained teachers face difficulty in the initial years of teaching; however, increase of knowledge in subject matter and pedagogical skills can lead to the development of teaching expertise. Poon (2008a), in

her mixed method study (pre-and post-interviews, class observations by the researcher, pre-and post-lesson observation conferences between the researcher and the teachers), makes an attempt to find out the implications of action research in complementing formal teacher education program. Man's (2000) study employed survey and interview method. This study demonstrates that there is a gap between government's intention and teachers' beliefs or practices in the classroom. Lee's (1996) survey research reveals that self-esteem of primary English teachers is lower than that of the secondary English teachers. Poon (2008a) suggests that expert advice can help non-English trained teachers develop their awareness about ELT methodology. Two studies of Andrews (1999, 2006) indicate that grammar knowledge of English teachers deteriorate if they do not take any course on grammar after completing teacher training course. Berry (2001) found that teachers tend to use grammatical terminology in the classroom. Tsui and Bunton's (2000) research suggest that teachers adhere to exonormative norms in English use, and they are not conscious about the emergence of 'Hong Kong English'. Lee's (1996) survey study suggests that primary English teachers are uninformed about the significance of culture in ELT. Poon notes that the study of Poon (2008a), Andrews (1992, 2006), Tsui & Bunton (2000) collected data for a long period of time (2-8 years), and used the following methods for data collection: Interviews, observations, conferences, tests, teacher narratives, e-messages, and action research.

Poon documents the findings of the following 6 studies on initial teacher training for pre-service teachers. In particular, Cheng et. al. (1998) found Cooperating Teacher Scheme or 'school mentor scheme' effective. Lo (1996) identified positive impact of internship in teacher education program. These two studies collected data through interviews, surveys, and from [teachers'] journal. Lee (2007) analyzed teacher journals and Lee (2004) examined email dialogue journals to identity their effectiveness in pre-service teacher training program.

Lee found both 'teacher journals' and 'dialogue journals' effective. Pennington & Urmston (1998) and Urmston (2003), employing survey method, discovered negative attitude of BATESL (Bachelor of Arts in Teaching English as a Second Language) toward curriculum of BATESL. The following factor generated negative attitude among BATESL: Theories taught in teacher education program cannot be applied in the classroom due to practical obstacles. Coniam & Falvey (2002), in a study of test takers' attitude toward Pilot Benchmark Test (an instrument of Hong Kong government to judge English proficiency of teachers), found both favorable and unfavorable attitude. The willing participants of the study showed positive attitude towards the test whereas the unwilling participants displayed unfavorable attitude. Coniam (2001) conducted a comparative study on the effectiveness of audio and video versions of listening comprehension used in teachers' certification test. Coniam suggests that audio version is more useful than video mode. Lu's (2007) survey study indicates that linguistic knowledge of English teachers is poor. Poon (2003), intrigued by the poor performance of the first English Benchmark Test of 2001, critically examined the syllabuses and curriculums of Postgraduate Diploma in Education offered in three Universities is Hong Kong, and found that English teachers received insufficient training.

Poon locates 24 research related to learning outcome. She found 4 studies on English standards, 9 on language use, and 11 on the impact of MOI (Medium of Instruction) policy on teaching and learning. In particular, Evans, Jones, Rusmin & Cheung (1998), employing survey and interview method, found that students, teachers, parents, and business people believe that their English proficiency is low or below average. Hung (2000), in an interlanguage analysis of grammatical errors collected from undergraduate students' writing, suggests that grammatical errors occur due to the influence of internalized grammar of students' first language. Stone (1994), by administering ACER Word Knowledge Test, disclosed that the proficiency of English of Hong Kong undergraduate students is low.

Qian's (2007) comparative study of GSLPA (Graduating Students' Language Proficiency Assessment) (a testing instrument developed locally) and IELTS suggests that GSLPA is designed to measure English proficiency for professional purposes whereas IELTS intends to judge test takers' readiness for academic studies.

Poon detects 9 studies that deal with the use of language in secondary schools and universities. To be specific, Johnson & Lee (1987), by employing video study and test method, and Lin (1991), through discourse analysis, reveal that teachers adopt bilingual teaching strategies. The study of Pennington (1997) and Pennington & Balla (1998), using interview method, explored that English is used in lectures, tutorials, reading and writing whereas Cantonese is used outside the classroom. A survey research of Low and Lu (2006) indicates that code-mixing and code switching are common in informal domains of Hong Kong societies. Evans (2000) (in a survey study), Kwan (2000), (in a discourse analysis), and Poon (2000b), (by employing interview and classroom observation method), explored that code-mixing and code-switching frequently occur in the classroom.

Poon locates 11 studies pertaining to MOI policy. In particular, the survey study of Evans et al. (1998) and Tung, Lam & Tsang (1997) reveal unfavorable attitude of students, parents, teachers, and business people toward streaming policy introduced in September 1994, because this policy takes away their freedom of choosing MOI. The respondents of Evans et al.'s study preferred multi-medium education—that is, the use of English, Chinese, and Putonghua in the classroom. On the other hand, Tung, Lam & Tsang's study indicates that students and parents value English over Chinese as MOI. Poon (2000a), in a mixed-method research (interview and case study) of 4 schools, made an attempt to identify some aspects of streaming policy. She collected data through class observation. In addition, she interviewed policy makers, academics, principles, teachers, and students of the selected schools. She found that the streaming policy is not being implemented due to some

obstacles. The study of Evans & Green (2007), Flowerdew, Li & Miller (1998), and Walters & Balla (1998) adopted survey and interview method to investigate de facto MOI at Universities. These studies found that Chinese is used as MOI in the classroom, and English proficiency of students is poor. The survey study of Tse, Shum, Ki and Wong (2001, 2007) and Poon (2008b) investigated the impact of compulsory Chinese-medium policy on pedagogic practices. Tse, Shum, Ki and Wong (2001) found that the attitude of teachers toward Chinese MOI is positive though it was not easy for them to shift from English MOI to Chinese MOI. In another study, Tse et al. (2007) discovered that teachers are not comfortable with the new MOI policy (i.e. shift from English to Chinese), and they expect a flexible MOI. Poon's (2008b) study reported both positive and negative feelings of participants in some schools. Apart from the impact analysis of MOI, some studies such as Ng (2007) and Whelpton (1999) deal with connection between learning and medium of instruction, and attitude toward medium of instruction at school respectively.

Poon documents 21 studies related to students' perspectives. Out of 21 studies, 14 studies are related to students' motivation and attitude, and 7 studies are related to students' learning experience and strategies. The following studies employing both survey and test method (Hyland, 1997; Lin & Detaramani, 1998; Lin et. al., 1991; Lu, Li & Huang, 2004; Peacock, 1998; Poon, 1988; Yang & Lau, 2003) found positive attitude of university students toward learning English language. 7 survey studies investigated motivation and attitude of school students. Specifically, Richards (1994) found that students with intrinsic motivation are less anxious in the classroom. The study of Axler, Yang & Stevens (1998) and Pennington & Yue (1993) indicate that students do not feel that Chinese identity can be threatened by the use of English language. Lai (1996) suggests that English is becoming foreign language rather than second language in Hong Kong. Luk's (1998) research reveals that students prefer British accent rather that Hong Kong accent. 6 studies, employing

survey/interview method, investigated students' English learning experience and strategies. Lewkowicz & Cooley (1998) dealt with university students' learning experience of speaking, and Lai (2001) explored aspects of negotiating meaning. These two researches found that background of students, context, style of lecture, and activity design are related to learning outcome and experience. 3 studies focused on learning strategies. Hepburn (1991) and Lee (1999) discovered that students with high linguistic proficiency tend to use more strategy whereas low proficiency students employ less strategy. The study of Tang & Yang (2001) suggests that young learners may become autonomous learners by creating individual strategies.

By examining the research on English language education conducted in Hong Kong, Poon identifies five issues: English proficiency of Hong Kong students, code-mixing and code-switching in the academic context, Medium of Instruction policy, motivation and attitude of students toward learning English, and competence of English teachers in Hong Kong.

Poon maintains that the debate over the standard of English proficiency of Hong Kong students started in 1980s, and the debate continues until today. Research findings suggest that the standard of English is declining due to the following reasons: Inappropriate approaches and methods, 9-year compulsory education, and lack of skilled teachers. However, only three studies have investigated the standard of English in Hong Kong.

The second issue that emerges from the research is code-mixing and code-switching in the classroom. Code-mixing and code-switching occur at Junior secondary, Senior secondary, and University level since the linguistic proficiency of students is poor. Poon points out that code-mixing/code-switching is criticized and appreciated in Hong Kong. "Education Commission" of Hong Kong (1990) wants code-switching to be reduced. On the

contrary, Li (1998) and Lin (2000) are in favor of temporary and strategic use of code-switching/code mixing, especially to facilitate learning in content subject.

The third issue "Hong Kong government's Medium of instruction policy" centers around the debate of advantages and disadvantages of Chinese Medium Instruction (CMI) and English medium Instruction (EMI). Studies of Cheng, Shek, Tse, & Wong (1973/1979) and Poon (1979) indicate that English medium instruction is harmful for students, because students cannot understand instruction in English.

"Hong Kong students' motivation and attitudes towards English language learning", a fourth issue that emerged in this study, indicates that both school and tertiary students are extrinsically and instrumentally motivated toward learning English. In addition, the students hold positive attitude toward learning English. Nevertheless, learning outcome is unsatisfactory.

The fifth issue concerns the quality of English teachers. Poon notes that 9% primary English teachers and 36% secondary English teachers have necessary first degree and teachers training. Research findings suggest that English teachers in Hong Kong show high degree of professionalism and positive attitude toward teaching English. However, linguistic proficiency of the teachers is low. Besides, novice teachers face difficulty in the initial years. In addition, self-esteem of secondary teacher is higher than the self-esteem of primary teachers.

In her critique of the research practices in Hong Kong, in a section entitled "Reflections on the current situation and on future development", Poon states that educational research should focus on both theory and practice. Based on her reviews of 108 studies on ELF, Poon identifies the following problems of research in Hong Kong. First, research production on ELE is small in Hong Kong. Second, there is no empirical study on CLT or Tasks-based approach though Education Bureaus of Hong Kong advocates the adoption of

these two approaches. Besides, there is no research on the transplantation of western ELT methodology in Hong Kong. The number of studies related to assessment and curriculum reform is small. This apart, studies on motivation and attitude or teachers' belies and perceptions, and standard of English do not take sociological and political issues into account while explaining pedagogic variables.

According to Poon (2009, p. 24), "the scope of research in English language education in Hong Kong in the past 25 years is on the whole quite narrow" and "the research fails to reflect the full picture of English language educational practices in the local setting". She further observes that research methodology such as survey, test, and interview employed in the study is not used vigorously. Deployment of survey and test as a method of data collection only to add empirical dimension in research may lead to "positivistic reductionism"—which means the supply of narrow factual and formal data ignoring their implications. In Poon's (2009, p. 28) words: "It is of course more convincing to present quantitative data to support certain claims in educational research. However, the empirical research must be carefully designed and well justified; otherwise, using surveys and tests casually merely for the sake of including some empirical component in a study will result in positivistic reductionism". Poon observes that the studies conducted in the context of Hong Kong employed convenience sampling, and the sample size of quantitative study is small. In addition, the analysis of data in most of the research is shallow.

In the last section entitled "How the quality and standard of research in this area can be advanced in future", Poon maintains that a research culture should be developed among school teachers and university teachers. She also emphasizes on collaborative research of school teachers and university faculties—since schools teachers have practical teaching experience at grassroots level. Researchers at universities may get adequate data from school teachers. According to Poon, action research should be encouraged as part of teacher

development. This would increase the quantity of research as well. Besides, critics and reviewers of research can help to improve the quality of research. She pleas for research projects addressing macro issues. In Poon's words (pp. 29-30): "Doing action research or reflective teaching can be a much more meaningful option for teacher development on the one hand, and on the other hand for promoting research culture in the field. Research output in terms of quantity can thus be boosted. The quality and standard of research can be enhanced only when there is a critical mass....The scope of research should be broadened and new areas or topics should be explored with a view to reflecting a fuller picture of English language educational practices in Hong Kong. Positivistic reductionism should be avoided regarding research methodology. More vigorous research methods should be adopted, for instance, action research, experiments, classroom observations, on even longitudinal studies".

2.2 Malaysia

Musa et al. (2012) reviewed publications on English language education in Malaysia to identify central problems of language teaching and learning in the country. Specifically, they made an attempt to explore discursive issues connected to English language education in Malaysian context by examining peer-reviewed articles published from 2000-2011. In this study, Musa et al. adopted the method of document analysis, content analysis, and thematic analysis.

Research in Malaysian schools detected negative L1 interference as an influential factor in language learning experience of the students. In other words, negative L1 interference is responsible for the low proficiency of the students. The study of Marlyna Maros, Tan Kim Hua and Khazriyati Salehuddin (2007) suggest that Bahasa Malaysia or Malay grammar interferes with the acquisition of English. The authors, employing the method of error analysis and contrastive analysis, investigated essays of 120 'Form One' students from 6 rural schools located in Pahang, Selangor and Melaka. The study shows that

the following types of error are most frequent among school students: Articles, subject-verb agreement, and copula 'be'.

In another study, Nor Hashimah Jalaludin et al. (2008) found morphological and syntactic distinction between Malay and English. The authors maintain that difference of linguistic system between Malay and English inhibits the acquisition of affixes, plural inflections, copula 'be', subject-verb agreement, and relative pronoun. In this research, the participants were 315 'Form Two' students. The authors suggest that lack of motivation, lack of positive attitude, and lack of conducive learning environment create obstacles in the acquisition of English language.

A third research on students' errors conducted by Saadiyah Darus and Kaladevi Subramaniam (2009) indicate that students are not competent in the following grammatical items: Subject-Verb agreement, use of singular and plural forms, tense, use of appropriate words, and preposition. In this study, the authors examined 72 written essays of 'Form Four' [Grade 10] students from a semi-urban secondary school who had been learning English for last 10 years.

Siti Hamin Stapa and Abdul Hameed Abdul Majid's (2006) experimental research indicates that use of Bahasa Malaysia, i.e. students' L1 can facilitate the process of writing among low proficiency students. In particular, use of L1 helps to generate ideas and to improve content, language, and structure of the essay. Razianna Abdul Rahman (2005) suggests that translation of passage from English to L1 enhances comprehension of a text. Mohd Sofi Ali (2008) presents a different perspective on the use of L1 in the classroom. According to Mohd Sofi Ali, teachers use Bahasa Malaysia in the classroom so that students get good grades in the test.

Radha M. K. Nambiar, Noraini Ibrahim & Pramela Krish (2008) investigated the deployment of language learning strategies by 'Form Two' [Grade 8] students. These authors

found that students do not use their schema or contextual clues to understand reading passage. Further, learners heavily rely on L1 to decode English texts. This apart, some studies concentrated on exploring backwash effect (i.e. impact of testing on teaching) in Malaysia. For instance, Koo Yew Lie (2008) identified the culture of 'privileging examination' in Malaysia. In this context, Musa et al. remarks: "Because of the high importance placed on national examination, it is reported that teachers tend to concentrate on the teaching of grammar and neglect the communicative aspects of language learning in their teaching" (p. 38). According to Ambigapathy (2002), students master grammatical skills through rote learning in order to get good grades in the examination; however, they fail to acquire communicative competence. Ambigapathy further notes that popular teaching method in Malaysia involves solving past-year questions, [working on] works sheets, and exercise books. With regard to methodology, *Education development plan 2001-2010* of Ministry of Education Malaysia (2003) indicated that "teacher-centred approaches" and "chalk-and-talk method" are dominant practice in the classroom.

Musa et al. notes that students learn English as a separate subject for eleven years at school. The learning experience of students at is confined to writing, reading, and grammar. On the basis of the review of research conducted in school context, Musa et al. locate two issues. The first issue is 'mother tongue interference', that is, influence of Bahasa Malaysia in learning English—which lead to "wrong use of English grammatical rules, morphology and syntax" (p. 39). The second issue is: Emphasis on reading, writing, and grammatical skills. According to Musa et al., teaching of English in Malaysia ignores socio-cultural and communicative dimension of language. In Musa et al.'s words: "English language learning is presented as learning a set of language mechanics with 'fixed' ways of using the language; isolated from its communicative use. It is presented as a neutral set of language systems; to be learned and mastered for specific classroom situations. Framed in this paradigm,

arguably, learning English literacy will continually and persistently be regarded as an alien language to the learners' communicative discourse" (p. 39).

Musa et al. generalizes the causes of low proficiency of Malaysian students by analyzing the study of Ambigapathy (2002, 2006), Fauziah Hassan & Nita Fauzee Selamat (2002), Mohd Sofi Ali (2008), Naginder Kaur (2006), Noor Hashimah Abdul Aziz (2007), Razianna Abdul Rahman (2005), Rosemala Ismail (2008), and Zaira Abu Hasan (2008). The causes of low proficiency of students are: low motivation, negative attitude toward learning English, lack of learner autonomy, limited vocabulary knowledge, insufficient exposure to English, high anxiety in the language classroom, backwash effect, reliance on translation from L1 to L2 to comprehend a text etc.

Musa et al. mentions one study that investigated the connection between English language learning and identity. Lee Su Kim (2003) suggests that English language sometimes defines in-group or out-group. Use of English in certain contexts may create antagonism and discriminatory situation because of negative attitude toward English language. Therefore, "it is the *non-use* rather than *the use* of the English language that enhances conformity and acceptance" (p. 43, italics in original). From this study on identity and English language, Musa et al. draws the following pedagogic implication: Material designers and teachers need to be sensitive about the role of English in learners' life.

Musa et al. reviewed Hazita Azman's (1999) study on literacy and language learning. Azman's study of two communities indicates that a child's literacy development does not correlate with its ethnic or socioeconomic background. This finding implies that school rather than home controls child's development of literacy.

On the basis of their survey of research in Malaysian context on language teaching and learning, Musa et al. point out some challenges of ELT in Malaysia. First, the authors question the testing and evaluation system of Malaysia. In particular, they maintain that the

practice of testing isolated skills discourages learners to learn how to use language in meaningful context. Second, decontextualized learning of language would fail to meet the demand of 21st century literacy which requires learners to think creatively and critically. In Musa et al.'s (pp. 44-45) words: "The new literacies for 21st century command for the capacity to negotiate diversity, produce new ideas and think out of the box. The new language classroom should encompass learning environments which encourage critical thinking, foster innovative culture, and acknowledge diversity in global spaces".

Musa et al. point out limitations and gaps in existing research practice in Malaysia and make suggestions for further investigation. According to the authors, research on ELE should examine the use of language outside classroom. Besides, studies on English language teaching and learning should take into account multilingual background of the learners while researching experience of English language learning. In addition, researchers should study learners' perceptions about English language. Besides, curriculum designers should study the practical needs of English language of the learners. Musa et al. remarks that the methods employed to study ELE such as questionnaire, survey or quantitative methods are incapable of capturing complex psychological phenomenon involved in language learning. Therefore, researchers should use qualitative methods such as case study or ethnography.

In short, Musa et al.'s review of research articles in Malaysian context locates the following discursive issues: Negative L1 interference, ignorance of the learners about learning strategies, negative backwash effect, low motivation, inappropriate teaching method, and role of English in constructing negative identity. The authors recommend that in-depth qualitative studies should be conducted to unravel significant factors in English language education.

2.3 China

In their article 'English Language Education in China: A Review of selected research"
Wenfeng (English Centre, The University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong) & Gao (Department
of English, Hong Kong Institute of Education, Hong Kong) (2008) explore research activities
in the field of English Language Education in China.

The authors selected 81 articles on English language education in China from the
following 24 international journals: Applied Linguistics; ELT Journal; English Today;
International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism; International Journal of the
Sociology of Language; IRAL: International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language
Teaching; Journal of Asian Pacific Communication; Journal of Sociolinguistics; Language
and Education; Language and Intercultural Communication; Language in Society; Language
Learning; Language policy; Language Teaching; Language Teaching Research; Language,
Culture and Curriculum; Studies in Second Language Acquisition; System; Teaching and
Teacher Education; TESOL Quarterly; The International Journal of Bilingualism; The
International Journal of Multilingualism; The Modern Language Journal; and World
Englishes. The author collected articles using the on-line library system of the University of
Hong Kong. The year of publication of the articles ranges from 2001-2006. The authors
group the articles into six categories. General Context of ELT in China, English used in
China, Language policy and planning, curriculum implementation, Learners' experiences,
and teacher development.

The author placed 15 papers in the category of 'General context of ELT in China'.
The major theme of this category is "culture of learning". The authors observe that many
articles of this category represented Chinese learners as "reserved", "reticent", and passive.
In addition, English classroom in China has been labeled as "teacher-centered" and
"grammar-focused'. The authors note that claims about Chinese learning culture have been

made with reference to Confucianism, because Confucianism promotes authoritative role of teachers. In other words, the articles of this category identified a conflict between western teaching methods (e.g. communicative language teaching) and Chinese learning culture. However, the authors refute the argument of the articles regarding teaching/learning culture of China. The authors refer to Shi's (2006) survey research ("The successors to Confucianism or a new generation? A questionnaire study on Chinese students' culture of learning English"). Shi found that Chinese students are active learners; prefer to communicate with teachers; and interested in taking part in classroom activities. The authors raise question whether the "quite" characteristic of the students is "situation-specific or culturally pre-set". The authors indicate that the "quiet" behavior of the students may be attributed to several factors. First, students' unfamiliarity with the topic of discussion or low proficiency in English might force students to remain "quiet". Second, teachers may fail to encourage communication in the classroom. Therefore, "it is an over generalization to claim that Chinese students are reticent and passive learners, and interpretations based on cultural attributes may not be considered an easier diagnosis for all problems associated with Chinese or Asian learners" (p. 384). The authors suggest that research on learning culture should consider "contextual reality". In addition, more research should be conducted on students with diverge social, economic, and ethnic background. Further, studies should examine teaching culture together with learning culture.

The second category 'English used in China' contains 25 papers. The major themes of this category are: Varieties of English and linguistic analysis of English used in China. The authors note that teaching/learning English in China dates back to early 17th century. The authors indicate that some articles of this category (e.g. Hu, 2005; Jiang, 2003) argued that English in China experienced the process of nativization and acculturation. Some papers argued in favor of recognizing Chinese English as an "autonomous variety". Hu (2005)

surveyed the attitudes of Chinese EFL professionals [toward China English]; Chen & Hu (2006) investigated attitudes of English native speakers [towards Chinese English]; Kirkpatrick & Xu (2002) observed that Chinese speakers of English are more likely to use English with non-native speakers of English than with native-speakers. The authors remark that Kirkpatrick & Xu's (2002) observation indicates the evolution of Chinese English. This apart, some articles of this category offer linguistic analysis of English used in China. These studies focus on: use of cohesive devices in writing; dialogic and hortatory components in English writing of Chinese students; conversational management in business interactions between Chinese and English [people]; use of English idioms in China etc. However, the authors point out that the question whether the unique characteristics of English used in China are properties of interlanguage remains unanswered. Citing Butler (1997), the authors note that an autonomous variety of English requires the following components: [different] phonological system; local vocabulary; language community with a history; literature [written in the new variety]; and reference texts [e.g. dictionary, grammar] used by the community. The authors observe: "So far, the evidence at hand (as in the papers reviewed in this section) is exciting but is still short of making any substantial claims relating to China's own variety of English" (p. 386). The authors suggest that more research should be conducted on English used in China considering Butler's (1997) criteria.

The third category of articles is "Language policy and planning". This category involves 8 papers which deal with: Models of language education, bilingualism and multilingualism, and English for minorities. The authors note that the articles of this category are concerned with implementation of [macro] English language curriculum in ethnolinguistically heterogeneous China. Some articles of this third category examine whether promotion of English is a threat for ethnolinguistic diversity and tradition of China. Referring to the articles of Adamson (2002), Hu (2005a), Niu & Wolff (2005), the authors

write: "As China has a long sociocultural history and tradition, it becomes a huge challenge for us to deal with the existing set of sociocultural practices, whose integrity may have been threatened by the importation of ideologies and sociocultural practices following the promotion of the English language" (p. 386). Specifically, Adamson (2002) mentions that English language is a tool for modernizing China. On the other hand, Niu and Wolff (2005) observe linguistic imperialism in the "popular zeal for the learning of English" (p. 387). Hu (2002, 2005a) examines the following issues to raise awareness among policymakers: English as a compulsory subject at primary schools; use of content based instruction in teaching English; significance of teacher education; and quality of teaching English in different regions. Some articles (e.g. Feng, 2005; Yang, 2005) point out the challenges in teaching English to ethnic minorities. The authors (i.e. Wengfeng and Gao) indicate that majority of the ethnic minority groups are not economically strong. [Therefore,] research works should be conducted on the relationship between national language policies/curriculum and students' ethnic identity, personality development, and academic performance. In addition, research should empirically investigate the process of implementation (or adaptation) of national policies and curriculum at local level.

The fourth category is "curriculum implementation" which encompasses 16 papers. The themes of these articles include: Curriculum, syllabus, textbook, teaching, and testing. For instance, Adamson and Kwo (2002), reviewing English textbooks of China, argue that the textbooks adopted British or American norm of English and failed to recognize Chinese variety of English. Yin and Chen (2002) maintain that teaching of English literature should be emphasized at university level. They argue against teaching/learning of English for [narrow] instrumental purposes. However, Pang et al. (2002) stress on the pragmatic necessity of English language. Besides, Cheng (2002) maintains that "ELT needs to have a character of humanistic/philosophical education; otherwise, ELT will degenerate into service

teaching and fail to achieve one of its integral objectives, namely an understanding of cultures/civilization of English-speaking peoples" (p. 388). Tang and Nesi (2003) detected discrepancy between curriculum objectives and classroom practices. Fang and Warschauer (2004) explored positive impact of technology [in teaching English] in East China (e.g. learner autonomy, authentic interaction etc.). Hu (2005b) explored the differences in classroom practices in different regions of China. The authors remark: This study "contributes to the break-down of a homogenous China often portrayed in research literature" (p. 389). The authors suggest that economic inequality should also be considered as a variable while describing heterogeneity of Chinese students.

The fifth category is "Learners' Experiences" which contains 14 papers. These papers focus on the following issues: processes of students' linguistic production; learners' cognition; background knowledge [of students]; motivation; identity; personal accounts of language learning; academic publication; teachers' pedagogic interventions; [description of] successful and unsuccessful learners of [English] language. However, the authors observe that most of the papers in this category dealt with Elite Han [ethnic group] of tertiary level. The authors observe: "Ethnic minority students in China are...alarmingly underrepresented in the journal papers reviewed" (p. 390). Apart from this, the authors note that out of 14 articles only 1 paper dealt with young learners, and 1 paper dealt with secondary level.

The authors indicate that research activities on exclusively limited subject and setting (i.e. Elite Han students and tertiary level) obfuscate the learning experiences of divergent subgroups of English language learners. The authors suggest that more research should be conducted on the learning experiences of ethnic minority students.

The sixth category is "Teacher Development" which contains 3 papers. Wang (2005) describes her own experience of working as a teacher and researcher; Wu (2006) explains

Exploratory Practice (EP) model [of teaching] in the context of China; and Wang (2001) sheds light on the facilities of teacher education.

Finally, the authors suggest that future research should address the following issues: language policies for ethnic minority students; implementation of language policies; learning experiences of ethnic minority students; teaching-learning practices in non-elite colleges, and primary and secondary level institutions.

Hu (n.d.) also analyzed research activities in China. Hu notes that in the late 1970s ELT researchers in China became "overwhelmed" by the development of applied linguistics in the West. As a response, China began to interpret and introduce western linguistic theories, syllabus, teaching materials, and international English texts. Nevertheless, China failed to conduct any empirical research. Most of the published research of this decade can be designated as "work report"—rather than rigorous research. The research articles mainly contained anecdotes, general suggestions or impressionistic discussion. Hu (n.d., p. 62) writes:

> There was, however, little empirical research on ELT and applied linguistics done during the first decade of opening up and reform. Most of the so-called research published took a work report format—"a general summary of the authors' achievements in the past with anecdotal support, followed by general suggestions for future practice"…"Other research included impressionistic discussions of the application of imported theories and teaching materials on the basis of personal experience in the classroom. Such "barren empiricism" (G. Z. Xu, 1996, p. 8 in Hu, n.d., p. 62) apparently could not meet the needs of ELT development in China.

In the late 1980s, China began to realize its limitations of research in the field of ELT. ELT researchers strongly demanded a change in research practice. They "called for a shift

from work-reportism to rigorous, data based research" (Hu, n.d., p. 63). As a consequence, the quality of ELT research, as Hu indicates, improved in China. Nevertheless, Hu notes:

> It must be acknowledged, however, that much of the research being done currently is still non-empirical and merely reports on personal experience in following new teaching methods, new textbooks, new curriculums, and so on. Because of the rapid introduction of the new curriculums, syllabuses, and teaching materials, there are great demands for models operation to emulate, and, consequently, many research-minded teachers are preoccupied with descriptions of effective use of new textbooks, useful classroom techniques, and so on. There is an apparent need for more research that seeks to answer clear and specific research questions, adopts systematic data collection, and employs rigorous analysis techniques (n.d., p. 63).

2.4 GCC countries

In his article "Advancing English Language Teaching research in Gulf Cooperation council states universities" Issa (ELT Assistant Professor & the Assistant Dean for Postgraduate Studies & Research at College of Law, Sultan Qaboos University) (2011) explicates the condition of ELT research in Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC). The following countries constitute GCC: Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, and United Arab Emirates).

The author reviews the works of Akkari (2004) and UNESCO report (2005). Akkari, in his article, "Education in the Middle East and North Africa: The current situation and future challenges", maintains that research output in MENA countries is "inadequate" and "limited". In addition, research activities in these countries are disconnected from "international research networks". According to the UNESCO (2005) report, Middle East is the "least research-and-development-intensive region in the world" (p. 65).

The author, citing Moody (2009), Syed (2003), Zughoul (2003), and World Bank report (2008), points out some common concerns of ELT research in GCC countries. In

particular, Moody indicates that implementation of communicative language teaching approach in GCC countries is not satisfactory. Syed maintains that English proficiency of GCC students is low. Syed detected the following causes of "students' poor output in English": Absence of motivation, rote memorization, use of backdated curriculum and methodology, lack of trained teachers, and influence of high-stake tests (e.g. TOEFL, IELTS). Zughoul contends that English language teaching approach, methodology, and curriculum [in the Arab world] should be changed. World Bank report defined education system of GCC countries as teacher-centered and textbook-focused. In addition, GCC countries encourage memorization and attainment of declarative knowledge at the cost of procedural knowledge. The education system does not develop higher order thinking skills of students. Besides, individual differences of students do not receive much attention. Issa remarks: "Published and writen research about ELT in the GCC states thus shows that there are common features and themes, which constitute a platform for significant and long-lasting research collaboration" (p. 66). Issa indicates that research on ELT in GCC countries may focus on the following issues: Male students teachers' reluctance to embrace ELT as a career; drift between school outcomes and the labor market; time allocated to ELT on the national curriculum; teaching maths and science through English; material and textbook selection and design; computer-assisted language learning; teachers' professional development; assessment policy and practice; teacher training and education; classroom management issues; content-based instruction; extra curricula activities; teaching the four skills; independent learning; teaching vocabulary; task-based teaching; teachers' workload; student motivation; teaching grammar; nationalizing ELT; teaching spelling; critical thinking; culture in ELT; private lessons; error analysis; lesson plan; homework; and class size.

2.5 Vietnam

In the article "Researching the research culture in English language education in Vietnam" Hiep (University of Hue, Vietnam) (2006) explores research culture of Vietnam. In this study, the author interviewed 7 English language teachers of Vietnam. Among these 7 participants, 5 received degrees from English speaking countries. Besides, 5 participants completed MA in TESOL or applied linguistics, and 2 participants earned doctorate.

The participants of this study were asked about their conception of research. Majority of the respondents replied that research means investigation into classroom practice with a view to improving teaching/learning. The author quotes responses of two participants. Xuan (pseudonym) replied: "For me I think that research is not something big and too academic as some people think. In our daily teaching, we may come up with some particular problem and this urges use to explore why this problem exists and if there is any possible solution to it". Bao (pseudonym) responded: "There are some aspects about teaching and if we learn it only from the training course...I mean the theory, it can be like this, but when we put it into practice, it might be different, I mean we might not be successful in applying what we have learnt from training...the theory, thus there need to be some investigation into what does not work in the classroom. For example, communicative language teaching sounds very interesting and useful in theory, but often it is not used successfully in the Vietnamese classroom, so we need to reflect on it, we need to identify whether and to what extent it is suitable to the Vietnamese classroom...We might ask students and colleagues to find out the answers, and share our experience, then report the findings at staff seminars. This is research in my view". Based on these responses, the author concludes that Vietnamese English language teachers' view of research center around classroom issues. The author writes: "Vietnamese university teachers of English basically see research as an investigation into a classroom issue and problem. Many of these teachers aspire to do research to improve their

teaching practices". Apart from teachers' conception of research, this study also unravels of tension between different research paradigms in Vietnam. Some respondents informed that research evaluation committee in different institutions believe that research means large sample, statistics, tables, charts, and graphs. In addition, research evaluation committee is uncooperative. Further, the members of the committee are ignorant of divergent research paradigms or approaches that exist in the world. The author quotes responses of Xuan, Hoai, aned Binh. Xuan said: "Sometimes the feedback is destructive rather than constructive. I mean they criticize you by pointing at some trivial things. I mean they do not ask questions with a view to helping the presenter do better but they tend to challenge, and test the researcher's knowledge, sometimes to make her lose face". Xuan (pseudonym) further remarked: "It seems that they do not understand, see the meaning of qualitative research. For many of them, statistics with tables, charts and graphs look more scientific and more convincing. My previous research focused on seven teachers and a dozen of students, but they said the number is not sufficient and thus no findings could be made based on this small number. I said, of course I did not mean to generalize my findings to other contexts. I tried to argue that I talked from a certain angle or a certain aspect, but it is very hard to argue...because they and I do not share the basic view". Hoai (pseudonym) said: "I presented the findings of a project I did some years ago, this project was about group work with a survey and interviews conducted with 30 students. Some people in the committee questioned why I had not surveyed 1000 students". Binh (pseudonym) said: "You can do qualitative but there will be a lot of questions raised when you present it to the committee...if you want your research to look good to them, you must combine qualitative and quantitative methods".

2.6 Turkey

In the article "Research engagement in English language teaching" Simon Borg (School of Education, University of Leeds, UK) (2007) reports research engagement of English

language teachers of Turkey. The participants of this study include 50 English language teachers who teach at tertiary level in Turkey. The author elicited data using closed-ended self-report questionnaire. The objective of this study was to explore teachers' perception of research and their research activities.

The respondents were asked to rate 'scenarios' (10 scenarios) as: 'definitely not research', 'probably not research'', 'probably research', and 'definitely research'. However, the author divided the elicited responses into two categories: 'research' and 'not research'. Analysis of data reveals that 98% participants rated the following scenario as research: "A university lecturer gave a questionnaire about the use of computers in language teaching to 500 teachers. Statistics were used to analyse the questionnaires. The lecturer wrote an article about the work in an academic Journal". The author remarks that teachers identified this scenario as research since it includes the use of 'questionnaire' and 'statistics'. 87.5% participants (second highest) rated the following scenario as research: "To find out which of two methods for teaching vocabulary was more effective, a teacher first tested two classes. Then for 4 weeks she taught vocabulary to each class using a different method. After that she tested both groups again and compared the results to the first test. She decided to use the method which worked best in her own teaching". The author comments that participants rated this scenario as research because they tend to relate pre/post-tests with features of research. 73.5% respondents rated the following scenario as not research: "Mid-way through a course, a teacher gave a class of 30 students a feedback form. The next day, five students handed in their completed forms. The teacher read these and used the information to decide what to do in the second part of the course". 68% teachers detected the following scenario as 'not research': "A teacher noticed that an activity she used in class did not work well. She thought about this after the lesson and made some notes in her diary. She tried something different in her next lesson. This time the activity was more successful".

The author asked participants regarding the "characteristics of good quality research". The respondents, in this case, were required to identify some statements as 'less important' or 'more important'. Analysis of data discloses that the first 'more important' statements recognized by the participants was: "The researcher is objective" (97.9%); the second more important statement/quality of research was: "Hypotheses are tested" (87.5%); the third 'more important' statement was: "Variables are controlled" (79.2%). The author remarks: "Taken together, teachers' views here reflect a conception of research where objectivity, hypothesis testing, and the manipulation of variables are fundamental concerns" (p. 737). This apart, teachers were asked about reasons for conducting research. Majority of the respondents reported that they carry out research to solve problems in teaching; to discover better techniques of teaching; and to develop professionally. Teachers were also asked about the reasons for not conducting research. Majority of the teachers reported that they cannot manage time to conduct research. Some teachers responded that carrying out research is not their job ("My job is to teach not to do research" (p. 742)).

2.7 Choi & Lee's (2008) Cluster of 16 Asian Countries

In their article "Current Trends and Issues in English Language Education in Asia" Choi & Lee (2008) discusses the issues of ELE in Asia. Choi is a professor of English Education at Ewha Womans University in Seoul, Korea. She obtained PhD in Applied Linguistics from the University of Illinois. On the other hand, Lee is a professor of English Language & Literature Department at Korea Maritime University, Korea. He is the founder of Asia TEFL. Though this article does not offer a review of journal articles in Asia, I have selected this article for the following reasons. First, this article reflects the epistemological/academic collective unconscious of the ELT professionals. Specifically, this article not only exhibits the epistemological unconscious of Choi and Lee who are leaders of Asia TEFL, it also reflects the academic unconscious of the leading ELT experts of Asia. Precisely, this article

unravels the psyche of the ELT professors who cannot think beyond some cliché issues—for most of the ELT professors, ELE problems are some administrative-logistic-policy related issues. Second, this article identifies central issues in the field of English Language Education in Asia. It can be insinuated that these issues are also central research issues in Asia. Thus, this article reveals what Asian ELT researchers see and does not see (i.e. sightings and oversights). Additionally, this article appears to produce a *crystallization effect.* By the term *crystallization effect,* I mean an impact of these issues on the research community of Asia. In other words, research community of Asia may revolve around these issues, oversighting other significant issues.

In this article, Choi and Lee list the following 10 categories of ELE issues to interview ELT professors from 16 countries of Asia: the starting grade, class hours, national curriculum, textbooks, the medium of instruction, the use of computer, university entrance examination, teachers, tertiary English education, and problems and concerns. The researchers interviewed ELT professors (1 or 2 from each country) from the following countries: Korea, China, Japan, Indonesia, Malaysia, Singapore, Thailand, the Philippines, Vietnam, Bangladesh, India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Iran, Israel, and the UAE. In the section entitled "The status of English", the authors document the status of English in the selected countries. For instance, English is a second language in Malaysia, the Philippines and Sri Lanka; both second and foreign language in Hong Kong, Singapore and Bangladesh; and foreign language in Korea, Iran and Israel. In the section entitled "The Starting Grade of English Language Education" the authors record that English is introduced in the first grade in most of the countries. For instance, Bangladesh, Thailand, and the UAE teach English from the first grade. In the section entitled "English Class Hours", the authors note that in primary English education, ESL context teaches English 4 to 10 hours per week whereas EFL context teaches English 1 to 4 hours per week. In the section entitled "National English

Curriculum", the authors point out that curriculum of all the selected countries are determined and controlled by their government. In other words, the selected countries follow a top-down process in designing and implementing curriculum (in primary and secondary levels). In the section entitled "School Textbooks", the authors write that in most of the countries, governments produce textbooks for their schools (primary and secondary level). In the section entitled "Teaching English through English", the authors note that English is taught in English in the following 5 Asian countries (ESL context): Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, Sri Lanka, and the UAE. Both English and the native language is used (at tertiary and senior secondary level) in Bangladesh, India, and Indonesia. In the section entitled "The Use of Computer for English Language Education", the authors note that in most of the selected countries, computer is used in English language education. In particular, the countries use power point, internet, CDs, e-books, and word processors. In the section entitled "The University Entrance Examination", the authors note that (on the basis of data derived from the respondents) most of the countries arrange nation-wide university entrance examination. The entrance examination questions include MCQ, TF question, fill-in-the-blank, SAQ, essay, oral test, summary, letter writing, and translation. In the section entitled "English Teachers", the authors record that generalists [General teachers] teach English in some countries (e.g. Thailand, Bangladesh) and specialty teachers teach English in some other countries (e.g. China, Israel) at primary level. However, most of the English teachers at school level in most of the countries are NNESTS [Non Native English speaking Teachers]. In the section entitled "Tertiary English Education", the authors point out that all the countries (excluding Israel) teach EGP courses [English for General Purposes] at tertiary level. In the section entitled "English-medium subjects", the authors record that in most of the countries, English is used as a medium of instruction in non-English courses at tertiary level.

In the section entitled "problems and concerns in primary and secondary English Education", the authors, on the basis of responses of the ELT professors, locate 9 types of concerns in English Language Education at primary and secondary level: Sociocultural or linguistic context (e.g. lack of authentic language use environment in China), English language education policies (e.g. lack of state support in India), class size and hours (e.g. large class in Bangladesh and less class hours in Taiwan), curriculum and learning contents (e.g. low curriculum standard in the UAE at secondary level), Teaching methods and materials (e.g. lack of resources in Pakistan and China), students (e.g. lack of students motivation in Indonesia and Malaysia), teachers (e.g. lack of qualified teachers in Korea and China), and parents (e.g. lack of rural parents' support in Malaysia). Thus, the issues and concerns of English Language Education center around technical and administrative factors. In their suggestions for future research, Choi & Lee, like the interviewed professors, fail to go beyond the cliché issues. Choi & Lee (2008, p. 28, italics mine) write: "In addition, a survey is needed on the topics not investigated such as *teaching methods* and *techniques*, *teacher-student interaction* in order to shed light on what happens in real classrooms".

2.8 Japan

Iino (n.d.) describes issues of English language education in Japan. The issues of English language education in Japan include introduction of communicative approach, emphasis on listening and speaking at junior high school level (since 1999), university entrance examination (i.e. necessity of paying attention to listening and speaking skills), introduction of English at primary level, officialization of English language, low scores of Japanese students in TOEFL. Therefore, it may be inferred that research topics/questions revolve around these issues.

Table 3.1 shows the research themes in different countries of Asia. In the table, I have labeled some data as "inferential" because the sources of these data did not directly deal with research themes.

Table 3.1

Research Themes in Asian Countries

Country	Source	Themes
Hong Kong	Poon (2009)	(a) English language teaching ((i) ELT methods, (ii) the teaching of listening, (iii) the teaching of reading, (iv) the teaching of writing, (v) the teaching of vocabulary, (vi) error correction, and (vii) NET (Native English Teachers) scheme), (b) English language curriculum, assessment and reform, (c) students' perspectives: Motivation and attitudes, learning experience and strategies, (d) teachers' perspectives: Attitudes and values, language awareness, teacher training and qualifications, and (e) learning outcome: Language use, English standards and the impact on teaching and learning
Malaysia	Musa et al. (2012)	L1 Interference, Error Analysis, Learning Strategy, Testing and Evaluation, Teaching Four Skills, Backwash Effect, Teaching Grammar, Language Learning and Identity, Literacy and Language Learning

China	Wenfeng & Gao (2008)	General Context of ELT in China (i.e. Culture of Learning), English used in China, Language policy and planning, curriculum implementation, Learners' experiences, and teacher development
	Hu (n.d.)	Teaching methods, Textbooks, Curriculums
GCC Countries	Issa (2011)	Communicative Language Teaching, SLA, Skill Development, Teacher Training, Testing and Evaluation
Vietnam	Hiep (2006)	Classroom Research/Action Research [inferential data]
Turkey	Borg (2007)	Classroom Research/Action Research [inferential data]
Korea, China, Japan, Indonesia, Malaysia, Singapore, Thailand, the Philippines, Vietnam, Bangladesh, India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Iran, Israel, and the UAE	Choi & Lee (2008)	The Starting Grade, Class Hours, National Curriculum, Textbooks, The Medium of Instruction, The Use of Computer, University Entrance Examination, Teachers, Tertiary English Education (i.e. Curriculum), Primary and Secondary English Education (i.e. Class Size, Methods, Materials etc.) [inferential data]
Japan	Iino (n.d.)	CLT, Speaking and Listening, Testing and

		Evaluation, Language Education Policy

Chapter Four

Method

I

Louis Althusser (1968), a French Marxist, systematized the method of 'symptomatic reading'

in his book *Reading Capital* while reading Marx's *Capital*. Althusser notes the following

features of symptomatic reading: (a) symptomatic reading is a negation of

superficial/immediate reading (which simply decodes presence of logos) and Hegelian

reading (which constitute whole using parts); (b) symptomatic reading constitutes

'problematic' and uncovers a text's unconscious; (c) symptomatic reading unsettles the

relationship between Logos and their meanings; and (d) symptomatic reading records

sights/oversights and presence/absence, and explains the causes of sights/oversight (i.e. how

sight/oversight is systematic, an outcome of the mechanism of knowledge production).

Symptomatic reading can be defined as a philosophical reading. A philosophical reading

transgresses discursive boundary. Precisely, a philosophical approach to texts does not posit

questions from the standpoint of any established discipline such as economics, history or

philology. Philosophical reading poses questions regarding the 'object' of a text and the

text's relationship with the 'object'. Althusser puts forward the following questions while

reading capital: (a) how the object of *Capital* differs from the object of classical political

economy; (b) how the object of *Capital* differs from Marx's early works; and (c) how the

discourse of *Capital* differs from the discourse of young Marx. Althusser notes that a

disciplinary reading of *Capital* subscribes to the principles of a particular discipline, and

hence inspects a pre-defined object. For instance, an economist reading *Capital* would

concentrate on examining economic content in capital; would relate it with economic

discourse exclusively; and would avoid questioning the object. A historian would examine

historical object, and would ignore questioning the object. A logician would operationalize mechanics of logic, and would ignore questioning the object. But a philosophical reading means questioning a particular object of a particular discourse; and questioning the connection between the object and the discourse which means analyzing the discourse-object unity. Althusser holds that only philosophical reading can expose the location of *Capital* in the history of knowledge. Some of the philosophical questions that Althusser posits to *Capital* include whether *Capital* is a continuation of classical political economy, whether *Capital* caused epistemological transformation of its object, theory and method, and whether *Capital* builds the foundation of a new discipline etc. Althusser asserts:

> Hence a philosophical reading of *Capital* is quite the opposite of an innocent reading. It is a guilty reading, but not one that absolves its crime on confessing it. On the contrary, it takes the responsibility for its crime as a 'justified crime' and defends it by providing its necessity. It is therefore a special reading which exculpates itself as a reading by posing every guilty reading the very question that unmasks its innocence, the mere question of its innocence: *what is it to read?*" (1968, p. 15, italics in original).

Freud, as Althusser points out, exposes a second layer (unconscious) of listening and speaking—i.e. the meaning of silence. In this context, Althusser records that in the *1844 Manuscripts*, reading of young Marx was immediate. In *Capital*, Marx identified distance and internal dislocation of 'real'—which enabled Marx to break away from the illusion of immediacy. In particular, the residence of historical truth is not manifest discourse, rather the structure of the structure—which is inaudible and illegible. Althusser dissolves the myth of immediate reading by: (a) negating Hegelian totality (i.e. every parts contribute to form a whole [spirit]); (b) by breaking the unity between Logos and Being; and (c) by dissociating essence and meaning.

Althusser explains a 'new theory of reading'. He maintains that reading of Marx entails listening to the reading of Marx himself as well. For instance, Marx reads Smith, Ricardo etc. to his reader. Marx reads masters of Political Economy to establish his arguments. Althusser argues that Marx's reading of Smith or Ricardo encompasses two separate principles of reading. Marx reads the masters of Political Economy (e.g. Smith) situating them in his own discourse in the 'first reading'. The outcome of this reading is the exploration of his predecessor's merits and demerits, presences and absences, sightings and oversights. Althusser writes:

> In fact, this reading is retrospective theoretical reading, in which what Smith could not see or understand appears only as a radical omission…the continuity of Marx's discourse shows the lacunae in Smith's discourse which are invisible (to Smith) beneath the apparent continuity of his discourse (1968, pp. 18-19).

According to this reading, the cause of the 'oversights' is the absence of 'vision'. This reading equates production of knowledge with vision. In Althusser's words: "What Smith did not see, through a weakness of vision, Marx sees: What Smith did not see was perfectly visible, and it was because it was visible that Smith could fail to see it while Marx could see it" (p. 19). This interpretation "reduces Marx to Smith minus the myopia" (p. 19). Thus, the 'first type of reading' recognizes sighting and oversight as 'weakness' of 'vision'. In the second type of reading, Marx transcends the first type of reading. In particular, in the second type of reading, Marx goes beyond locating sights/oversights and presence/absences. In this reading, Marx recognizes that the combination of sighting/oversighting and presence/absences constitute a 'problem'. Althusser exemplifies symptomatic reading from Marx's own reading of classical political economy. In *Vol. I* of *Capital,* Marx reads political economy. In this reading of classical political economy, Marx points out that classical political economy ventures to explain determination of the price of labor. It tries to explain

determination of labor price using demand-supply mechanism. It, next, alienates labor price from laborers and concentrates exclusively on 'price' as the object of analysis. It also calculates the 'mean price' of labor of a number of consecutive years to determine a constant price—i.e. 'natural price' (in Adam Smith's sense). Thus, labor is reduced to a commodity. Next, classical political economy determines the value of this commodity (i.e. labor) by calculating the value/price of subsistence goods essential for the reproduction of the laborer. At this point 'value of labor power' is used in the place of 'value of labor'. The process of equating 'value of labor' with 'value of labor power' leads to dehumanization. Thus, classical political economy shifts its focus from the central question without answering it. In other words, price of labor is not equal to the subsistence for the reproduction of the laborer. Political economy did not compare the value of labor with the value of commodity the labor produces.

Althusser maintains that there is an interrelation between sights and oversights, presence and absence, lack and not lack, vision and non-vision. The organic union between vision/non-vision or sights/oversights constitute a 'problem' to be solved or analyzed. In Althusser's words:

> What classical political economy does not see, is not what it does not see, it is *what it sees*; it is not what it lacks, on the contrary, it is *what it does not lack*; it is not what it misses, on the contrary, it is *what it does not miss*…The oversight is an oversight that concerns *vision*: non-vision is therefore inside vision, it is a form of vision and hence has a necessary relationship with vision" (1968, p. 21, italics in original).

Classical economics asks the following question: "What is the value of *labor*?". In response to this question, it answers: "The value of 'labor' is equal to the value of the subsistence goods necessary for the reproduction of 'labor'". There are two blank slots in this answer: "'*The value of* labour ( ) *is equal to the value of the subsistence goods necessary*

for the maintenance and reproduction of labour ( )'" (two oversights or absences). The text itself reveals its silence. The answer is apparently complete and adequate. However, the answer remains silent about the meaning of the "maintenance of 'labour'" and "reproduction of labour". To solve this problem the following answer is posed: "The value of labor is equal to the value of the subsistence goods necessary for the maintenance and reproduction of the labourer". Marx maintains that the equation (labor=laborer) is wrong. A 'laborer' and 'labor' do not contain similar properties and quality. Besides, 'labor' is sold, not the 'laborer'. Wage buys 'labor', not 'laborer'. The answer exhibits the deletion of its question. The central concept is omitted in the answer:

> It is the answer that answers us about the question, since the question's only space is this very concept of 'labour' which is designated by the answer as *the site of the omission*. It is the answer that tells us that the question is *its own omission*, and nothing else. The question is what the answer omits (Althusser, 1968, p. 23).

Thus, the answer answers a question different from a question that was posed. This "different question" is not uttered in the classical economic text. This "different question" is present in the blank slots/spaces. Marx maintains: "The result, the analysis led to, therefore, was not a resolution of the problem as it emerged at the beginning, but a complete change in the terms of the problem" (in Althusser, 1968, p. 23). The answer answers the following question: "What is the value of labor power" not "what is the value of labor?" The answer (empty spaces) manifests non-vision in vision; absence in presence; and oversight in sight. Symptomatic reading, as Althusser suggests, identifies reasons of oversight, and regards knowledge as a product produced through a certain mode of knowledge production. Why does a discipline oversight something? It cannot be claimed that political economy (a discipline) does not see a pre-existing object; instead, the object that it does not see emerge through the process of knowledge production. In other words, production mechanism itself

produces the object that it oversights. Classical political economy produces a new answer for a question that was not posited, thus unwittingly changes the territory of discussion. However, the answer contains the question that it does not answer. Political economy oversights the new problem because it continues to connect all answers to old questions. Therefore, the new question or new problem remains invisible to it. The emergence of a new problem indexes toward the latent mutation of a terrain. In other words, a new problem (emergence of a question contained in an answer that was not originally posed) indicates entry to a new discursive terrain. The problem denotes the evolution of a new 'problematic' [framework], and probability of a revolution to detect the limits of old theoretical framework. Althusser writes: "Hence what is in balance in this unstable and apparently local event is the possibility of a revolution in the old theory and hence in the old problematic *as a totality*" (1968, p. 25, italics in original). The organic link between presence and absence produces a problematic. The sighting is determined by the structure of discipline (i.e. a definite structured field). Thus, sighting does not depend on an individual, rather "the sighting is the act of its structural conditions…it is this field itself which *sees itself* in the objects or problems it defines" (Althusser, 1968, p. 25, italics in original). The sight defines the oversight. The structure of the field/terrain defines what has to be excluded/oversighted/repressed. This is why classical political economy did not answer the problem [question/concept] 'value of labour'. The structure [framework] of classical political economy is incapable of addressing the problem [question] of 'value of labor'. In Althusser's words: "These new objects and problems are necessarily *invisible* in the field of the existing theory, because they are not objects of this theory, because they are *forbidden* by it" (1968, p. 26, italics in original). "Anything invisible" is not the consequence/outcome of invisible; invisible or exclusion is structured by a particular discipline or a field. To put it another way, the denegation of a field defines its absences and non-visible. Althusser writes that an

"*informed* gaze" is necessary to locate oversights in a text. In other words, one needs to reflect on the 'change of terrain' or problematic to detect oversights. Althusser warns that 'change of terrain' must not be equated with change of viewpoints. Means of knowledge production (i.e. framework/problematic) causes 'oversight' and 'change of terrain'—not subject's/individual's autonomy. However, old problematic can produce a new problem and can lead to a new problematic. When old problematic produces a new problem, the old problematic cannot see it.

Althusser defines Marx's reading of classical political economy as 'symptomatic reading'. Symptomatic reading reveals what a text hides. The oversighted or undivulged texts constitute a 'different text'. Thus, Marx discovers 'two texts' (through informed gaze) in political economy, in his 'second reading'. In the second reading, Marx articulates 'second reading' (i.e. oversighted text). By employing the method of symptomatic reading, Marx revealed invisible problematic by inspecting visible problematic; by discovering an answer that answers a question that was never posited.

Althusser describes the protocol of symptomatic reading. He writes: "This reading was in principle a *dual* reading, the result of a different, 'symptomatic' reading, which introduced into a *question* an answer given to its absent question" (1968, p. 32). It is to note that Feuerbach's anthropological problematic and Hegel's problematic of 'absolute idealism' set the stage for Althusser to read Marx's *Capital* symptomatically. In addition, understanding of Marxist philosophy (condition of knowledge) production enables Althusser to read *Capital* symptomatically.

Althusser points out that the rules of reading of a particular reading method are determined by its *conception of knowledge*. To elucidate the point, Althusser explicates 'empiricist conception of knowledge' (p. 35). This empiricism refers to both 'rationalist empiricism' and 'sensualist empiricism'. The empiricist conception of knowledge outlines a

'process' of interaction between 'object' [of knowledge] and 'subject'. The subject and object constitute a problematic in the process of knowledge production. In particular, the subject produces knowledge through the process of 'abstraction'. In empiricism, knowledge refers to the abstraction of 'essence' from 'real object' by the subject. This is the basic structure of empiricism. 'Real' is a significant category in the empiricist conception of knowledge. In the process of knowledge production, essence is abstracted from real. Althusser constructs an analogy to clarify how essence is abstracted from real. Gold (essence), Althusser writes, is abstracted from dross of earth and sand (real). Gold is an unseparated component of dross. Likewise, 'essence' is an unseparated component of 'real'. Thus, knowledge refers to an abstraction. In Althusser's words: "Knowledge is an abstraction, in the strict sense, i.e., an extraction of the essence from the real which contains it, a separation of the essence from the real which contains it and keeps it in hiding" (1968, p. 36). The process of extraction results in special representation of 'real' and 'knowledge' (essence). The 'real' is composed of two essences: Pure essence (gold/knowledge) and impure essence (dross). In Hegelian term, 'real' is constituted of 'essential' and 'inessential'. The inessential is insignificant. Production of knowledge in empiricism involves elimination of inessential from essential. Thus, "the abstraction operation and all its scouring procedures are merely procedures to purge and eliminate *one part of the real in order to isolate the other*" (Althusser, 1968, p. 36, italics in original). The result of the elimination process [result means pure and perfect real essence] does not contain any trace of elimination operation; only conditions of operation represent the operation of elimination. Condition of knowledge operation reflects the structure of real object. The structure of 'real object' depends on the 'respective positions' of essential and inessential parts. Inessential part exists in the 'outside' of an object (which is visible) and essential part exists in the 'inside' of the object (which is invisible). Therefore, knowledge operation involves removing the cover to

extract the essence, to make the invisible visible. Therefore, "discovery should be taken in its most literal sense: removing the covering, as the husk is removed from the nut, the peel from the fruit, the veil from the girl…" (Althusser, 1968, p. 37). Thus, empiricist conception of knowledge is a differential of vision. It holds that pure essence can be obtained, i.e. knowledge can be obtained by removing impure element from a real object. In other words, pure can be seen only when impure is removed. Thus, in empiricism, knowledge means sights or vision of essence. Althusser writes:

> The empiricist conception may be thought of as a variant of the conception of vision, with the mere difference that *transparency* is not given from the beginning, but is separated from itself precisely by the *veil*, the dross of impurities, of the inessential which steal the essence from us, and which abstraction, by its techniques of separation and scouring, *sets aside*, in order to give us the real presence of the pure naked essence, knowledge of which is then merely sight" (1968, p. 37, italics in original).

Thus, knowledge is real part (essential, internal, hidden) of a real object which is invisible in the first sight. Knowledge is existent/present in the real object. Knowledge operation is also manifested in the "structure of the real object" (i.e. inessential part has to be eliminated from essential) (Althusser, 1968, p. 38). According to Althusser, "this investment of knowledge, conceived as a real part of the real object, in the real structure [inside and outside] of the real object, is what constitutes the specific problematic of the empiricist conception of knowledge" (1968, p. 38). Althusser argues that categories of empiricism (i.e. essential, inessential, real object, outside, inside etc.) constitute the problematics of classical philosophy (from Locke to Condillac). In empiricism, knowledge emerges from real object that contains two parts, essential and inessential. This conception of knowledge produces theory of models, a technical instrument to amass data and ascribe meaning to it. Althusser rejects theory of models as ideology of knowledge.

Spinoza holds, as Althusser records, that 'object' of knowledge is distinctive from 'real object'. For instance, the idea of the circle is the 'object' of knowledge whereas the circle is the 'real object'. Hegel, as Althusser points out, conceives 'real object' as the 'object of knowledge'—a doctrine/conception that Marx rejects. According to Hegel, real is the outcome of thought—a thought which is autonomous. The method that transforms abstract into concrete or that appropriate and reproduces the concrete (real) is 'mode of thought'. It is called 'absolute idealism' in Hegelian philosophy. This 'absolute idealism' or thought-real nexus constitutes problematic of empiricism. Marx rejects Hegelian conception of thought-real nexus and holds that there is distinction between 'real object' (real-concrete) and 'object of knowledge'. The object of knowledge is a product of thought. In addition, the production process of 'real object' and 'object of knowledge' is different. The production process of 'real object' (real-concrete) occurs in real following a real order. On the contrary, the production process of 'object of knowledge' [essence] occurs in knowledge that follows "a different order". The thought categories that reproduce real categories disrupt the order of real—thus the production process [thought categories] redistributes places of real categories. Althusser writes:

> While the production process of a given real object, a given real-concrete totality…takes place entirely in the real and is carried out according to the real order of *real* genesis…the production process of the object of knowledge takes place entirely in knowledge and is carried out according to *a different order*, in which the thought categories which 'reproduce' the real categories do *not* occupy *the same* the place as they do in the order of real historical genesis, but quite different places assigned them by their function in the production process of the object of knowledge" (1968, p. 41, italics in original).

Marx maintains that the production process of knowledge appropriates object of knowledge—which is operationalized by thought. However, Marx does not identify thought with absolute consciousness/transcendental subject. For Marx, 'thought' is a historically constructed system, and is constructed by social reality or 'system of real conditions'. Precisely, 'thought' is constructed by 'mode of production of knowledge'. In particular, 'thought' is constructed by a structure which compounds 'type of object' (i.e. raw material), 'theoretical means of production' (i.e. its theory, its method and its technique, experimental or otherwise), and 'historical relations' (both theoretical, ideological and social). Althusser notes that the mode of production of knowledge emerge from economic, political, and ideological practices. The 'thought' of an individual (operation/constitution of thought) is determined by economic, political and ideological structure. The thought/individual thinks pre-existing problems. Thought is a system—a combination of raw materials (i.e. object of theoretical practice), means of production, and structure of society. Althusser asserts: "It is perfectly legitimate to imagine theoretical practice, i.e., thought's labor on its raw material…as the 'labor of transformation…of intuition [raw material]…and representation…into concepts…" (1968, p. 42). However, the scope, properties and composition of raw material depends on the historical development of knowledge. In developed science, one does not deal with ''pure' sensuous intuition', rather encounters '*ever-already* complex' raw material which is accompanied by technical and ideological component. Hence, empiricist's conception of 'pure object' to be worked on in the production of knowledge is false. Althusser writes: "Therefore, knowledge never, as empiricism desperately demands it should, confronts a *pure object* which is then identical to the *real object* of which knowledge aimed to produce precisely…the knowledge" (1968, p. 43, italics in original).

However, only 'production conditions' cannot help in construction of the 'history of theoretical practice'. To escape from 'structure of theoretical practice', it is indispensable to understand history of knowledge, distinctive modes of theoretical production (i.e. production of ideology and science), distinctive branches of theoretical production and their relations. According to Althusser, the real history of knowledge is characterized by discontinuities (one science rejects ideology of old science), rupture, and re-organizations. Althusser rejects 'teleology of reason' and holds that historical relation between a 'result' and its existence is the relation of production. For instance, the 'gaze' of clinical medicine directed at patient is a production of positive science. Thus, 'madness' is a complex cultural formation manufactured by medical, legal, religious, ethical, and political practice. To put it another way, ideology constructed the pre-history of science. Althusser maintains that it is necessary to examine the relationship between science and ideology, since a science produced by ideology would continue to produce ideological science. Therefore, a history of knowledge has to address the production of science by ideology. However, an 'epistemological rupture' can lead to the beginning of a new science.

Althusser records that the production process of 'real object' occurs in real; it follows a real order of real genesis; on the contrary, the production process of object of knowledge occurs in thought—thought categories reproduce them—therefore, their order is redistributed, different. In short, 'order of real' and 'order of essence'—produced by thought categories—are different. The 'order' in the genesis of 'real object' and in the 'object of knowledge' is different. According to Marx, the order governing categories of thought that produces knowledge and the order governing real categories in historical development (genesis) are not similar. Althusser points out that majority of the interpreters failed to understand 'logical order' (order in knowledge, theorization) and 'historical order' (order in object reality, raw material), because they failed to constitute a Marxist problematic. Althusser notes that some

interpreters of *Capital* placed the question (logical/historical order) in empiricist problematic; others posited the question in Hegelian problematic. In empiricist problematic, 'real order' and 'logical order' are identical, and logical order is contained in real order. In Hegelian problematic, 'real order' is followed by 'logical order' because logical order is the essence. Althusser defines both empirical problematic and Hegelian problematic as ideological. He places the question of 'order' in Marxist theoretical problematic. Marxist theoretical problematic differentiates between 'real object' and 'object of knowledge'. Thus, it also distinguishes between 'real order' and 'logical order', and does not assume any necessary relationship between the two orders. The two orders are completely different. In addition, there is no one-to-one correspondence between 'logical order' and 'real order'. Rather bourgeoisie society is constituted by articulated-thought-totality. In other words, 'logical order' and 'real order' are 'articulated combination', a synthesis that constructs bourgeoisie society. In 'articulated-thought-totality', knowledge is claimed as a manifestation of reality without distortion. Althusser notes that 'scientificity' of a particular moment/time requires specific 'form of order'—to recognize a practice as scientific practice. Production of 'different forms' has a history which determines theoretical practice (i.e. production of knowledge which validates norms). The history of forms of order is the history of "the force and value of a proof". This history is the history of the 'theoretical'; this history is the history of production; this history constructs the 'theoretical problematic' in the history of knowledge.

Althusser notes that the history of ideological philosophy does not address relevant question. Precisely, it avoids formulating the problem that the problematic demands. They provide solutions without positing the question. History of ideological philosophy refers to 'theory of knowledge' or 'problem of knowledge'. This philosophy (Western idealism) is ideological because it poses question from the boundary of ideology. Althusser defines

'problem' of knowledge as ideological, ideological philosophy formulates question on the basis of pre-existing answer. The 'problem' (question) is not the real problem; it is a 'problem' to validate pre-existing ideological solution. In ideological philosophy, the 'problem' is posed to explicate a 'solution', to validate a solution—a pre-existing solution supplied by extra-theoretical forces (e.g. religious, ethical, political). In Althusser's words:

> In the theoretical mode of production of ideology…the formulation of a *problem* is merely the theoretical expression of the conditions which allow a *solution* already produced outside the process of knowledge because imposed by extra-theoretical instances and exigencies (by religious, ethical, political or other 'interests') *to recognize itself* in an artificial problem manufactured to serve it both as a theoretical mirror and as a practical justification. All of modern Western philosophy, dominated by the 'problem of knowledge', is thus in fact dominated by the formulation of a 'problem' posed in terms and on a theoretical basis *produced* (whether consciously, as by some, or unconsciously, as with others, is not important here) in order to make possible the theoretico-practical effects expected of this *mirror recognition*. In other words, the whole history of Western philosophy is dominated not by the 'problem of knowledge', but by the ideological *solution*, i.e. the solution imposed in advance by practical, religious, ethical and political 'interests' foreign to the reality of the knowledge, which this 'problem' *had to* receive. As Marx put it so profoundly in *The German Ideology*, '*Not only in their answers but in their very questions there was a mystification*'" (pp. 1968, pp. 52-53).

Thus, Western philosophy repeats false questions and false answers. The ideological space is a closed space. Althusser asserts that the ideological space has to be abandoned; one must leave the ideological space to posit correct question that does not presuppose the answer. A new space has to be opened in a different site to pose new question—non-

ideological questions. The 'problem of knowledge' in Western Philosophy is a 'closed space', a 'vicious circle'. Althusser maintains: "Not the repetition but the non-repetition of this space is the way out of this circle" (1968, p. 53).

According to Marx, as Althusser records, 'whole' [totality] is a 'thought-whole'—produced by thinking mind; a thinking mind appropriates world. This appropriation is distinctive from religious or practico-spiritual (i.e. ethico-politico-historical activity) appropriation. Knowledge is the production of appropriation of the real world. The question regarding the mode of production of knowledge is different from the question of 'problem of knowledge' of ideological philosophy. The 'problem' (question) is not derived from any *a-priori* condition. In other words, the question does not presuppose the answer. In addition, this 'problem' cannot be addressed by any philosophical drama. A philosophical drama casts its characters: Philosophical consciousness (Reason) [Hegelian] which does not question its existence; philosophical Subject (i.e. philosophizing consciousness), the scientific Subject (the knowing consciousness), and the empirical subject (the perceiving consciousness). The following three characters encounter these three characters: Absolute object, pure principles of science, and pure forms of perception. The three subjects are encapsulated in a single essence; and the three objects are also encapsulated in a single essence. This encapsulation or subsumption removes the distinction between 'object of knowledge' and 'real object'; 'philosophizing subject' and 'knowing subject'; and 'knowing subject' and 'empirical subject'. Althusser maintains: this is "the real mechanism of the history of the production of knowledge, in order to subject them to religious, ethical and political ends…" (p. 55). To escape from the ideological closure, the ideological characters (Subjects and Objects) have to be deposed. Another significant question (problem) is the 'mode of appropriation of the real'. In particular, the 'problem' is:

By what mechanism does the process of knowledge, which takes place entirely in

thought, produce the cognitive appropriation of its real object, which exists outside

thought in the real world? Or again, by what mechanism does the production of the

object of knowledge produce the cognitive appropriation of the real object, which

exists outside thought in the real world?" (Althusser, 1968, p. 56).

In addition, non-ideological question "is not a question closed in advance by its

answer. It is not a question of *guarantees*" (Althusser, 1968, p. 55, italics in original).

Althusser notes that ideology addresses the question (problem) of cognitive

appropriation/mechanics of knowledge production. In other words, ideology tries to answer

the problem of mechanics of knowledge production. One answer claims that it is the

'practice' (pragmatism of obviousness)—the practice of scientific experiment. It is 'social

practice', repeated practice. A second answer is: "The proof of the pudding is in the eating".

These are ideological answers. Pragmatism (or pragmatic answer) pulls the question

(problem) into the terrain of ideology by supplying an ideological answer. Pragmatism, like

idealist 'theory of knowledge', searches for 'guarantees'. However, there is a distinction

between guarantee of classical idealism and pragmatism. Classical idealism seeks de jure

guarantee [of proof] whereas pragmatism seeks de facto guarantee and affirms "*success* in

practice" (Althusser, 1968, p. 57, italics in original). Althusser argues that 'guarantee'—

"irrefutable index of an *ideological* question and answer" (1968, p. 57, italics in

original)—cannot satisfy a non-ideological problem, the problem that searches for a

'mechanism'. The proof of repetition (social practice) can be false (e.g. 'truths' of religion).

Practice is the mirror image of theory. There is no general practice; there are only distinct

practices. These distinct practices are not connected with a theory. There is no pure theory

or pure materiality. Precisely, a theory does not reflect reasons; it reflects interests (e.g.

political, religious, ideological). A new conception about the correspondence between theory

and practice is warranted to formulate a scientific conception of practice. In addition, differences between the distinctive practices (economic practice, political practice, technical practice etc.) have to be understood. These practices exercise relative autonomy; and these distinctive practices are governed by distinctive structure (means of production, combination (Verbindung) etc.). According to Althusser, economic practice is the determinant practice. Althusser holds that the new conception regarding the correspondence between theory and practice assumes that one stage of practice contains an element of knowledge of its previous stage of practice. There are pure theoretical practices (e.g. mathematics, philosophy). These practices do not have any direct connection with concrete practice. A particular science establishes its own protocols/criteria to validate its product (i.e. knowledge) and does not require validation from any external practices. Althusser writes: "We can say this of the 'experimental' sciences: The criterion of their theory is their *experiment*, which constitute the form of their theoretical practice" (1968, p. 59, italics in original).

Althusser maintains that a mechanism has to explain the mode of appropriation of the world effected by specific practice of knowledge. 'Condition' of knowledge production and 'mechanism' that causes cognitive appropriation of real object—are different. The 'condition' pertains to history of theoretical practice and its mutations. History of knowledge informs about production of knowledge in distinctive mode of production, and about transition from ideological practice to scientific practice. In addition, history of knowledge/history of theoretical practice informs about emergence of knowledge, development of knowledge, diversification of knowledge, theoretical ruptures etc. History of knowledge believes that it deals with 'knowledge'; in other words, it does not verify whether it is deals with knowledge. History of knowledge only examines effects of the structure of theoretical practice. It cannot explain 'knowledge effect' (i.e. features of knowledge). Marx, as Althusser points out, defined 'knowledge effect' as the mode of appropriation of the world

by knowledge. 'Knowledge effect' is produced by a mechanism. The 'mechanism' to be discovered is not the origin of knowledge. Knowledge effect is not the mediation of reality. Thus, knowledge effect in mathematics is not the purified version of reality. For instance, Pythagorean and Euclidean abstraction applied to concrete practice of a land-surveyor is a dislocation or a transfer of practice. It may be incorrectly assumed that "there would be a 'native land', an 'original ground' of the knowledge effect... a real, concrete, living original is made eternally, and integrally responsible for the knowledge effect" (Althusser, 1968, p. 62). The problematic (framework) of this statement is the "myth of the origin" —which holds that subject and object are same. Specifically, the concepts 'origin', 'original ground', 'genesis', and 'mediation' are *a priori* of empiricism, an ideology. The concept 'origin' deters thinking about origin; the concept 'genesis' conceals mechanism of production or mutation; and the term 'mediation' fills the gap between 'abstract' and 'concrete'. In Althusser's words:

> The function of the concept of origin, as in original sin, is to summarize in one word what has not to be thought in order to be able to think what one wants to think. The concept of genesis is charged with taking charge of, and masking, a production or mutation whose recognition would threaten the vital continuity of the empiricist schema of history. The concept of mediation is invested with one last role: the magical provision of post-stations in the empty space between theoretical principles and the 'concrete', as bricklayers make a chain to pass bricks" (1968, p. 63).

Thus, the origin of 'knowledge effect' does not account for the mechanism of 'knowledge effect'. The 'origin' of knowledge does not also account for the distinction between object of knowledge and real object. According to Marx, as Althusser notes, it is indispensable to explain 'Gliederung', i.e. articulated, hierarchized, and systematic combination of contemporary society to understand primitive forms/structures of society.

The historical genesis of categories (concepts) or their combination in previous forms (structure) does not explain system of combination of categories/concepts in contemporary society. The system of combination of concepts/categories in contemporary society can lead to an understanding of past forms, can inform about the 'variation' of combination. Thus, the explanation of mechanism of contemporary knowledge effect can inform about the past knowledge effect. Marx conceived existing society as a historical 'result', a product of history. However, this 'result' does not mean the economic relations taking different forms in history; it is not a [linear] progression of idea; rather, it is articulated combination (Gliederung) of categories/concepts in bourgeois society. Marx contends that any single logical formula of movement, sequence, or time cannot account for "the body of society". Precisely, Marx conceives contemporary bourgeois society as a 'body'. In other words, Marx studies the 'structure' of contemporary society. Althusser notes: Two problems arise in the study of this structure. First, the problem of mechanism that historically produced 'capitalist mode of production'— a 'result'. Second, it has to be testified that the result is a 'social' form of existence. In short, existing society is a historical 'result' and a 'society'. In *Capital*, society is conceived as a 'body'— a 'body' which functions as a society. In particular, Marx examines how a product of history or a result of history exists as a society. In other words, Marx studies the 'society effect' which enables the historical 'result' to exist as a society [society effect is the mechanism]. Althusser writes:

> When Marx tells us therefore that in explaining a society by its genesis we miss its 'body', precisely what had to be explained, he is focusing his theoretical attention on the task of explaining the mechanism by which some particular result functions precisely *as a society*, and therefore the mechanism producing the '*society effect*' peculiar to the capitalist mode of production (1986, pp. 65-66).

This society effects construct concrete relations of individuals, their actions, and their attitudes. However, Marx does not concentrate on explaining the "mechanism of the production of society as a *result* of history, but for an understanding of the mechanism of the production of the *society effect* by this result, which is effectively a real existing *society*" (Althusser, 1968, p. 66, italics in original). Althusser contends that the notion 'knowledge effect' is connected with the notion of 'cognitive appropriation' of real world. Different practices—such as theoretical, religious, ethical, technical—appropriate real world and produces specific effects—aesthetic effect, critical effect etc. [these are modes of appropriation]. Precisely, 'knowledge effect' is produced by theoretical practice. Knowledge effect involves two notions: 'Ideological knowledge effect' and 'scientific knowledge effect'. The mechanism of knowledge effect can be analyzed by exploring the 'criterion of practice' or 'inwardness' of scientific practice. Every established scientific practice has its own criterion of verification of truth. Specific forms [categories] validate a scientific proposition as knowledge. Action (i.e. a regular order of appearance and disappearance) of these forms confirms scientificity in knowledge production. Forms of scientificity are different from the forms (categories) of knowledge. Mechanism of production knowledge effect can be traced by examining the ordering of forms (concepts, categories). Knowledge effect is produced at two levels: at the level of forms of order (proof/validation of truth) and at the level of isolated concept. 'Systematicity of the system' is the basis of concepts and their order of appearance. Thus, knowledge effect depends on two things: 'existence of the system' and 'existence of the forms of order'.

II

In my reading of ELE research, I have followed the protocols of symptomatic reading. In particular, I have employed the technique of *first reading* and *second reading*. In the *first reading*, I have tried to explore the absences and oversights in ELE research articles. In the *second reading*, I have tried to construct the problematic of the existing ELE research establishment. Finally, I have offered a critique of the problematic of ELE research. Precisely, I dealt with the following questions: What are the presences in the ELE research establishment of Bangladesh? What are the absences? What is the meaning of absences/silence? What is the unconscious (problematic) of the discipline? What is the mechanism of knowledge production? What produces the knowledge effect?

III

The sampling method of this study can be defined as *Multistage Sampling* (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 113). The process of *multistage sampling* involves multiple phases of sampling. This sampling is "multistage" because I have collected data from different administrative divisions of Bangladesh. For instance, Chittagong University is located in Chittagong and Khulna University is located in Khulna—Chittagong and Khulna are two administrative divisions of Bangladesh. In addition, I have located those journals of the selected entities which contain ELE articles. It is to note that I did not exclude any article which is related to English Language Education. The samples include some articles written by non-Bengali (i.e. foreign) authors. I did not exclude the articles of foreign authors because I tried to capture the composition of the journal industry of Bangladesh. Table 4.1 shows the title of the collected journals and their entity.

Table 4.1

List of Journals

Serial No.	Title of the Journal	Entity
1	*Outlooks: VUB Studies in Language, Literature and Culture*	Victoria University of Bangladesh, Dhaka
2	*Journal of SUB*	State University of Bangladesh, Dhaka
3	*Chaos: IUB Studies in Language, Literature and Creative Writing*	Independent University, Bangladesh, Dhaka
4	*BUP Journal*	Bangladesh University of Professionals, Dhaka
5	*The Chittagong University Journal of Arts and Humanities*	Chittagong University
6	*Horizon*	Chittagong University, Department of English
7	*IIUC Studies*	International Islamic University Chittagong
8	*Journal of General Education: An Annual Journal*	Southern University Bangladesh, Chittagong
9	*BGC Trust University Journal*	BGC Trust University, Chittagong
10	*Panini: NSU Studies in Language and Literature*	North South University, Department of English, Dhaka
11	*Critique: Islamic University Studies in Literature*	Islamic University, Department of English,

		Kushtia
12	*Metropolitan University Journal*	Metropolitan University, Sylhet
13	*ASA University Review*	ASA University, Dhaka
14	*Stamford Journal of English*	Stamford University, Dhaka
15	*Khulna University Studies*	Khulna University, Khulna
16	*Journal of Nazrul University*	Jatiya Kabi Kazi Nazrul Islam University, Trishal, Mymensingh
17	*Presidency University Journal*	Presidency University, Dhaka
18	*Bangladesh Islami University Journal*	Bangladesh Islami University, Dhaka
19	*SIU Studies*	Sylhet International University, Sylhet
20	*Darul Ihsan University Studies*	Darul Ihsan University, Dhaka
21	*Prime University Journal*	Prime University, Dhaka
22	*Explorer: Journal of Faculty of Arts*	IBAIS University, Dhaka
23	*Crossings: ULAB Journal of English Studies*	University of Liberal Arts Bangladesh, Dhaka
24	*East West University Journal*	East West University, Dhaka
25	*East West University Journal of Humanities*	East West University, Dhaka
26	*The Arts Faculty Journal*	Dhaka University
27	*Spectrum*	Dhaka University, Department of English

28	*Journal of the Institute of Modern Languages*	Dhaka University
29	*Journal of PUB*	The People's University of Bangladesh, Dhaka
30	*Journal of Teacher Education*	Bangladesh Open University, Gazipur
31	*Teacher's World*	Dhaka University
32	*The Dhaka University Studies: Journal of the Faculty of Arts*	Dhaka University
33	*Harvest: Jahangirnagar Studies in Literature*	Jahangirnagar University
34	*NAEM Journal*	National Academy for Educational Management, Dhaka
35	*The Dhaka University Journal of Linguistics*	Dhaka University, Department of Linguistics
36	*Bangladesh Research publications Journal*	Bangladesh Research Publications
37	*BRAC University Journal*	BRAC University, Dhaka
38	*Eastern University Journal*	Eastern University, Dhaka
39	*Daffodil International University Journal of Business and Economics*	Daffodil International University, Dhaka
40	*Bangladesh Education Journal*	BAFED and BU-IED
41	*Northern University Studies in English*	Northern University, Dhaka

Chapter Five

Documentation

In this chapter, I have provided a comprehensive summary of the collected journal articles. In the summary, I tried to capture the following aspects of the articles: research question(s), methodology, theoretical framework, findings, and recommendations. Different paragraphs of the summary contain these aspects. Besides, in the summary I have documented the full name and identity of the authors to avoid confusions. In addition, I have used my linguistic anthropological knowledge (i.e. knowledge of naming system in Bengali culture) to determine pronoun (i.e. he/she) in the summary (when the sex of the author(s) is not mentioned in the source). However, I have included author's last name and date in the third bracket '[]' following APA style manual. The citations in the third bracket can be found in the reference section of chapter 5. This apart, third bracket '[]' in the summary of the articles indicates my understanding/reading of vague expressions of texts.

I have generated 24 categories to capture the themes of the journal articles. The categories are: Second Language Acquisition, Language Education Policy, Methods and Techniques, Communicative Language Teaching, English for Specific Purposes, Learning Strategy/Style, Listening, Writing, Testing and Evaluation, Error Analysis, Curriculum/Syllabus and Material Design, Reading, Pronunciation, Context, Culture, and Politics, Speaking, Teaching Grammar, Teaching Vocabulary, Teacher Education, Teaching Language Through Literature, IT in ELT, Needs Analysis, Action Research, Teaching Young Learners, and Miscellaneous. Each category contains at least 3 articles (because I assume that at least 3 articles indicate the emergence of a theme in a research establishment). In other words, at least 3 articles constituted one category. However, I could not generate categories for some articles because (a) either these articles do not deal with any specific

issue or (b) there are less than 3 articles on a particular issue to construct a category. Therefore, I subsumed these types of articles under the title 'Miscellaneous'. It is to note that in Table 5.1 'Expository Essay' means a compilation or reproduction of existing theories, and 'Experiential Essay' means unsystematic description/narrative of experiences of the authors.

5.1.0 Second Language Acquisition

5.1.1 Md. Jahurul Islam (Lecturer, Department of English, Jahangirnagar University, Dhaka) and Shafaat Bari Ivan (Academic Coordinator, Centre for Languages (cfl), BRAC University, Dhaka) [Islam & Ivan, 2011], in their study "Metacognitive Language-Learning Strategies and Language-Learning Motivation: A Study on Bangla-Speaking Undergraduate EFL Learners", investigated learners' deployment of metacognitive strategies and patterns of motivation. In particular, the study deals with three research questions. First, use of MCLLSs (metacognitive language-learning strategies) among Bangla-speaking Bangladeshi EFL learners; second, patterns of LLM (language-learning motivation) of the students; and third, the correlation between MCLLSs and LLM.

In this study, the researchers surveyed 198 undergraduate students (118 males and 80 females; mean age: 23.4) of a Public University in Bangladesh from Public Administration and Business Administration discipline studying English as a compulsory separate subject. As instrument for data elicitation, the authors used a structured questionnaire which is divided into two parts: MCLLSs and LLM. The MCLLSs part includes nine items directly taken from Oxford's 50-item-six section Strategy Inventory for Language Learners (SILL), version: 7.0, fourth section, part D, a statistically independent section. The questions of MCLLS part include such issues as conscious effort of learning English, seeking opportunities to practice English, and making plans about learning. The LLM part has been adopted from Gardner's Attitude and Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) consisting of eight

items in which four items are related to 'integrative motivation' and the other four items are related to 'instrumental motivation'. For data analysis, the authors used formula of descriptive statistics installed in SPSS.

The statistical analysis reveals that paying attention to someone else's speech is the most popular MCLLS (mean 4.62) and seeking opportunities to talk to people in English is the least popular strategy (mean 3.58). However, the mean score (4.13) of nine items indicate that the rate of MCLLS use among learners is high. On the contrary, the analysis of LLM data suggests that the level of instrumental motivation (mean overall 4.10) is higher than integrative motivation (overall mean 3.99). Finally, analysis of data using Pearson Correlation Coefficients (2-tailed) model indicates that there is a connection between the use of MCLLSs and LLM. In this regard, the largest positive correlation has been found between 'setting goals and objectives' (MCLLS) and 'integrative motivation' (LLM), and negative correlation has been found between 'centering of learning' [conscious focus on learning] (MCLLS) and 'integrative motivation' (LLM).

On the basis of these findings, the authors draw the following pedagogic conclusions. First, teaching materials should be prepared in accordance with the use of MCLLS to facilitate learning. Second, while dealing with motivation, teachers should pay more attention to instrumental motivation. Nevertheless, they should try to increase integrative motivation as well. Third, since there is a reciprocal connection between MCLLSs and LLM, the training of MCLLSs may increase motivation.

5.1.2 In her survey, "Motivation and Bangladeshi Tertiary Level Learners", Nargis Chowdhury (Lecturer, Department of English, Stamford University Bangladesh) [Chowdhury, 2009-10] investigates integrative and instrumental motivation of Bangladeshi students. Specifically, the author attempts to explore: (a) whether Bangladeshi learners of

English are instrumentally or interactively motivated; and (b) whether they become motivated in learning English at tertiary level in comparison with their motivation in higher secondary level.

The participants of this study include 64 non-English major students (37 male and 27 female) randomly chosen from Stamford University Bangladesh. The author used a modified version of Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) (developed by Gardner (1985) and Clement et al. (1998)) to elicit data. In addition, the author included an open-ended question to derive data about students' motivation level at higher secondary and tertiary level.

The findings of the survey indicate that the level of instrumental motivation among students is high in comparison with integrative motivation (the mean score of integrative motivation is 1.608 whereas the mean score of instrumental motivation is 5.08). Precisely, only 3.12% student reported that they want to become a part of English speaking society; 3.12% wants to mingle with English people ; 6.25% are interested to converse with people from foreign countries; 1.56% wants to be acquainted with American/English/Australian/Canadian society; no student (0%) wants to appreciate English art and literature; 1.56% wants to participate in activities of other cultures; 1.56% wants to learn English for social networking with foreign people; no student (0%) is interested to appreciate English songs; no student (0%) wants to learn English out of a perception that Americans are friendly people; and no student (0 %) wants to learn English to "like" English/American people. However, 14.06% wants to learn English to become intellectually enlightened. On the other hand, 93.74% students respond that they need to study English because it is a compulsory course; 79.68% reported that it [English skill] would increase their CGPA; 96.86% reported that they need English to understand textbook; 93.43% reported that they need to understand class lecture [delivered in English]; 92.18% needs English to obtain scores in IELTS, TOEFL, SAT etc.; 95.3% needs English to study abroad; 78.12% reported

that English proficiency would be considered as an extra quality in CV; 98.43% needs English to get information from internet; 87.49% needs English to understand English programs on TV & radio; 100% needs English to attain a successful career; and 93.18% needs English to gain social prestige (because English is associated with prestige). In response to the open-ended question, students reported that they are more motivated in learning English at tertiary level than they were at higher secondary level because of instrumental reasons (e.g. good Job, understanding class lecture/textbook etc.). However, one student thinks that studying English is a "waste of time" for him since it reduces study hour for his disciplinary courses. The author concludes that the level of integrative motivation among Bangladeshi students is low because they "hardly get any chance to know the native speakers of English".

5.1.3 In her article, "Self-Motivation and its Role in the Context of Bangladeshi Learner's English Language Learning", Tamanna Sharmeen (Senior Lecturer, Department of English, Prime University, Dhaka) [Sharmeen, 2008] explores students' level of self-motivation in learning English.

The samples of this study include undergraduate students of private university in Bangladesh. The author extracted data through structured questionnaire and class observation. The researcher also interviewed English teachers of different institutes to understand their views on self-motivation of students.

Findings of the study indicate that only 60% students are self-motivated; 90% students attend language courses only to meet academic requirements since English is compulsory in the curriculum; 95% student reported that they do not practice English outside the classroom. However, 99% students admit that self-motivation is important in English language learning. On the basis of the response of the students, the author mentions 11

factors that are connected with lack of self-motivation: (1) lack of opportunity to use English [in different domains]; (2) absence of motivating teachers at HSC level; (3) lack of admiration from family members; (4) fear and disinterest in language learning; (5) unavailability of interesting/attractive materials; (6) insufficient group work/pair work in the classroom; (7) lack of monitoring of learners proficiency; (8) inappropriate schedule of language class (e.g. when students are exhausted on hungry); (9) lack of enjoyable activities in the class; (10) lack of self-confidence; (11) stress.

The author makes some recommendation for learners, parents and teachers. The author suggests that learners should engage themselves in group work and pair work inside and outside the classroom. In addition, they should read [English)] books and practice speaking with their friends outside the classroom. Further, they should read English newspapers, storybooks, magazines, and watch [English] TV programs. Besides, parents should inspire their offspring to learn English and they should provide feedback on the learning process. Third, teachers should receive pre-service and in-service training; they should maintain portfolio to collect information about individual student's motivation; they should provide feedback considering level of motivation of the students; and they should select interesting teaching materials, train students to assess their own learning, organize [English] essay competition and debate to encourage students to become self-motivated.

5.4 In her article, "A Comparative Study of English and Non-English Major University Students' Motivation to Learn English Oral Communication", Mst. Moriam Quadir (Assistant Professor, Department of English, East West University) [Quadir, 2011] explores differences of motivation, attitude, level of anxiety, and motivational strength between English and non-English major students. In addition, the author examines correlation among motivation, attitude, level of anxiety and motivational strength of English and non-English major students.

Participants of this study include 355 graduate and undergraduate students (184 English major and 171 non-English major) of four universities located in Dhaka. As an instrument of data collection, the author used Schmidt et al.'s (1996) questionnaire (with modification). Besides, the author used descriptive statistics embedded in SPSS to analyze data.

Analysis of data using sample t-tests reveals significant differences in intrinsic motivation and anxiety level between English major and English non-major group. In other words, English major students scored higher in intrinsic motivation subscale and lower in anxiety subscale than English non-major students. This result means that English major students are more intrinsically motivated and less anxious in comparison with English non-major students.

The author used Pearson correlations (2-tailed) to identity relationships among motivation, anxiety, attitude and motivational strength of English major and non-English major students. Analysis shows that there exists a negative correlation between anxiety and intrinsic motivation of English major students. On the other hand, positive correlation between extrinsic motivation and anxiety level has been found in non-English major students. The author reasons that perhaps students become concerned (positive anxiety) about improving proficiency due to the influence of extrinsic motivation. Besides, positive correlation has been detected between extrinsic motivation and attitude, and between attitude and motivational strength in both English major and English non-major students.

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5.1.5 In their study, "The Impact of the Students' Attitudes Towards the Learning Situation on Their Achievement in EFL: A Case Study at the HSC Level", Dr. M. Maniruzzaman (Professor, Department of English, Jahangirnagar University, Dhaka, Bangladesh and Tasnima Akter (Lecturer, Department of English, Comilla University, Comilla, Bangladesh) [Maniruzzaman & Akter, 2011] investigate the correlation between classroom anxiety and achievement in EFL test. In particular, they seek to test the following hypotheses: a) there is a negative correlation between classroom anxiety and achievement in EFL test; b) there is a positive correlation between students' attitudes towards EFL teacher and achievement in EFL test; C) there is a positive correlation between students' attitudes towards EFL course and their achievement in EFL test.

In this study, 175 Twelfth Grade college students from both rural and urban areas (89 from Dhaka, 36 from Manikganj and 50 from Tangail) who had received EFL instruction for 11 years participated in the study. The author administered a four-part questionnaire to elicit data. The first part of the questionnaire is designed to elicit participants' academic information. The second part is an adapted version of Likert Scale (1932) which is designed to elicit responses about anxiety and discomfort of the students. The third part is also a modified version of Likert Scale (1932) which is structured to measure students' perceptions about their teachers' linguistic competence, friendliness and motivation in teaching English. The fourth part of the questionnaire consists of questions about difficulty, utility and attractiveness of teaching materials. The authors calculated correlation between predictor variable (i.e. scores on questionnaire) and criterion variable (i.e. scores on English First Paper in HSC First year final examination) by using Pearson's Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients integrated in SPSS.

Findings of the study suggest that the first hypothesis about the negative correlation between students' anxiety and students' achievement in EFL test is true. In other words, the

study reveals that students with less anxiety in the classroom scored better in the First Year HSC examination. Secondly, hypothesis-2 which states that there is a positive correlation between students' attitudes towards teachers and their achievement in EFL test is also true. To put it otherwise, those students who hold positive attitudes towards their teachers performed better in the EFL test. Finally, hypothesis 3, i.e. attitudes of the students towards EFL course is positively associated with their scores on EFL test which means that students with positive attitudes towards EFL course (materials, curriculum etc.) performed significantly better in the EFL test.

On the basis of this study, the authors draw the following pedagogic implications: teachers need to be friendly in the classroom and they should provide positive feedback. In addition, teachers should engage students in participatory tasks such as group work, role play etc. to remove anxiety and uneasiness of the students.

5.1.6 In their study, "Attitudinal and Motivational Impact on EFL Proficiency of Undergraduates: A Preliminary Investigation", Dr. Md. Maniruzzaman (Assistant Professor of English, Jahangirnagar University) and Dr. S. M. Fazlul Haque (Associate Professor of English, University of Dhaka) [Maniruzzaman, & Haque, 2000] explore correlation between attitude, motivation and EFL proficiency.

The participants of this study include 78 fresh undergraduate students from Dhaka University and Jahangirnagar University. The authors elicited data using Gardner's (1985a) AMTB (modified by Haque (1989)). The author also used Likert (1932) scale. To analyze data, the author used Pearson's Product-moment correlations coefficients integrated in SPSS. This study involves two types of variables: independent variables— attitude and motivation, and dependent variable— scores on a [proficiency] test. The proficiency test used in this

study was "Oxford Placement Test" developed by Allan (1985) [which contains grammar section, reading and listening section].

Analysis of data indicates that: (a) 69.23 % learners are integratively motivated whereas 30.77 % learners are instrumentally motivated; (b) there is a negative correlation between scores on test and attitude toward British and American people. However, there is a positive correlation between score on test and 'interest in foreign language', and there is a positive correlation between 'attitudes towards learning English' and scores on grammar section but it has negative correlation with scores on reading and listening section. Third, there is a positive correlation between 'motivational intensity' and score on grammar section, but negative correlation has been found between 'motivational intensity' and scores on reading and listening section. Besides, there is a positive correlation between 'desire to learn English' and scores on test. Fourth, there is a negative correlation between 'English class anxiety', 'English teacher competence', 'English teacher inspiration', 'English course interest' and scores on test. Besides, there is a negative correlation between 'English teacher evaluation' and scores on grammar section, but neutral correlation with scores on reading and listening section. There is a negative correlation between 'English course evaluation', 'English course difficulty', 'English course utility' and scores on grammar section, but positive correlation exists between these items and scores on reading and listening section. Fifth, there is a negative correlation between 'integrative orientation' and scores on test. Negative correlation has also been detected between 'instrumental orientation' and scores on test. However, in all cases, the correlation is not statistically significant.

Based on these findings, the author recommends that individual differences of students should be taken into consideration during designing materials and teaching. Second, four skills should be taught since negative association has been found between 'attitudes towards learning', 'motivational intensity', and scores on reading and listening section.

Third, in order to reduce anxiety of the students, teachers should not dominate in the classroom. Fourth, teachers should play the role of a facilitator.

5.1.7 In her article, "A Study of English Language Learners at the Institute of Modern Languages", Iffat A. N. Majid (Assistant Professor of English, IML, University of Dhaka) [Majid, 2000] investigates students' perceptions and attitude toward learning English.

The participants of this study encompass 36 undergraduate and graduate level students of IML. The author elicited data using questionnaire (containing both open-ended and closed-ended questions).

Analysis of data indicates that in terms of significance majority of the students identified 'learning to speak in English', 'learning the use of grammar' and 'learning to write accurately in English'. Second, 34 students out of 36 reported that they have the experience of rote-learning definitions of grammar. Third, 26 students reported that their teachers sometimes spoke to them in English. Fourth, majority of the students reported that they received both oral and written feedback from their teachers. Fifth, 26 students reported that they went to private tutor to learn English. Sixth, 33 students reported that they "tried to understand the reason" [of mistakes] from teachers' feedback. Seventh, 30 students reported that they "rote-learnt all essays from books" whereas 18 students tried to write essays by their own. Eighth, majority of the students reported that they 'sometimes' read English book, newspaper, magazine and watch English film and [English] TV serials. Ninth, 14 students reported that at school level number of students in their class was 40-50 whereas 9 students reported it to be 51-60. Besides, 19 students reported that they had two English teachers in their schools who taught them separately [i.e. two teachers did not take a single class]. Tenth, 16 students reported that they studied English only to pass exam; 19 students out of 36 believe that "English [is] not necessary for raising social status" (p. 80). Eleventh, 32

students expressed their dissatisfaction with the teaching methodology at school level. Twelfth, majority of the students identified 'transformation of sentence', 'tense' and 'preposition' as difficult grammatical items. Thirteenth, 36 students [100%] referred to' 'spoken English practice' as their 'preference for language learning activities. However, a large number of students also mentioned grammar exercises (28 students), listening exercises (31 students), essay/paragraph writing (27 students) as their preference. Finally, 18 students believe that after completing SSC their speaking skill is not 'bad'; 11students identified their listening skill as 'satisfactory'; 16 students identified their reading skill as 'good'.

5.1.8 In his study, "Attitudes, Motivation and Achievement in EFL: Does Sex Differentiation Matter?", M. Maniruzzaman (Assistant professor, Department of English, Jahangirnagar University) [Maniruzzaman, 1999-2000] investigates attitudes, motivation and linguistic proficiency of male and female undergraduate students of Bangladesh.

The participants of this study involve 132 male students and 89 female students (randomly selected fresh undergrads) of 2 public universities of Bangladesh. As an instrument of data collection, the author used Gardner's (1985) Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (adapted by Zaman (1998)). In addition, the author used Oxford Placement Test (developed by Allan (1985)—which is composed of grammar section, reading section and listening section with multiple choice questions. The author added a composition question to the Oxford Placement Test. Besides, the author used SPSSX to analyze data.

Analysis of data reveals that 28.0% male students are instrumentally motivated whereas 47.2% female students are instrumentally motivated. In addition, 72.0% male students are integratively motivated whereas 52.8% female students are integratively motivated. Thus, "the male subjects appeared to be more integratively oriented, whereas the female subjects seemed to be more instrumentally oriented" (p. 58). The author reasons that

male subjects are more integratively motivated in comparison with female students since they aspire to emigrate to English speaking countries.

In attitude and motivation, statistically significant differences (Z-test value) have been found between male and female students. In particular, male students showed more interest in foreign languages in comparison with that of female students. In addition, male students' score on 'integrative orientation' was higher in comparison with the score of female students.

In the test of attitude toward learning situation, statistically significant (Z-test) differences have been found between male and female students. In particular, anxiety level of female students in the classroom seems to be higher than that of the male students. The author attributes classroom anxiety of female students to introversion. However, female students evaluate their teachers more positively in comparison with male students' evaluation of teachers.

In the proficiency test, statistically significant (Z-test) differences have been found in the score of grammatical structures. In grammar test, female students scored higher than the male students did. The author observes: This "finding may be explained by pointing to the instrumental reasons the female subjects had for learning EFL such as doing well in the examination, getting a good command of the skill of EFL being required for BCS and other professional examinations, getting good jobs, and the like (p. 65).

Finally, the author recommends that syllabus and materials should be designed to encourage both instrumentally and integratively motivated students. Second, teachers should try to reduce anxiety of female students by encouraging students' participation in the class, and by avoiding domineering behavior.

5.1.9 In their study, "Working With Learners' Motivation and Success in EFL Language Program: Tracing the Sources of Low Motivation and a Learner-Centred Approach", Bijoy

Lal Basu and Subrata Kumar Bhowmik (authors are lecturer, Department of English, East West University) [Basu & Bhowmik, 2005] investigate motivation of EFL students in the context of Bangladesh.

The participants of this study include 100 undergraduate students (ranging from first to fifth semester) of BBA, CSE, ICE, English, Pharmacy, and Economics department of East West University. The author elicited data through questionnaire (containing both closed-ended and open-ended questions) and interview.

Analysis of data reveals that success in exam correlates with motivation. In particular, 45% students reported that results of 1st and 2nd midterm motivated them. Second, 54% students were found to be instrumentally motivated whereas 43% students were found to be both instrumentally and integratively motivated. Third, with regard to course materials, most of the students preferred inclusion of text from their own culture. Besides, Business students expressed their preference for texts connected with commerce/economy whereas English students responded in favor of literary texts. Further, students opined that Basic English course should encompass different types of texts such as essays, dialogs, movie reviews, short poems etc. Fourth, most of the students opined that an ideal class contains 20-25 students. However, 7% students opted for the option '30' when asked about ideal class size. These students believe that small class generates boredom. Fifth, when asked about their preference of teachers, 49% students opted for the option 'both friendly and strict' and 31% chose the option 'friendly and informal'; 14% students chose the option 'friendly but formal'. Sixth, when asked about their attitude toward peer review, 29% students answered that they 'like' peer correction whereas 41% students responded that they 'strongly dislike' peer correction. Seventh, when asked about their views on competition, 16% students reported that competition 'always' motivated them; 21% reported that competition 'often' motivated them; 27% answered that 'competition never motivated them'; and 36% reported

that competition 'sometimes' motivated them. Eighth, when asked about brainstorming activities before reading a text, 43% students reported that they 'often' liked it and 35% students responded that they 'always' liked it. Ninth, when asked about their opinion about pair work, 48% students answered that pair work is 'sometimes' helpful, and 41% students reported that pair work is 'often' helpful. Interview data suggests that students value pair work because it reduces anxiety. Tenth, when asked about reward and punishment, 69% students reported that when teachers praised them 'they felt encouraged [to work more]'. On the other hand, 47% students reported that they 'felt miserable and wanted to quit' when teachers scolded them; 26% students 'felt miserable but wanted to work harder'; and 16% students 'felt humiliated and unhappy'. Eleventh, when asked about their opinion about the use of mother tongue in the class, 79% students answered that mother tongue should 'sometimes' be used in the class. Twelfth, students preferred using English daily, magazines and English movies to learn English in spare time to tape recorders or [traditional] videos. Thirteenth, when asked whether they like to work individually or in group on home work/assignment, 27% students preferred individual work; 31% preferred group work; 29% opted for the option 'sometimes alone and at times in a group'. Fourteenth, most of the students liked 'sentence linking' exercise (as test item) whereas most of the students disliked 'error correction', 'change of word forms' and 'making sentences'.

The authors, based on these findings, recommend that teachers should help students generating passion for learning English. Second, students may be motivated to read an English book everyday at least for 30 minutes. Third, authentic and culture-sensitive text may be used to motivate students. Fourth, students' opinion should be taken into consideration while making decisions about homework, task or lessons. Fifth, teachers should provide positive feedback (i.e. praise and encouragement). Sixth, teachers should help students to improve their self-esteem. Seventh, students should be rewarded for their

achievement by "words of encouragement" and [punishment should be avoided because] "punishment in any form acts as a deterrent" (p. 143).

5.1.10 In the article, "Language Learning Motivation: What's on a Student's Mind When Learning English Language", Tahreen Ahmed (Centre for Language, BRAC University, Dhaka) [Ahmed, 2009] investigates motivation of Bangladeshi tertiary level students in learning English language.

The participants of this study include 124 first semester undergraduate level students of ENG-091 [intermediate level non-credit course] of BRAC University. The author elicited data using a questionnaire containing both open-ended and closed question. The author conducted the survey in August 2009.

In the first question (Q1) students were asked regarding their purpose(s) of learning English. Most of the students answered that they learn English because 'English is an international language'. Other reasons that students mentioned are: to obtain good job, to survive at BRAC university, to get good grades etc. The second question asked students whether they are interested to participate in English classes (writing & speaking). In response to this question, 44 students answered that they like the classes are interactive, and involve students in group work and presentation; 38 students reported that they are interested in the class because English classes improved their writing skill, speaking skill, and critical thinking skill; 24 students responded that they are motivated in the class because teachers are encouraging and supportive. Some students reported that they are not interested in the course, because they 'fear' to speak in the class, and the classes are boring. Some students reported that ENG-091 should be a credit course. In the third question, students were asked to respond to some motivational factors. The first factor was: 'Feelings toward English language and culture'. Majority of the students (i.e. 97 students) expressed positive attitude

toward English language and culture. The second factor was: 'Tension and fear about English classes'. 87 students responded that they do not suffer from tension and fear about English classes. The third factor stated: 'Fulfillment of a requirement as part of my degree at BRAC University'. 98 students agreed with this statement. The fourth factor stated: 'I feel motivated about getting a good grade at the end of the course even though its non-credit'. 107 students agreed with this statement. The fifth factor stated: "If I learn English language well I will get a good job'. 117 students agreed with this statement. The sixth motivational factor stated: 'The teacher praises me for my participation in class'. 113 participants agreed with this statement. The seventh factor stated: 'Learning English for my own interest and not for any external reward'. 97 students agreed with this statement. The eighth factor stated: 'I feel motivated to learn English language because I have been successful in learning it in the past'. 87 students agreed with this statement. The ninth factor stated: 'In my English classes I feel that there is no need to try my best, as I know I cannot improve, because I have always failed in the past'. Only 5 students agreed with this statement. The fourth question (Q4) asked for students' suggestion to improve ENG-091 course. Students opined that the course should give them more opportunities to practice speaking and to work in groups. Students also opined that the course should help students improve vocabulary and grammar.

Finally, the author recommends that the course should require students to maintain a reflective journal. Second, the course should include content-based activities. For instance, students may be asked to compare two business plans [content from Business Studies]; or students may be asked to discuss issues pertaining to crime, human rights etc. [content from Law discipline]. Third, teacher should admire students and create a sense of achievement in them.

5.1.11 In their article, "Motivation: Its Crucial Role in Teaching English in Classrooms",
Hemanta Bahadur Gurung (Senor Lecturer, Faculty of Business & Economics, Daffodil
International University) and Rubab Abdullah (Lecturer, Faculty of Business & Economics,
Daffodil International University) [Gurung, & Abdullah, 2007)discuss the connection
between motivation and English language teaching.

The authors note that 'motivation' refers to psychological processes that lead to an
action. The authors explicate two types of motivation theories: 'Content theories' which deal
with "internal factors" including instinct, needs, satisfaction etc. and 'process theories' which
explain interactions of "internal factors" and "cognition" [to account for the process of
generating motivation]. The authors point out that there are four content theories of
motivation: Maslow's need hierarchy theory which expounds five basic need of humans,
namely, [physiological], safety, love, esteem, and self-actualization; Alderfer's ERG theory
which identified three basic needs, i.e. existence, relatedness, and growth; McClelland's Need
Theory which indicates the following three needs: Need for achievement, need for affiliation,
and need for power; and Herzberg's motivator [theory] is associated with job satisfaction.
On the other hand, the authors note three process theories of motivation: Equity theory which
assumes that "fairness in social exchanges" is related to motivation; expectancy theory which
maintains that people are motivated by "valued outcomes" of actions; and goal-setting theory
which maintains that specific goals lead people to action. These apart, the authors explain
intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation involves completion of a
task for its ability to produce satisfaction. On the contrary, extrinsic motivation is generated
when an external reward is associated with the completion of a particular action.

The authors make an attempt to connect theories of motivation with English language
teaching. The authors indicate that [in order to motivate students] teachers should construct
lesson plan. In addition, a teacher should be "creative" and "flexible". Besides, a lesson may

include different types of activities (e.g. writing, speaking, listening etc). Further, a lesson should contain interesting components. Second, teaching materials should be selected considering the linguistic proficiency of the students. In addition, teachers should pay attention to individual students. In particular, teachers should help slow students. The authors write: "With him teachers have to keep lesson points simple, slow and repetitive" (p. 174). This approach may increase intrinsic motivation of the students. Third, teachers should be 'caring', 'approachable', 'understanding', 'supportive', 'helpful', and 'patient'. The authors indicate that these characteristics of teachers might also increase intrinsic motivation of the students. Fourth, the attitude of teachers should be 'positive'. In addition, teachers should appreciate students' efforts. The authors write: "A teacher's positive energy could lead to the students becoming more motivated" (p. 175).

5.1.12 In her article, "Motivational Strategies in the ELT Classroom: The Bangladeshi Context at the Tertiary Level", Batool Sarwar (Teacher, Department of English, University of Dhaka) [Sarwar, 2013] describes some strategies of motivating students in EFL context.

The author explains three motivational problems in Bangladesh. The first problem is attitude toward English language. Citing Dornyei (2009), the author points out that Gardner's theory of [instrument]/integrative motivation fails to capture complex attitude (i.e. psychological processes) of students toward English language. For instance, the author records that students of English department learn English to gain socio-economic success. Therefore, these students are instrumentally motivated. However, students tend to avoid language learning task to hide their lack of proficiency. Precisely, in the context of Bangladesh, mistakes lead to mockery and ridicule. In addition, students tend to assign superior value to English compared to their own culture (a consequence of colonization) which "increases their sense of inadequacy" (p. 155). Therefore, the author remarks that

instrumental and integrative motivation cannot explain causes of learning English in Bangladesh context. A second problem of motivation is related to schooling system. The author points out that school system does not provide proficient English language teachers, satisfactory textbooks, and efficient teaching techniques. Nevertheless, schools project failure of the system as the failure or inability of the students. The author writes: "Research shows that such evaluative patterns are often internalized by students, causing lasting damage to their own perceptions of ability" (p. 156). A third motivational problem is "learning situation". The author records that problems of the English Department at Dhaka University include large class size, inappropriate course materials and examination procedure. The author points out that in the existing examination system, "students receive poor grades...[which] undermines their self-confidence and reinforces their tendency to attribute their failures to low levels of ability" (p. 157).

The author offers the following strategies to solve motivational problems of the students. First, teachers should try to change the attitude of the students. In the first class of a group of English department students at Dhaka University, the author discussed the role of English as a tool for both subjugation and resistance. In particular, the author explained Macaulay's speech and Pennycook's notion of counter discourse. The author notes: "This strategy motivated students by making them consciously aware of the link between their own national identity and their desire to function effectively as members of a global community of English speakers" (p. 157). Second, teachers should be sympathetic toward students. In addition, teachers should view students' mistakes positively. Third, teachers should explain to students that their (i.e. students') lack of proficiency is not the outcome of their inherent lack of ability. Fourth, teachers may use innovative classroom techniques to motivate students. For instance, in an academic writing class (E201), the author used the following techniques: group work, peer feedback, and peer evaluation. The author remarks: "The

strategies were in effect a very small step toward learner autonomy but they were found to have an amazing impact on the motivational level of students" (p. 158).

5.1.13 In his article, "A Study of the Interaction Between the Learning Situation and the Proficiency of EFL Learners", Dr. M. Maniruzzaman (Associate Professor & Chairman, Department of English, Jahangirnagar University) [Maniruzzaman, 2006] explores the correlation between anxiety, attitudes towards language teachers, attitudes towards course, and language proficiency [achievement levels] of English language learners.

In this study, 41 tertiary level students (25 males and 16 females) of different disciplines participated. The author determined three predictor variables (i.e. classroom anxiety, attitudes towards teachers, and attitudes towards the course). The criteria variables were scores on a structure test, vocabulary test, composition test, and speaking test. To elicit data about classroom anxiety, the author used a structured questionnaire (Likert scale). Information about learners' attitudes towards the teachers and course was derived by using Semantic Differential Format of Osgood et. al. (1957) (e.g. impatient-patient; friendly-unfriendly; meaningful-meaningless). The author used SPSS to analyze data. He used Pearson's product moment correlation coefficients. In designing the question, the author used a modified [by him] version of Attitude/Motivation Test Battery of Gardner (1985).

The first hypothesis of the author was that there is a negative correlation between classroom anxiety and learners' proficiency. The findings of this study confirm this hypothesis, i.e. classroom anxiety hinders the process of language learning. The author remarks that classroom anxiety is produced by untrained teachers, teacher-centered lesson, irrelevant materials, faulty testing system etc. The second hypothesis was that there is a positive association between learners' attitudes towards teachers and linguistic proficiency which is confirmed by the analysis of data. The third hypothesis is that there is a positive

correlation between attitudes towards course and learners' proficiency in speaking and writings. The analysis of data suggests that this hypothesis is also true. Attitude towards course is constituted by the perception about course difficulty, course utility, and interest of the learners. In other words, those who positively assessed the course appeared to score high on proficiency test (i.e. the criteria variable).

Finally, the author suggests that anxiety of the students can be reduced through creating friendly atmosphere and encouraging collaborative learning. Positive attitudes towards course may be ensured by introducing materials and methods according to the needs of the learners. Besides, teachers should function as a 'facilitator' on 'counselor' in the class.

5.1.14 In his article, "Status of Students' Anxiety in English Learning as a Foreign Language at Secondary Level", Md. Nazim Mahmud (Research Fellow, Institute of Education and Research (IER), Dhaka University) [Mahmud, 2010] investigates level of students' anxiety in learning four skills.

The participants of this study include 90 students (both male and female) from [6 schools] of Dhaka city. The students have been purposively chosen from Grade VI, VII, and VIII. In addition, 12 English teachers (2 teachers from each school; self-selective sampling) also participated in the study. The author elicited data from the students using questionnaire. In addition, the author conducted semi-structured interview to extract data from the teachers.

Analysis of students' (self-report) data reveals that majority of the students (43.3%) encounter anxiety while dealing with speaking skill. Besides, 21.1% students encounter anxiety while writing in English; 21.1% students experience anxiety in listening to English; and 14.4% students experience anxiety while reading English texts. Students' response regarding their level of anxiety is supported by their teachers as well. In particular, all the teachers reported that students experience anxiety while speaking in English. In the

interview, teachers identified the following causes that are responsible for generating anxiety in students while speaking in English: Shyness, poor repertoire of vocabulary, lack of practice, fear, and lack of knowledge about sentence construction. Teachers also opined that fear of making mistakes and unfriendly teacher-students relationship also generate anxiety among students. Besides, teachers reported that students experience less anxiety while dealing with writing skill when compared to speaking skill, because (a) students get enough time to think when they are assigned to write, and (b) students' writing is not exposed to public. This apart, some students who experience anxiety while reading reported that they become anxious when they encounter any word whose pronunciation is unknown to them and when they fail to understand the meaning of any complex sentence structure [while reading aloud in the class]. However, it is to note that the author did not find any statistically significant correlation between students' proficiency in four skills and level of anxiety.

5.1.15 In her survey, "The Role That Affective States Play in Tertiary Level Second Language Classrooms in Bangladesh: A Private University Scenario", Soniya Irfat Urmee (Senior Lecturer, Department of English, Stamford University Bangladesh) [Urmee, 2011] investigates psychological profile of students which catalyzes language learning process.

The participants of this study involve 60 randomly selected students (30 male, 30 female) from English, Microbiology, journalism, Law, Film and Media, Business Administration, Computer Science, and Civil Engineering department of Stamford University Bangladesh. The author collected data using structured questionnaire.

Findings of the study suggests that majority of the students are instrumentally motivated towards learning English. Most of the students opined that classroom environment is significant in increasing motivation, and positive evaluation [i.e. better grades] increases level of motivation. Majority of the students reported that there is no connection between

their background as Bangla medium students and their self-image. A large number of students reported that better performing students create anxiety about their own self-image. Most of the students think that performance in the class is connected with upbringing, family support, and satisfaction in personal life. A significant number of female students (more than males) suffer from trait anxiety [tendency of being anxious about everything] which affect language learning. A large number of students suffer from state anxiety (i.e. anxiety in a specific moment; e.g. encountering a particular teacher) and situational anxiety (i.e. anxiety about specific event or situation). Majority of the students opined that speaking skill and listening skill are highly affected, and reading and writing are less affected skills affected by affective [emotional] factors. Most of the participants believe that both teachers and students have responsibilities in lowering affective filter. In response to an open-ended question, students opined that student-friendly class might contribute to improve their concentration in language learning.

The author recommends that teachers should provide positive feedback on students' mistakes. Second, teachers should ensure equal participation of all students in group activities. Third, teachers should overlook minor mistakes of students in speaking [to increase their level of confidence]. Fourth, students should endeavor to construct positive self-image.

5.1.16 In his article, "The Critical Period Hypothesis: A Critical View", Mohammad Shamsuzzaman (Part-time Lecturer, Department of English, North South University) [Shamsuzzaman, 2007-2011] explicates validating and invalidating argument regarding Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH).

The author notes the following researches which support CPH. The first study that the author discusses is Johnson and Newport's (1989) research on 46 adult Chinese and

Korean ESL learners. The participants of this study entered the USA at ages ranging from 3-39. The researchers categorized the participants into four groups: AoA [age of arrival in the U.S.] 3-7, AoA 8-10, AoA 11-15, and AoA 17-39. There was a control group with 23 native speakers of English. In a grammaticality judgment test AoA 3-7 group demonstrated native-live proficiency. The performance of other groups was [poor] in comparison with the native control group. From this study, Johnson and Newport deduces that age affects SLA and critical period ends after puberty. Other researchers such as Jia (1998), Dekeyser (2000) imitated Johnson and Newport's study. Jia's study on 105 non-native speakers of English and Dekeyser's study on 57 Hungarian ESL learners support Johnson and Newport's study. Bialystock and Miller's (1998) study on 28 Spanish and 33 Chinese speakers of English with a control group of 38 native speakers provides evidence for CPH.

The author mentions the following researches that invalidate CPH. First, Genesee's (1998) study on French immersion students [English speakers] in Canada demonstrated that there was no significant difference between the performance of early immersion (L2 commenced in Grade 1) and late immersion (L2 commenced in Grade 7/8). Second, McDonald's (2000) study on Vietnamese and Spanish learners of English indicates that performance of late learners [in terns of AoA] can be similar to early learners and native speakers, and sometimes, early learners may fail to perform well. In Birdsong and Molis's (2001) study, late learners (AoA>17) showed native-like proficiency [as indicated in Johnson and Newport's (1989) study]. The author mentions a study from neurological research which reveals that there are differences between language processing mechanisms of early and late bilinguals; nevertheless, it cannot confirm CPH. In particular, Hirsh's study (1997) (which employed Functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging Process) found that in sentence generation task, late bilinguals activated two different centers in 'Broca's area' whereas early

bilinguals' activation of Broca's area remained indistinctive. However, this study does not indicate that children are better learners than are adults.

In order to downsize the significance of age (and CPH) in SLA, the author points out that gender, genetic factors, typological relation between L1 and L2, resources (pedagogic and technological) available for language learning, motivation, identity of learners (i.e. whether learners would strive to retain their identity on acculturate) are determining factors in ESL learning. In addition, the author mentions Edward Said and Joseph Conrad who learned English in their adulthood.

Finally, the author notes that future research on CPH should include effect of age on learning semiotic system, not simply on language. Second, the reason of lateralization should be discovered, not simply the temporal point of lateralization, because "myelination varies from person to person" (p.55) which indicates that only age does not cause lateralization.

5.1.17 In his article, "Relevance of the Study of Interlanguage to Teaching EFL at the Tertiary Level", Dr. M. Maniruzzaman (Associate Professor, Department of English, Jahangirnagar University, Bangladesh) [Maniruzzaman, 2008] explores significance of identifying interlanguage of EFL students.

In this experimental study, [undergraduate] students of Language Centre of Jahangirnagar University participated. Both experimental group and control group contained 21 students. The author selected students for this study using simple random sampling process in which every 'nth' student from a list was taken. As instrument of data collection about students' proficiency, the author used Oxford placement test (developed by Allan, 1985, composed of MCQ type of question). The author adds two more items to this test: a free composition test and a speaking test. For examining interlanguage of the students, the author adopted the method of error analysis.

Both the experimental and control group were given pre-program test and post-program test. In the pre-program test, experimental group scored 40, 33, 6 and 11.5 in test of grammatical structures, test of reading and listening skills, free composition test, and speaking test respectively whereas control group scored 41, 31, 6.5 and 12 in the test of grammatical structures, test of reading and listening skills, free composition test, and speaking test respectively. Error analysis indicates the "linguistic deficiencies" of the experimental group in the pre-program phase. In particular, in the test of grammatical structures, the students demonstrated errors in using noun, determiner, relative pronoun, adverb, modals, verbs, tense, connector, preposition, and subject-verb agreement. In the test of reading and listening skills, students' speed in skimming and scanning was "slow". In addition, students' reading comprehension skill was found unsatisfactory due to inadequate knowledge of vocabulary and syntax. Students also encountered problem in recognizing English sounds (e.g. monopthong, diphthong, intonation, stress). In the free composition test, students could not write correct sentences and well-organized essay. In speaking test, students showed communicative and linguistic incompetence. Specifically, students could not use appropriate words, stress, and intonation in this test.

In the language teaching program (72 contact hours), control group and experimental group were treated differently. The control group was taught using the regular syllabus of the Language Centre. On the other hand, the syllabus for the experimental group was developed using the data derived through error analysis. In other words, the syllabus was aligned to the linguistic input necessary for the students.

The scores of post-program test show that experimental group managed to significantly improve their linguistic proficiency. Precisely, experimental group obtained 81, 78, 14, and 22 [mean score] in the test of grammatical structures, test of reading and listening skills, free composition test, and speaking test respectively whereas the control group scored

55, 49, 8.5, and 15 in the test of grammatical structures, test of reading and listening skills, free composition test, and speaking test respectively.

Based on these findings, the author recommends that students' interlanguage should be taken into consideration in designing language syllabus. Second, interlanguage analysis should accompany needs analysis of the learners.

5.1.18 In his article, "The SL/FL Classroom and the Individual Learner", Md. Maniruzzaman (Assistant Professor, Department of English, Jahangirnagar University) [Maniruzzaman, 1997-1998] explicates the necessity to address individual learner differences in English language teaching.

The author records that SL/FL teachers should possess knowledge about three factors concerning individual learners: psychological factors, social factors, and individual needs/wants. Psychological factors encompass the following concepts: schemata (both formal schemata and content schemata), cognitive learning styles, and affective properties of learners. Schemata refer to the background knowledge of learners. In his discussion of cognitive style the author cites Bruner, Goodnow and Austin (1957) who make a distinction between 'focusers' and 'scanners'. 'Focusers' pay attention to one particular component of a problem at a time whereas 'scanners' concentrate on several components of a problem on a particular moment. The author also cites Witkin, Oltman, Raskin, and Karp (1971) to explain 'field-dependent' learners and 'field-independent' learners. Field-dependent learners can easily recognize the 'whole' of a text whereas 'field-independent' learners can easily understand discrete components or 'part' [isolate] of a text. The author observes: "since field independence is positively related to success in SL/FL learning, learners might be trained to be more field-independent in an open and non-threatening classroom culture" (p. 92). The third element of psychological factors is affective states of learners. In other words, affective

factors such as attitude, self-esteem and anxiety influence English language learning. Social factors, the second factor that constitute individual learner difference, refer to [socio-economic] class of learners. Individual needs/wants is the third factor that demarcate between learners. The author points out that learners might have 'integrative' or 'instrumental' needs. In addition, citing Allwright (1987) the author notes that learners' 'wants' or 'deficiencies' have to be identified as well. The author contends that in order to determine needs/wants of learners, teachers may conduct 'immediate need analysis'.

Finally, the author suggests that teaching methods or classroom activities should be synchronic with individual learner differences; second, instead of adopting one particular methodology for students, eclectic method may be used; third, teacher training program should introduce teachers with psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics and pedagogy. Fourth, classroom environment should be 'non-threatening' [i.e. anxiety free].

5.1.19 In her article, "The Role of Age in Second Language Learning", Feroza Yasmin (Associate Professor, Department of Linguistics, University of Dhaka) [Yasmin, 2005] discusses critical period Hypothesis (CPH).

In the section entitled "Historical perspective" the author traces the history of the term CPH. The author points out that Penfield and Roberts, neurologists, initiated the discussion on the impact of age on language learning in 1959. Later on, Lenneberg, a neurologist, introduced the term 'Critical Period Hypothesis' in 1967. In the section entitled "Definition of the CPH", citing Scovel (2000) the author notes that critical period rages from birth to puberty. In this period, humans can learn language easily. According to Lenneberg, critical period begins at the age of 2/3 and terminates at 13. Werker and Tee believe that critical period starts from the age of 10 to 12 months. However, Bialystok and Hakuta suggest that the terminal age of critical period is 20.

In the section entitled "CPH: the supporting opinions" the author documents the arguments that support CPH. Penfield, on the basis of his of observation of [a child] learning French (English speaking child) reported that second language learning was easy "before the age 12" (p. 100). Second, Genie failed to master her first language since she started to learn the language after puberty. Third, on the basis of his study on "brain injured children" Lenneberg argued that it is difficult to acquire language after puberty. Fourth, in their study on Chinese and Korean speakers, Johnson and Newport (1989) found that the subject who emigrated to the USA before the age of 7 attained native-like proficiency in English.

In the section entitled "CPH: The adversary opinions", the author records some argument against CPH. First, Lamendella (1977) maintains that though Lenneberg's theory holds that children may learn language easily, it does not claim that acquisition of language is impossible for adults. Second, Julie, an adult speaker of English, attained native-speaker proficiency in Egyptian Arabic as a second language. She started to learn Egyptian Arabic at the age of 21. She learned the language (i.e. Egyptian Arabic) in natural setting. This study was conduct by Ioup et.al. (1994). However, the author points out that age is not the only factor that determines the success of SLA. First language of the learners, length of exposure, language input, feedback etc. contribute to developing proficiency of the L2 students.

In the section entailed "Pedagogic implication" the author indicates that since early start cannot guarantee better linguistic proficiency, "it is not worth introducing a second language in primary education" (p.115). In this context, the author notes that English is a compulsory subject at primary level in Bangladesh; "nevertheless, English language proficiency of Bangladeshi learners is not satisfactory". Therefore, "for the cognitive immaturity, childhood is not a suitable time to begin second language learning" (p. 115). The author suggests to introduce second language at the age of 13-14 (i.e. at secondary level).

5.1.20 In her article, "Child Language Acquisition and "Universal Grammar"", Shayla Nahar Ahmed (Assistant professor, Department of English, University of Dhaka) [Ahmed, 2007] describes child language development (phases) and makes an attempt to substantiate Chomsky's 'Universal Grammar' theory.

The author discusses seven stases of child language development. The first stage is pre-linguistic stage which involves crying, cooing and babbling (children start to babble at the age of 4-6 months). The second stage is called 'one word stage' or holophrastic stage which begins at the age of 12-18 months. The third stage is 'two word stage' which starts at the age of 18 month. A 'pivot word' (e.g. 'a') and an 'open word' (e.g. 'coat') constitute two word utterances. The fourth stage is called 'telegraphic stage' in which children can "produce utterances with two, three, four or five words or longer" (p. 171). At this stage, children do not use function words. The fifth stage is 'intermediate development stage' (age: 3 years). At this stage, children start to acquire inflections, negative and wh-questions.

In the section entitled "Some major theories of Child Language Acquisition". The author points out that there are two views concerning child language development: Empiricist and rationalist. Empiricists hold that language acquisition takes place through experience [exposure] whereas rationalists such as Chomsky believes that children are biologically programmed to learn language. Another theory o language acquisition is 'behaviorism', propounded by B.F. Skinner (1957). Another theory of language acquisition is 'social interaction' which maintains that first language is acquired through social communication. In the section entailed "'Universal Grammar' and Child Language Acquisition", the author explains the notion of 'Universal Grammar'. The theory of universal grammar assumes that (a) "a child is born with 'Universal Grammar'" and (b) Universal Grammar is constituted of principles of all language (e.g. structure dependency).

In the section entitled "The stages of Language Acquisition and "Universal Grammar"", the author tries to substantiate UG theory by drawing data from developmental stages of children. The author puts forward the following argument to establish the validity of UG theory. First, Language development of children is systematic and universal. Universal Grammar of a child interacts with the mechanism of a particular language which contribute to the development of grammatical competence. Production of consonant and vowel sounds are universal. Citing Pinker (1984) and Genter (1982) the author writes: in the 'one word stage', "children of different languages first acquire the nouns of their mother tongue" (p.181). Children do not violate the word order (e.g. SVO, SOV) of a particular Language. To substantiate this point, the author cites Pinker who found 95% utterances of 12 children that demonstrated correct word order. Braine's (1976) study found correct word order in utterances of a 25-month child. Hidekazu Miyahara and Kazuko Miyahara (1978) found SOV word order in a Japanese child. The author writes: "According to Universal Grammar, this kind of word order is already present in children's mind and is activated when children are exposed to their native language. So English children learn the SVO order, while Japanese children learn the SOV order" (p. 182). Universal grammar encompasses principles of language[s]. To support this view, the author refers to the study of Valian (1989). Valian (1989) found that English children used overt subjects in 70% utterances whereas Italian children used overt subjects in 30% utterances in telegraphic stage. Thus, children become aware of the system of 'pro-drop' [pronoun deflection] in their own languages (in telegraphic stage). The author maintains that children's consciousness about 'structure dependency' of language (which is a constituent of UG) can be observed in Intermediate Development Stage. For instance, a four-year-old child utters sentences such as "Where should I put it?"; but the child would not utter a sentence like: "Should it where I put?".

5.1.21 In the article, "Monitoring the 'Monitor': A Critique of Krashen's Five Hypotheses", Manmay Zafar (Commonwealth academic staff scholar and doctoral candidate in English, Wadham College, University of Oxford, UK; and Assistant Professor, Department of English, Dhaka University) [Zafar, 2009] briefly discusses Krashens' monitor model and presents its criticism.

The first hypothesis of Krashen's monitor model is 'acquisition-learning' hypothesis. In this context, acquisition refers to the 'subconscious' process of developing linguistic competence whereas 'learning' refers to 'conscious' process of developing linguistic competence. The author argues that no demarcation line should be drawn between acquisition and learning; rather both learning and acquisition concurrently function in developing linguistic proficiency. The second hypothesis is 'monitor hypothesis' which refers to the notion that learned knowledge of linguistic system is employed to edit or monitor the production of language. The author notes that this hypothesis is not empirically substantiated. The third hypothesis is 'natural order hypotheses'. This hypothesis assumes that L2 learners follow a predictable route/natural order in acquitting grammatical structure. The author claims that "not all L2 learners adopt the same route to attain Target Language (TL) proficiency" (p. 142). The author contends that Krashen oversighted the impact of L1 in L2 acquisition (i.e. negative and positive transfers). The fourth hypothesis is 'input hypothesis' which refers to mechanism of acquiring language through receiving [comprehensible input]. The author points out that this theory lacks [empirical] evidence. The fifth hypothesis is 'affective filter hypothesis'. This hypothesis assumes that motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety influence success/failure of L2 learners. The author points out that Krashen overlooked the presence of affective variables among children (e.g. sense of insecurity, anxiety, lack of self-confidence).

5.2.0 Language Education Policy

5.2.1 Miah Md. Naushaad Kabir (Doctoral researcher of EFL University, Hyderabad, India) [Kabir, 2011], in his explorative essay "Controversies in English (Language Education) in Bangladesh: The Colonial Contexts", makes an attempt to establish a causal connection between colonial history and language-in-education policy of present time in Bangladesh. Kabir divides his article into five sections: introduction, history of Bangladesh in a nutshell, history of English (Language Education) in the Bengal Presidency in the colonial period, and conclusion.

In the section entitled "History of English (Language Education) in the Bengal Presidency in the colonial period" the author chronologically records some information about the entrance of English language in India. He notes that English entered India in 1630s with the establishment of English factories at Balasore and Hugli. Later on, East India Company introduced English in business and official domain. Kabir notes that the spread of teaching-learning of English was systematized by English schools established in Kolkata in the 17th century. Apart from schools, three universities were established in Bombay and Madras in 1857 with English as medium of instruction (MOI) as a consequence of Charles Wood's Educational Despatch (1854). In East Bengal (now Bangladesh), Dhaka University was founded in 1921 on the basis of Calcutta University Commission Report which played a significant role in English language Education. Apart from academic institutions, literary societies such as the Asiatic Society and Calcutta Literary Society, and journalistic publications such as Hicky's the *Bengal Gazatte*, Ramgopal Ghose's the *Bengal Spectator* contributed to the spread of English in India. Besides, the 1813 charter of Company made a provision for educating Indian and translating English books into Oriental languages. In the

19th century, Macaulay's 'Minute on Education 1835' asserted the significance of learning

English; Freedom of Press Act 1835 encouraged publications in English language;

Hardinge's Resolution (10 October 1844) and Queen Victoria's declaration in 1858 required

Indians to learn English for government jobs.

In the concluding section of this article, the author documents debates over the

introduction of English language in Bangladesh. For instance, Bangladesh Education

Commission Report advocates introduction of English from class VI as a compulsory subject

whereas Report of the English Teaching Task Force recommends introduction of English

from class III or VI as a compulsory subject; Commission for the Foundation of Education

Policy, 1997 suggested teaching of English from class III; the National Education Policy,

2000 opines that English can be an additional subject in class I and II and compulsory subject

in class III; and finally, National Education Policy (2010) suggested the introduction of

English in class I.

5.2.2 In her essay, "Language Planning in Bangladesh: A Case Study", Razia Sultana Khan

(Associate professor of English, North South University, Dhaka) [Khan, 2002] describes the

history of language education policy of Bangladesh and explains the repercussion of

inconsistent policy.

The author begins her historical exposition from pre-independent Bangladesh. Prior

to 1971, as the author notes, Bangla was the language of social domains and, education in

Bangla medium schools. English was the compulsory subject at secondary and higher

secondary level; though it was the medium of instruction at tertiary level. Before

independence, there was no specific [de jure] Language policy in the Bengal Delta.

However, an Education commission constituted in 1974 made an attempt to formulate a

language [Education] policy for Bangladesh (LEP). The commission recommended Bangla

language as medium of instruction. In particular, the commission suggested introducing Bangla as a compulsory subject up to class XII. They recommended introducing English from class VI to XII as a compulsory subject. Since the commission did not define any medium of instruction for tertiary level, university student were allowed to write answer in the tests either in English or in Bangla. To resolve this uncertain condition, Ministry of Education formed English Language Teaching Task Force to assess condition of English language teaching in Bangladesh. The report of the task force raveled that the English proficiency of secondary and higher secondary students was below the expected level. In addition, English skill of the trainee teachers at teacher training colleges was also unsatisfactory. On the basis of these findings, the task force [1976] recommends to introduce English from class III or IV to organize long and short term training program for secondary level teachers, to introduce graded syllabus according to the needs of the students, and to test writing and comprehensive skills at SSC and HSC level. In response to the report of the Task Force English was introduced in class III and a new textbook with focus on language replacing literary content was designed for higher secondary level. Since English teachers were trained in teaching literature and therefore failed to deal with the new textbook, the traditional literature- based syllabus was reintroduced. In 1983, 'Bengali Introduction Law' demanded proficiency in Bangla in administrative domains at public and private sector. However, the author observes that despite the language law, proficiency in English remained an unarticulated condition for jobs and promotion. But the people of Bangladesh could not cope with the demand for bilingual skills (i.e. proficiency in both Bangla and English). Realizing the need for academic and occupational purposes to check the deterioration of English proficiency, Bangladesh government decided to introduce English from class I in 1990; in line with this decision, new syllabus and new books for class I-X were introduced. In 1972, an act passed by the government of Bangladesh re-introduced English at tertiary

levels. In 1995, a British council study (sponsored by the UGC) identified two problems of teaching English in Bangladesh: shortage of English teachers and lack of training. The recommendation of British council report emphasized on pedagogic planning, formulation of expert teams, graded syllabus and extension of course hours. In 2000, National Education Policy suggested introduction of English an additional subject from class I and as a compulsory subject from class III.

Finally, the author remarks that language [education] policy of Bangladesh was not followed by any planning. The author suggests that an effective and precise policy along with proper planning is necessary to improve the condition of language education in Bangladesh.

5.2.3 In his essay, "The 'Politics' of Language in the Bangladeshi Education System: A Deliberate Perpetuation of Obscurity and Chaos", Faheem Hasan Shahed (Associate Professor & Head, Department of English, American International University-Bangladesh) [Shahed, 2009] discusses language policy and language education policy of Bangladesh.

The author notes that Bangladesh Education Commission Report of 1974 recommended introduction of English from class VI. The suggestion of this report was ignored–English remained compulsory from class 3. However, at one point English was introduced from class I on the following ground: starting to learn English from early stage of life would be beneficial for the students. The author remarks that dispute over English language education policy led to "dysfunctional bilingualism"—which means lack of proficiency in both Bangla and English in the context of Bangladesh.

The author, citing Rahman (1999), points out that English language education policy in Bangladesh is implemented through "power-coercive strategy". "power-coercive strategy" refers to imposition of policy using force. The author gives an example to show that English

language education policy in Bangladesh follows "power-coercive strategy". In 1986, a textbook entitled *English for Today Book VIII* was introduced for class 11 and 12. This book was withdrawn due to the reaction of the critics. In particular, critics pointed out that the texts [of the book] were un-English, unimaginative, and unidiomatic. However, in an "acceptability experiment" Hamidur Rahman (1998) found that some "ungrammatical" sentences identified by critics were acceptable to native speakers of English. Arifa Rahman opined that the textbook became a personal issue of education secretary who came from literature background. Therefore, the textbook was revised by incorporating literacy. Arifa Rahman provides another example of 'power-coercive strategy'. English language was introduced in class I without any consultation with ELT-expert and English teachers. Apart from this, the author notes that there is no homogenous policy on medium of instruction at tertiary level in Bangladesh.

The author also mentions inconsistency in Bangla language policy. A cabinet held on 13 February 1979 emphasized on the use of Bangla in all domains in Bangladesh. However, use of Bangla in all domains could not be ensured. Finally, the author cites Prof. Serajul Islam Chowdhury who believes that everyone in the country may not need to learn English. He also cites Monsoor Musa (1995) who suggests that education system of Bangladesh should admit the significance of learning foreign language.

5.2.4 In his article, "Rethinking the Status of English in Bangladesh: Why it Should be the Second Language, Not a Foreign Language", Dr. M. Maniruzzaman (Associate Professor, Dept. of English, Jahangirnagar University) [Maniruzzaman, 2009] investigates people's perception about the status of English and, explores the use of English in different domains in Bangladesh.

The participants of this study include 70 participants (randomly selected) who are educationists, students, businesspersons, bureaucrats, doctors, lawyers and politicians by profession. The author used structured questionnaire (closed ended) to elicit data. In this study, the author deals with two hypotheses. First, "though a foreign language constitutionally, English is currently being used as a second language in different sectors of Bangladesh". Second, "the prevailing situation of Bangladesh demands a language policy to be adopted and a pragmatic plan to be implemented to consider English as complementary to Bengali and proclaim it as the second language of the country" (p. 70).

Findings of the study indicate that 93% respondents use English with their family members; 100% respondents use English with their friends and colleagues; 100% use English in their profession, workplace, and to communicate with foreigners. Besides, 91% participants think that their fellow persons need to use English in their everyday life; 94% reported that they need to use English in their daily life; 100% reported that they use English and Bengali side by side in their real life communication. The author argues that these data support the first hypothesis about the use of English as a second language in Bangladesh. Apart from this, the following data testifies the second hypothesis about the existing demand of declaring English as a second language. First, 43% respondents opined that English should "remain a foreign language in the constitution of Bangladesh" (p.78) whereas 57% disagreed with this idea. Second, 46% opined that "English should remain a foreign language in the education system of Bangladesh" (p. 79) whereas 54% opposed the idea. Third, all the respondents favored the use of English in the education system of Bangladesh. Fourth, 97% opined that English should be used in the official activity in Bangladesh. Fifth, 91% thinks that they should "use English in their daily activities" (p.81). Sixth, 92% opined that "English should be complementary to Bengali" (p. 82). Seventh, 87% opined that "English should be used in all the official activities of Bangladesh" (p. 82). Eighth, 67% opined that

"English should be used in all the social activities of Bangladesh" (p. 83). Ninth, 94% opined that "English should be used in all the educational activities of Bangladesh" (p. 84). On the basis of these findings the author recommends that "a language policy should be adopted and a pragmatic plan should be implemented so as to consider English as complementary to Bengali and proclaim it as the second language of Bangladesh" (p. 86).

5.2.5 In the essay, "English Teaching at the Turn of the Century", Anita Pincas (Senior Lecturer, Institute of Education at University of London, London) [Pincas, 2002] discusses ELT methodology and English Language Education policies.

The author documents the ELE policy and practice of Israel. ELT curriculum in Israel adopted a structural approach one decade ago. The existing curriculum is designed to facilitate "natural language learning" using specific themes. This approach excludes teaching of graded linguistic items, i.e. grammar and vocabulary. However, teachers of Israel encounter problems in teaching English due to multilingual and mixed-ability class.

The author maintains that teaching English as a separate subject cannot develop "sufficient competence" of the students. The author argues for partial immersion. In addition, the author makes some suggestions about language pedagogy. First, starting age of learning English should be early (6, 3, or 4). Second, learners should be given natural context for learning English. Besides, speaking should precede reading, and reading should precede writing. Third, only the target language should be used in the classroom. Fourth, "international intelligibility" should be the goal of language teaching [rather than Standard English]. Fifth, multilingual should try to devise solutions to language teaching problems.

5.2.6 In her essay, "Language Problems in Singapore and Hong Kong", Mahmuda Nasrin (Associate Professor, English Discipline, Khulna University, Khulna) [Nasrin, 2008] discusses language policy and practice of Singapore and Hong Kong.

In her discussion of the language policy of Singapore, the author mentions that there are four official languages in Singapore: Mandarin, Tamil, Malay, and English. However, use of English in different domains is increasing. The two reasons for the acceptance of English in Singapore are the following: (a) English is not connected with any race of Singapore; therefore, it is a 'neutral' language; second, English gives access to science and technology. However, English language is an obstacle to the construction of national identity on the one hand, and carrier of western values on the other. A variety called 'Singlish' has emended in Singapore though it was not planned by the government. The author indicates that there might be unprecedented consequence of language planning.

In her discussion of Hong Kong language policy, the author points out that Hong Kong has three official language: English, Cantonese, and Putonghua. Though in the early 20th century there was an attempt to promote Chinese [medium education], English became the dominant language due to the following reasons. First, Hong Kong government prefers degrees from English speaking counties. Second, officials of Education department are trained in England who recommend adoption of foreign (i.e. English) curriculum. In addition, western advisers catalyze education system of Hong Kong.

5.2.7 In her essay, "Imperialism and English Education Policies in the Sub-Continent", Zakia Ahmad (Assistant Professor, Department of English & Humanities, ULAB, Dhaka) [Ahmad, 2008] discusses language policies of India and Bangladesh with reference to British imperialism.

In this paper, the author points out that language policy of India and Bangladesh has been formulated by taking British colonial history into account which led to placing emphasis on English language. The author notes that "Three Language Formula" of India (adopted in 1960s) recognized the significance of English along with Hindi and other regional languages. English Language is widely used in India as a consequence of British colonization. On the other hand, Government of Bangladesh made an attempt to ensure the use of Bangla in all domains through 'Bengali Implementation Act' of 1987, English managed to retain its place in education, administration, and other domains. Use of English in Bangladesh, like India, is also an outcome of British imperialism. The author indicates that in the present age globalization has made English an essential language throughout the world. According to the author, British imperialism is reasserting itself through ensuring the use of English around the world in the globalized world.

5.2.8 In her essay, "Perspectives on Current Uses of English in Bangladesh", Arifa Rahman (Associate Professor, English, IML, University of Dhaka) [Rahman, 1998] discusses factor affecting present status of English in Bangladesh and proposes a typology of English use in the country.

The author identifies three factors that in catalyze the present status of English in Bangladesh. First, (a) "acquisition of the various spheres of knowledge" which means English is used in science, technology, diplomacy, trade and banking etc. In addition, the author remarks that English is significant in Bangladesh for higher studies and for receiving training abroad; (b) second, English is a "marker of modernization" in Bangladesh. The author suggests that use of English has increased in Bangladesh due to the development of information technology. In addition, satellite channels, sports at international level and western pop culture also elevated the status of English in Bangladesh. Third, English is a

"vehicle of pragmatic success" in Bangladesh. In addition, the author remarks that English is essential for Bangladesh to enter international job market. Further, English is used in South Asia as inter-regional (e.g. SAARC) language for communication. Besides, the author opposes Phillipson's notion of linguicism with regard to English in the context of Bangladesh and sides with Pennycook (1994) who holds that English can be culturally appropriated to serve the purpose of EFL/ESL users.

The author proposes a typology of English use in Bangladesh by adapting Ferguson's (1996) typology of superposed languages such as Persian, Portuguese and English in Calcutta from the late 18th century to late the 19th century. Ferguson's typology of language use includes the following domains: lingua franca, government, religion, education, literature, influence, and development (e.g. technical access, education). The author adds five more domains to this typology in the context of Bangladesh. These are: employment, communication (including electronic and digital network), social mobility, media, music and entertainment. The author locates the 12 domains of use of English in Bangladesh "on the basis[s] of concurrent usage in academic, professional, technical, social and cultural spheres" (p. 34).

5.2.9 In her essay, "Language Policy and Planning for Bangladesh", Mahmuda Nasrin (Assistant Professor, English Discipline, Khulna University) [Nasrin, 2003] explains two paradigms of language policy and planning.

The author notes that there are three types of language policy and planning in the world: 'language shift policy' which encourages acquisition of a dominant language abandoning mother tongue or community language; 'language maintenance policy' which promotes bilingualism; and 'language enrichment policy' which considers languages as resources and makes an attempt to save endangered languages.

The author discusses two paradigms of language policy: 'Diffusion of English' and 'Ecology of language'. In the section entitled "The diffusion of English paradigm" the author points out that English is a 'killer' language and this language is responsible for unequal distribution of power and resources. In addition, English displaces indigenous languages around the world. The author argues that domination and hegemony of English is the consequence of language policy formulated by the core English speaking countries. In the section entitled "Ecology of language paradigm" the author notes that linguistic ecology refers to cohabitation of languages in a particular geographic space. The ecology of language paradigm promotes multilingualism, linguistic diversity and linguistic human rights.

In the section entitled "options for Bangladesh" the author suggests that people of Bangladesh need to learn Japanese, Korean, and Arabic language as well for pragmatic purposes. In particular, Japan, Korea, and Saudi Arabia provide labor market for Bangladesh. This apart, the author locates two spaces: (a) where knowledge of English determines access to resources and power and, (b) where English does not determine access to resources and power. In particular, countries like Japan, and Scandinavia use English for international communication; but English language does not determine distribution of politico-economic power in these spaces. On the other hand, countries like Philippines use English for internal purposes, and knowledge of English determines access to socio- economic and political power in this space.

Finally, the author recommends that in Bangladesh "English should be used only for international communication" (p. 64). Besides, apart from English, acquisition of other foreign languages should be facilitated by establishing language centers around the whole country. In addition, indigenous languages should be considered as resources and steps should be taken to enrich these languages.

5.2.10 In her article, "The Political Context of Pedagogical Practices in the EFL Classroom in Bangladesh", Shaila Sultana (Lecturer, Department of English, Jahangirnagar University) [Sultana, 2003] explores political implications of ELT pedagogy in Bangladesh.

In the section entitled "Study of Language: An imperial invasion", the author points out that learning grammar to acquire proficiency is overemphasized in Bangladesh. The author identifies a political connotation of teaching-learning grammar. She notes that in the late 15th century Nebrija submitted [description of] Castilian grammar to Queen Isabella and contended that grammar can be an apparatus of colonization. In other words, as Nebrija maintains, standardization of language ensures centralized control over language and production of books; thus, it limits people's access to different types of reading materials. The author draws an implication of this incident in the context of Bangladesh. ELT pedagogy in Bangladesh encourages "students to study only prescribed textbooks" (p. 119) and discourages them "to study anything beyond their syllabus" (p. 119). In the section entitled "Knowledge and textbooks: A colonized definition", the author mentions that textbooks of secondary and higher secondary level is grammar-based and form-focused. In the section entitled "EFL classroom—A place for centralistic play of power", the author argues that teacher-student relationship in Bangladesh is determined by 'Banking concept' of education (as explained in Freire, 1970) which is a tool for dehumanization. The author observes: "In Bangladesh our classroom practices are also dehumanizing our students" (p. 121). In the section entitled "Hierarchical relationship between teacher and student", the author notes that teachers in Bangladesh are authoritative, autocratic, and follow lock-step teacher-centered approach in the classroom. The author observes: "The EFL classrooms in Bangladesh also maintain the social hierarchy in the relationship of teachers and students" (p. 121). On the other hand, students are, as the author indicates, passive, dependent, vulnerable, self-deprecating and slave like in the Hegelian sense. In the section entitled "Student as

passive learner" the author records that the unequal power relations of teacher-student in the classroom does not allow students to apply their critical thinking ability, or to become creators of knowledge. In the section entitled "EFL classrooms and policy makers", the author notes that unequal power-relations between policy makers and ELT practitioners lead to uncritical acceptance of pedagogic decisions formulated by the policy makers. In the section entitled "EFL classrooms—A zone of silence", the author points out that EFL classroom in Bangladesh is not dialogical and encourages "mere repetition of dialogue prepared on unauthentic contexts" (p. 123). The author observes: "In EFL classrooms in Bangladesh, there is usually no opportunity for teachers and students to be involved in dialogs. The classroom practices in Bangladesh encourage passivity so that students can be subjugated easily, so that they do not question teachers, i.e. the authorities. In the section entitled "Physical setting of EFL classroom—A metaphorical representation of unequal distribution of power", the author contends that sitting arrangements (i.e. fixed rows for the students) signify inferior status of students in the classroom [in comparison with the status of their teachers].

The author suggests that critical pedagogy which encourages critical thinking and dialogic thinking should be introduced in the EFL classrooms of Bangladesh. In addition, appropriate ELT methodology according to the needs of the students should be devised for Bangladeshi context.

5.2.11 In his essay, "The Reports of Education Commissions and English in Bangladesh", Bijoy Bhushon Das (Assistant Professor, Department of English, American International University, Bangladesh) [Das, 2008-09] describes and evaluates reports of education commissions formed after the partition of 1947.

The author examines the following education commission reports to detect the status of English in them: East Pakistan Educational Reforms Commission Report 1957; Report of the Commission of national education (Sharif Commission—1959); Commission on Students' Problems and Welfare—1966 (Hamoodur Rahman Report); The National Education Commission Report—1974 (The Qudrat-e-Khuda Commission Report, 1974); The English Teaching Task Force Report—1976; Report of the National Committee on Education Policy: 1997.

The 'East Pakistan Educational Reforms Commission Report 1957' formulated a secular and liberal education policy. This committee did not make any provision for teaching any second language at primary level [i.e. Grade I to Grade V]. The report emphasized on teaching-learning mother tongue at this level, arguing that second language would be stressful for the students, because psychological energy of children is limited. This report recommended introducing English from Grade VI to Grade VIII as an optional subject. This commission was in favor of using mother tongue as medium of instruction at higher level of education. With regard to method of teaching English, the commission recommended Direct Method. In his evaluation of this report, the author remarks that the commission failed to understand the pragmatic value of English language at university level education. In other words, English was the language of inter-regional communication (between East and West Pakistan) and an essential language for obtaining government and private job. Thus, the functional load of English was high. Ignoring this reality, the commission favored mother tongue [i.e. Bangla] at university level education.

The 'Report of the Commission on National Education (Sharif Commission)—1959' constructed an Islamized education policy. This commission did not suggest introducing English at primary level; but it recommended introducing English as compulsory subject from class VI to XII. The report emphasized on teaching-learning of language rather than

English literature. The commission also recommended introducing English at degree level.

With regard to teaching methodology, the commission report encouraged the use of tape

recorders, gramophone etc. in teaching-learning English. In his evaluation of this report, the

author remarks: "It attached great importance to learning of English for modernizing the

society and industrializing the country" (p. 35).

The 'Commission on Students' Problems and Welfare—1966 (the Hamoodur Rahman

Report)' did not recommend to introduce English at primary level. However, the report

suggested introducing English as compulsory subject from class VI to Matriculation level.

However, it did not make any suggestion regarding introduction of English at college or

university level. Nonetheless, the commission recognized the significance of English in

Pakistan. In his evaluation of this commission, the author appreciates the commission's

attempt to "modernize the society" by recognizing the significance of English.

'The National Education Commission Report—1974 (The Qudrat-e-Khuda

Commission Report 1974)' (formed in July 26, 1972) did not suggest to introduce English at

primary level. The commission recommended introducing English as a compulsory subject

form class VI to XII. The commission did not make any suggestion regarding introduction of

English at university level. The commission favored Bangla as medium of instruction at all

levels of education. In his critique of this commission, the author points out that the

commission overlooked the issue of English language teaching methodology, English

textbooks, and training of English teachers.

'The English Teaching Task Force Report—1976 ' explored a dismal condition of

English teaching-learning on the basis of a survey conducted on 50 institutions (secondary

and higher secondary level institutions [class VI to XII] and teacher training institutes). The

task force identified the following factors that are responsible for the unsatisfactory condition

of teaching-learning English language: (a) absence of useful textbooks, (b) lack of trained

English teachers, (c) large class size, and (d) faulty system of examination. According to the recommendation of this task force, 'English for Today' textbook series was introduced at secondary and higher secondary level in 1980s. However, these textbooks had to be withdrawn due to resistance [of the stakeholders]. In his critique of this Task Force, the author notes that this Task Force overlooked kindergartens and English medium schools.

The 'Report of the National committee on Education Policy: 1997' suggested introducing English from class III. The committee also recommended introducing English from class IX-XII for the three streams of education: General education, Vocational education, and Madrasah education. In his evaluation of this commission, the author mentions that this "report is just a reproduction of the Qudrat-e-Khuda Commission of 1974 with some minor additions, deletions, and modifications" (p. 48).

Finally, the author writes: "no government both during Pakistan and Bangladesh periods have taken any concrete steps to implement the whole or part of any of the report" (p. 49). Referring to *The Daily Star* (24.09.08), the author mentions some causes of indifference of governments toward the recommendations of Education Commissions. First, there is a possibility of public reactions against any kind of innovation. Second, new government tends to ignore reports of education commission formulated during the regime of previous government, because new government appears to be reluctant to give any credit to previous government in the improvement of education system. Third, implementation of the recommendations of education commission requires huge amount of money. However, the author suggests that the government should implement recommendations of education commissions.

5.2.12 In her essay, "English Language Teaching in Bangladesh: An Overview", Feroza Yasmin (Associate Professor, Department of Linguistics, University of Dhaka) [Yasmin, 2006] documents history and challenges of ELT in Bangladesh.

The author notes that 'English Language Teaching Task Force' was formed in 1975 to assess standard of ELT at secondary level, higher secondary level and in teacher training. The survey of the Task Force revealed that English proficiency of Grade-9 students was below two years than the expected level; Grade-12 students lagged behind four years than the expected level. The survey further disclosed that 70% trainee teachers (most of them were in-service teachers) had the capability to handle textbooks up to Grade-7, though they were expected to deal with textbooks up to Grade-10.

However, the author mentions that the following events contributed to improve condition of ELT in Bangladesh. First, 'Bangladesh National Curriculum and Syllabus Developing Committee' was formed in 1975 to develop materials [textbooks] for primary to higher secondary level. The committee recommended a new syllabus with emphasis on four skills. The new textbooks (language-oriented) were introduced in 1978-1986 at primary and secondary levels. The new textbooks did not face any challenge at primary and secondary level. But the new textbook introduced in 1986 at higher secondary level was not welcomed. Teachers opposed and criticized the new textbook since it did not contain literacy texts. Therefore, this textbook was withdrawn. A second decision, that brought positive changes in ELT, as the author indicates, was introduction of English from Grade-3 to Grade-12 in 1977 (as a compulsory subject). However, two decisions according to the author, exacerbated the condition of ELT in Bangladesh: First, introduction of English from Grade-1 in 1991 as a compulsory subject; second, 'Bengali Language Implementation Act-1987' to ascertain the use of Bangla in all domains [replacing English]. In 1997, in order to improve condition of ELF in Bangladesh, English Language Teaching Improvement Projects [ELTIP] started its

journey (jointly financed by Government of Bangladesh and Government of the UK). The objective of this project was to design teaching materials, train teachers and reform testing system (secondary and higher secondary level throughout the country). The author observes: "Until now the develops of textbooks and teachers' books has been the most significant achievement of this project, although it has failed to produce a student workbook. In other areas it has contributed little and is still struggling" (p. 137).

Finally, the author identifies three major challenges for ELT in Bangladesh: First, ignorance of most of the educators, policy makers and English Language teachers regarding the distinction between teaching language and teaching literature; second, low-status of linguistics [department] in Bangladesh [three is a gap between professionals of linguistics and professionals of ELT in Bangladesh]; and third, negative intervention of government (e.g. withdrawal of English textbooks in 1986).

5.3.0 Methods and Techniques

5.3.1 In their article, "Collaborative Learning and the Teacher's Role in an Interactive English Language Classroom", Dr Md. Mizanur Rahman (Professor, Department of English, Islamic University, Kushtia, Bangladesh) and Mohammad Moniruzzaman Miah (Lecturer, department of English, Faculty of Arts and Humanities, Jazan University, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia) [Rahman & Miah, 2011] discuss principles of interactive and collaborative learning, and explains some techniques to solve problems that may arise while following collaborative approach in teaching English language.

The authors maintain that an interactive classroom is learner-centered and facilitates mutual learning process to engage students in heuristics or discovery. In an interactive classroom, the responsibility of a teacher is to involve learners in construction, exploration and subjective interpretations of pedagogic materials through arrangement of tasks. Besides,

an interactive classroom creates environment to use English. According to the authors, teachers, in an interactional classroom, should engage students in tasks, group work and pair work. The authors note that Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and interactive classroom share some common characteristics. For instance, both approach support the use of authentic materials and real-life situations. In teaching reading skills, teachers may select texts from magazines, articles, newspapers, stories, reports, play extracts, poems etc. As a follow-up activity of reading, students may be engaged in such writing activities as summary writing, writing postcards, filling in forms, newspaper articles, dialogues, poems, job applications etc.

In an interactive classroom, students should follow process approach to writing which involves multiple drafting, peer conferencing and collaborative writing. With regard to speaking skill, teachers may involve students in role play, debate, describing objects, oral quizzes on popular topics etc. In conducting speaking activities, teachers should function as a facilitator and provide feedback in the end of the activities. In order to develop listening skills, students may be exposed to such tape-recorded texts as advertisements, news broadcasts, songs with lyrics, interviews, telephone conversations etc. The authors identify two problems in English language classrooms: motivation and class size. To motivate students, teachers may use materials according to their interests of the learners; and, the problem of large class can be solved by forming big groups where advanced students should help weak students.

5.3.2 In her article, "Teaching EFL in Bangladesh: A Comparative Analysis of Pair-Work and Individual Assignments in ELT Classrooms", Imrana Islam [Islam, 2012] compares pair-work and individual assignment in ELT course to establish pair work's superiority over individual assignment. The research questions of this study address the following issues: (a)

grammatical and spelling mistakes committed by individual and paired students which has been investigated by employing the method of error analysis; (b) cooperation between paired students as reflected in the assignments addressed by adopting analytical principles of CDA and social-psychology; (c) motivation of individual and paired students investigated by employing observation method ; (d) development of interpersonal skills among paired students which has been explored through interview method.

In this study, 80 undergraduate second semester students (15% males) participated. The students had been randomly selected from a course titled "Public Speaking" in which there were 48 individual students and 20 pairs, working on a [writing] assignment (approximately 400 words) entitled "An analysis of grammatical deviations in literary, debate, argumentative discussion and speech presentation".

The findings of the study reveal that the number of mistakes committed by paired students is less than those of individual students. Precisely, paired students made 188 grammatical mistakes (subject-verb agreement, tense and aspect, double negation and syntax) whereas individual students made 351 mistakes. Apart from this, individual students made 119 spelling mistakes whereas paired students made 51 spelling mistakes in their assignments. With regard to cooperation among paired students, the author states that students' academic writing reflects cooperation. For instance, paired students overused 'we' i.e. personal pronoun in their writing. The author, using analytical insights from CDA, attributes the use of 'we' in the assignment of pairs as a reflection of group solidarity/identity at lexical level. Drawing upon the jargon of social psychology such as 'us-them distinction' the author argues that the use of 'we' may be the result of students' conceptualization of other groups as rivals or competitors. The author assesses motivation of individual students and paired students by using the criterion of "the frequency of visiting the instructor's office" (p. 24). The findings indicate that individual students visited 34 times and paired students

visited 49 times which suggests that paired students were more motivated than individual students. Finally, 9 groups out of 12 in interview indicate that pair-work helps to establish friendship and interpersonal skills.

5.3.3 In his paper, "The Use of Bengali in English Classrooms in Bangladesh", Sukanta Bhattacharjee (Associate Professor, Department of English, University of Chittagong) [Bhattacharjee, 2012] explores the advantages of using L1 (Bangla) in English language classrooms. In addition, he conducts a small scale survey to investigate perceptions of teachers and students about the use of L1 in English classroom.

The author documents some benefits of using L1 (i.e. Bangla) in L2 classroom. First, Bangla can be used to demonstrate contrast between L1 and L2 which may facilitate learning. Second, use of learners' L1 may be motivating for the students since identity is linked with mother tongue. Third, L1 can be used to clarify ambiguous linguistic item. Fourth, use of mother tongue may facilitate positive L1 transfer. Fifth, use of L1 in English classroom resists cultural alienation and helps in building rapport with teachers. Sixth, if students are allowed to use L1 in the classroom they might feel confident.

Apart from theoretical discussion about using L1 in L2 classroom the author reports the findings of a small scale survey research. In this study, 50 students and 5 teachers from 5 schools, 5 colleges and 2 universities expressed their perception about the use of Bangla in English class by filling out a questionnaire.

The first question of the research instrument (i.e. questionnaire) asked students whether Bangla should be used in English classes. 90% students said 'yes' and 10% said 'no'. Among the teachers, 95% responded positively and 5% responded negatively. The second question was put to elicit students' view on teachers' use of Bangla in English classroom. In response to this question, 23% students opine that Bangla should be used "a

lot" in the class; whereas 27% would like it "on some occasions"; 50% "a little". In the third

question, teachers were asked about the frequency of using Bangla in the English class. In

response, 50% teachers expressed that Bangla should be used "on some occasions" whereas

50% think that Bangla should be used "to aid comprehension". In the fourth question,

students were asked whether use of Bangla facilitates learning English. The analysis of data

reveals that 14% students do not think that use of Bangla would help learn English. The fifth

question [which contains eight propositions about the use of Bangla in different occasions]

seeks to explore students' and teachers' beliefs about appropriate occasions of using Bangla

in the classroom. The data indicates a significant difference between teachers' and students'

perceptions of appropriate occasions [the author avoids interpreting the data; he even does

not mention the contradiction]. In response to this question, 10% students opine that Bangla

may be used to introduce new materials whereas no teacher thinks that Bangla may be used in

such cases. In the second statement, 80% students think that Bangla may be used to explain

difficult linguistic concepts whereas 20% teachers agree with it. In the third statement, 8%

students think that Bangla may be used "to make fun with students" and 18% teachers agree

with the statement. In the fourth statement, 25% students think that Bangla may be used to

"check for comprehension" whereas 15% teachers agree with this statement. In the fifth

statement, 20% students think that Bangla may be used to define new vocabulary items

whereas 10% teachers agree with the statement. In the sixth statement, 80% students believe

that use of Bangla make them confident and comfortable whereas 20% teachers agree with

the statement. In the seventh statement, 2% students think that Bangla may be used in

language testing whereas no teacher agrees with the proposition. In the eighth proposition,

2% students opine that Bangla may be used in pair/group works whereas no teacher agrees

with it. In the sixth question of the questionnaire, students were asked about the reason for

their preference of Bangla in the class. In reply, 15% students report that use of Bangla

makes them feel more comfortable; 70% feel "less lost"; and , 15% "feel less nervous". The author concludes that except spoken English class, Bangla may be used to facilitate L2 learning and to motivate students.

5.3.4 In his article, "Developments in Learning Theories and the Concept of Appropriate ELT Pedagogy", M. Shahidullah (Professor of English at Rajshahi University) [Shahidullah, 2002] surveys learning theories, and documents some parameters to develop appropriate ELT pedagogy.

In his survey of pedagogical theories, the author registers explanations about teaching and learning offered by behaviorism, Vygotskian approach, socio-educational model, schema theory, and socio-cultural or Genetic Explanation theory. Behaviorism, as the author notes, ignores the connection between culture, cognition and psychological factors whereas Vygotskian theory holds that cultural experiences influence learning of an individual. Gardner's socio-educational model assumes that social space, individual differences, context of language acquisition and linguistic/non-linguistic outcomes are determining factors in language learning. Schema theory indicates that cultural pattern or structure of teaching-learning of a society continue to influence the members of that society throughout their life. Socio-cultural theory theory suggests that learning process such as memorization, decision making, concept formation and learning strategies evolve from culture. This theory draws it impetus from L.S. Vygotsky's belief that learning process and learning strategies are culturally specific activities.

The author explains the link between socio-cultural theory and the concept of appropriate methodology. The author notes that success or failure of a methodology depends on teacher and learner factors, and context of a teaching-learning situation. Appropriate

methodology, as the author notes, refers to culture sensitive on culturally responsive pedagogy which is constituted in synchrony with the cultural codes of a particular context. The author (citing Maley) records some parameters in developing an appropriate methodology. The parameters involve peoples' attitudes towards authority, pattern of learning (co-operative/non-co-operativeness) ,ways of resolving disagreement, gender roles), political structure of a society (egalitarian on elitist), influence of religion on people etc. Thus, an appropriate methodology is formulated in accordance with cultural practice of a society where the term 'culture' denotes dynamic (i.e. constantly changing) nation. The author suggests that since people in the modern world are exposed to local and global culture, an appropriate ELT pedagogy has to encompass local and global cultural components.

Finally, the author suggests that teachers' and learners' beliefs about the process of teaching-learning in a particular culture need to be considered in formulating a model of appropriate ELT pedagogy. Second, learning style/strategy, preferences about teaching techniques, available resources etc. are significant factors in devising appropriate methodology. Third, the author recommends to adopt "antimethod pedagogy" which negates rigid methodological framework. Fourth, the author suggests to follow eclectic approach considering the needs of the students and concept of techniques.

5.3.5 In the essay, "Metamorphosis of an English Language Teacher", Tasneem Siraj Mahboob (Assistant Professor of English at Dhaka University) [Mahboob, 2002] shares his experiences of transformation of beliefs and perceptions about teacher-student relationship, learners' affective factors and learners' errors. In this article, the author recollects his teaching-learning experience in Bangladesh and at Teachers college (TC) of Columbia University—and compares the situations in these two settings. He mainly concentrates on explaining how Teachers college of Columbia University positively changed his views about

pedagogy of language teaching (MA in TESOL course at Columbia University). The author notes that he became influenced by Ellis's (*Understanding Second Language Acquisition*, Oxford University Press, 1986) writing about learners' errors, specifically, 'interlanguage theory' which contends that learners' error are the reflections of their active learning. With regard to the nation of teacher-student relationship, the author remarks that teachers in Bangladesh follow 'Banking [Method of] education'. But at Teachers College he learned that Freire's 'problem-posing education' should be the ideal method of teaching which encourages dialogue, love, humility, faith, hope and critical thinking. In this context, he gives an account of his teaching experience in Bangladesh and in the US. In Bangladesh, his classes (he was a private tutor) were rigid and rules-oriented [grammatical]. But after his metamorphosis at TC, his classes were relaxed since he learned to be sympathetic towards his students. He also learned that affective [emotional] filters of the students should be lowered in the classroom to facilitate learning. He notes that competitiveness and anxiety in adult learners inhibit learning. Therefore, he tried to reduce affective filter of the students by remaining calm and patient in the classroom. He notes that rather than following any particular method, he learned to discover his own technique of teaching.

In light of his transformed view about students' error, student's emotion or affective filter and teacher-student relationship, the author examines English language pedagogy in Bangladesh and identifies some problems. First, opportunities of teacher training in Bangladesh is limited. Seconds, the central focus of [primary and secondary] syllabus is literature and grammar [perhaps he is refereeing to syllabus in 1990] rather than communication. Third, accuracy is emphasized over fluency. Fourth, speaking and listening skills are not emphasized in Bangladesh. Fifth, the process of error correction is flawed. He mentions that traditional English classes in Bangladesh strongly discourage making any kind

of mistakes in composition classes. This practice inhibits student-writers' growth. Finally, he

suggests to integrate four skills in every class.

5.3.6 In her article, "English Language Teaching at Undergraduate Level in the Private

Universities of Bangladesh", Samina Akter Nayla (Lecturer, Department of English, ASA

University Bangladesh) [Nayla, 2009] discusses challenges and possibilities of implementing

Task-Based instruction (TBI) in private universities of Bangladesh. In particular, the author

defines task-based Instruction, identifies some obstacles in introducing TBI and suggests how

TBI can be successfully implemented at private universities of Bangladesh.

In the section entitled "Defining task-based language teaching" the author defines task

as a piece of work which incorporates real-life language use with focus on meaning. In

addition, a task can be a brief exercise. In the section, "The rationale of task-based teaching

and learning", the author notes some characteristics of task-based teaching and learning.

According to Richards (2003), TBI creates opportunities for receiving input and producing

output; TBI motivates learners and instruction can be attuned according to the level of

students. On the other hand, Willis (1996) identified three sub-stages of TBI: task, planning,

and report. In the task phase, students work in groups or pairs; in the planning phase,

students plan to express ideas; in the report phase, students present the outcome of the task.

The author identifies three factors that need to be considered in implementing task-

based instruction: teaching factors, student factors, and material factors. With regard to

teaching factors, the author remarks that teachers tend to use GTM in the classroom and they

are not familiar with the concept of TBI which might create problem in implementing TBI.

Next, students' level of proficiency and motivation is low. Therefore students might use

Bangla during completing a task which is an impediment in introducing TBI. Third, teachers

are not trained in developing materials for TBI and textbooks are not available on TBI.

In order to successfully implement TBI in private universities of Bangladesh at undergraduate level, the author recommends that foreign consultants should be appointed to train teachers in designing texts for TBI. Second, there may be a combination of Task-based [which encourages autonomous activities] and task supported approach [where teachers explicitly teach student].

5.3.7 In their survey study, "Use of Bangla in EFL Classes: The Reaction of the Secondary Level Students and the Teachers in Bangladesh", Md. Jahurul Islam (Lecturer, Department of English, Jahangirnagar University) and Shamim Ahsan (Associate professor, department of English, Dhaka Commerce College) [Islam & Ahsan, 2011] investigate perceptions of secondary level teachers and students about use of Bangla in the classroom.

The participants of this study include 80 tenth-grade students from two rural and two urban schools and 16 secondary level teachers. The author randomly selected the participants. As an instrument of data elicitation, the authors used both structured questionnaire and interview method. Further, the author observed 16 classes to understand classroom interaction.

Analysis of data indicates that more than 66.25% students support the use of Bangla in the classroom; 92.5% students need to use Bangla in the class; about 88.50% students want their teachers to use Bangla in the classroom. Further, most of the students think that use of Bangla in the classroom facilitates language learning whereas class conducted fully in create problem in understanding lesson. Besides, students feel nervous it they are asked to speak in English in the class; most of the students think that 'other' students [i.e. their classmates] would laugh at them if they speak English and 'other' students know English better. 63% students feel anxious if they are asked to speak in English.

On the other hand, 56.25% teachers think that Bangla should be used in the classroom. 87.5% teachers think that they need to use Bangla in the class to elicit answers from students. Besides, most of the teachers opine that moderate use of Bangla in the class would accelerate the process of learning and use of English only in the class might be unhelpful for the students. Both teachers and students opine that Bangla may be used in the class to define new and difficult words, phrases, expressions; to explain complex grammar rules; to explain difficult concept and to give instructions. Apart from this, 69% students of rural schools and 57% students of urban schools support use of Bangla in the classroom.

Finally, the author suggests that Bangla may be used in 5%-10% time of the total duration. Judicious use of mother tongue may be allowed to reduce shyness, anxiety, and stress; and to enhance understanding of the lesson. Further, authority or policy makers should not force teachers to use English only in the class, because English only policy in the class might lead to misunderstanding of the lesson.

5.3.8 In her article, "Classroom Teaching Techniques: Teaching "Introduction to English Literature" to Non-English Major Students", Mehjabeen Rahman (Lecturer, Department of English, Stamford University Bangladesh) [Rahman, 2005] explains some techniques of teaching literature to students on non-English disciplines.

The author observes that use of some innovative techniques may increase the motivation and interest of non-English major students about literature. She reports that 32 students of BBA discipline who attended Introduction to English literature course turned into enthusiastic learners when she used movies, music, poetry presentation, open book test, perceptual skill, humor, and innovative assignments in her class.

In her explanation of methods and techniques, the author notes that a teacher may begin her class with riddle on pun to engage students' emotion. Second, movie show is

recreation, and it enhances critical thinking ability of the students. Watching movie is a good technique to understand setting and character of a novel. In addition, teachers may arrange group discussion on a movie to invite thoughtful comments from the students. Third, teachers may use music [songs] in the class to create an anxiety-free and stress-free environment in the class. Fourth, use of photographs, drawing, and visual aids (i.e. graphical description) enhance students' understanding of literary texts. The author presented a pictorial description of "The love song of Alfred Prufrock" which aided students' understanding. Fifth, teachers may assign innovative tasks. In her class, the author assigned students to write curriculum vitae of P.B. Shelley. Besides, students may be required to present poetry in class. Sixth, students may be assigned to compose poetry on short story on the basis of their experience. Seventh, teachers may arrange open-book test to judge analytical skills of the students. In her class, students positively responded to open book exams. Eighth, teacher may use language other than English to enhance understanding of the concept. Ninth, teachers may use real life experiences to contextualize characters or plots of literary.

5.3.9 In his essay, "Gender Bias in ELT: How to Reform Settled Codes", Manzoorul Abedin (Lecturer, Department of English, East West University) [Abedin, 2005] explains the process and techniques of eliminating gender bias form classroom practices.

The author discusses sexism in English language, and gender bias in classroom interactions. Sexist characteristic of English language is reflected in its use of generic pronouns (e.g. he), generic noun (e.g. 'man-power', 'postman', policeman' etc.). semantic derogation in which such words as 'mistress' and 'madam' acquired a pejorative connotation, discursive bias (i.e. referring to woman as 'Mrs. Huq', 'Mrs. Rahman', 'mother of three' etc.). On the other hand, gender bias can be observed in 'teaching style' or teaching

methodology. For instance, teachers tend to concentrate more on boys and ignore girls in the class. In addition, the author cites a case study conducted by Myra and David Sadker (1988) who found that male students receive more praise, criticism and feedback than female students. The author notes a list of gender biased behavior in the classroom. Gender biased behavior in the classroom involves displaying lower expectation from women (e.g. asking easy questions in the class), stereotyping women (e.g. calling women honey), interrupting women in interaction/conversation, giving less feedback and intellectual encouragement, making sexual comments or sexual humor etc. Referring to MLA handbook (1988), the author suggests that to avoid sexist language one may eliminate generic use of 'he' and 'man'. The author documents some techniques of avoiding gender bias in ELT text and ELT classroom. ELT texts, to remove gender bias, may include 'more detailed' description (women's role) of women in society rather then stereotyping their roles. In order to eliminate gender bias from ELT classroom, the author records some instructional guidelines. For instance, teachers should not allow students to make offensive statements about women; teachers should not assign stereotypical jobs to male and female students (e.g. cleaning, carrying things); teachers should not allow unexpected interruption or intervention when female students speak; teachers should closely examine books, posters or teaching aids to exclude gender biased materials.

Finally, the author recommends that teacher training programs should create consciousness about gender-biased behaviors in the classroom. Second, curriculum should be revised to transform public perceptions about roles and capacities of women.

5.3.10 In her essay, "English Teaching in the Internet Age", Sanyat Sattar (Lecturer, Department of English, Jahangirnagar University) [Sattar, 2005] discusses advantages of using internet and techniques in teaching English.

The author notes that websites can be used to teach English. In particular, websites may offer multiple-choice or fill in the blanks exercise to students. Besides, pronunciation can be taught through websites by providing students with opportunities to listen recorded model words, phrases, or sentences. Students can record and upload their own pronunciation for feedback. Apart from websites, there are online course which are less expensive but provides 24 hours service. In addition, online course might have e-mail support system. Teachers may distribute lessons and study materials through e-mail and students may get feedback from teachers. The author mentions two advantages of web-based learning. First, online courses generally include students from different parts of the world which create real information gap between students; teachers may utilize this information-gap in communicative activities. Second, students can study materials received through e-mail in their convenient time. The author identifies two disadvantages of web-based learning as well. First, successful completion of online courses or web-based courses required high level of intrinsic motivation which might be absent among students. Second, communication between teachers and students might be disrupted due to time-zones. In other words, since students around the world are located in different time-zones, some students might be required to attend a group work in inconvenient time. Finally, the author argues that internet conferencing can be useful in English language teaching where students and teachers can interact and share materials with each others.

5.3.11 In her essay, "Teaching of English in Bangladesh: Problems and Solutions", Arjumand Ara (Assistant Professor, The University of Asia pacific) [Ara, 2005] identifies some obstacles in teaching English in Bangladesh and suggests solutions.

The author notes that large class size, teachers' heavy workload, inadequate supply of teaching aids (OHP, cassette players etc.) are some of the problems of ELT in Bangladesh.

The author suggests some techniques of teaching English with limited technological support. For instance, a teacher may draw pictures on blackboard to teach vocabulary. Besides, the author mentions three approaches of teaching vocabulary: teachers may introduce "word groups" (e.g. animals, pets, domestic, wild) on the basis of a theme or topic; second, teachers may focus on meaning and teach collocation of words; third, teachers may focus on form and teach suffixes and prefixes of words. Apart from this, the author states that newspapers or magazines may be used in the class to introduce students with different genre of writing. Besides, computer, cassette players, movies may be used in the classroom. Finally, the author suggests that teachers should motivate learners by encouraging them to read stories, magazines etc. Second, teachers should design challenging tasks to motivate them. Third, teachers should play the role of a director, organizer and counselor.

5.3.12 In her essay, "Elementary Reflections on the Teaching of English in Bangladesh", Sharmin Chowdhury (Part time teacher, Department of Mass communication & Journalism, University of Dhaka) [Chowdhury, 2005] describes the relevance of Grammar Translation Method in the context of Bangladesh.

The author argues that reading and writing skills are more important than communication [speaking] for Bangladeshi students because most of the students would not communicate with foreigners. According to the author, reading should be given the first importance because students of Bangladesh need to study texts written in English at higher level. In addition, reading increases knowledge of the students. The second importance should be placed on writing because writing enhances thinking ability and imagination. Further, writing is a way of learning a language.

The author argues that teaching pronunciation should not be overemphasized, because imitation of British or American English may be meaningless in communication with non-

Euro American users of English. The author states that grammar and translation (from English to Bangla and Bangla to English) should be taught. The author believes that teaching of 'grammar' is essential for learning a language whereas 'translation' accelerates the process of acquiring a language. In addition, students should be taught how to use a dictionary. Finally, the author argues that literary texts should be used in language class because literature is interesting and it enhances thinking capacity and imagination.

5.3.13 In their essay "Choosing an Appropriate Methodology for a Large Class" Mohammad Shahidul Islam, Zahid Hossain, and Raihana Akter (authors are Lecturer, Department of English, Stamford University Bangladesh) [Islam, Hossain, & Akter, 2005] propose eclectic method for large classes.

In the context of Bangladesh, the authors define large class as consisting of 25 or above number of students. In this article, the authors review Grammar-Translation Method Audio-Lingual Method and Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) to demonstrate that these methods become inapplicable in large classes. In particular, GTM suggests to focus on accuracy; CLT advocates interactive class; and audio-lingual method involves dialogue and drill practice. In a large class, as the authors argue, interaction among students, emphasis on accuracy and dialog/drill practice are impossible. Therefore, according to the authors, Eclectic Method (i.e. utilization of all language teaching methods) may be used in a large class to transcend the limitation of a single method.

The authors mention some techniques that can be used in large class. Teachers may use worksheets/practice sheets, personalize the class (e.g. knowing the names of the students), walk down the rows, keep discussion time, answers queries of the students through e-mail, arrange debates etc.

5.3.14 In his essay, "Curricular Conventions and Confusions: Contemporary Challenges", Manzoorul Abedin (Teacher of English, East West University) [Abedin, 2006] proposes to adopt content -based approach in English language teaching. In addition, he discusses some issues such as context and motivation, sexuality, literacy and drama [literature] that might be considered in designing ELT curriculum in Bangladesh.

In his discussion of context and motivation, the author indicates that reading interest is contingent on context and communities. In addition, learners need intrinsic motivation to enjoy reading. With regard to sexuality, the author notes that romantic and social relationship of students affect students' learning. In other words, problems with boyfriend/girlfriend or roommates might interfere in learning process. In addition, male students appear to be more comfortable with female teachers. In his analysis of literacy, the author proposes to redefine literacy by incorporating texts/contents from magazines, newspapers, audio tapes, CD-ROMs, music etc. In addition, drama can be incorporated into national curriculum since drama involves a brand range of social and cultural issues, build confidence of the students, and it improves communicative skills.

The author proposes an alternative strategy to teach English in Bangladesh. According to the author, teachers of different subjects may take the responsibility of improving language skills of the students. The writing process taught in English class may be practiced in content subject classes to get familiarized with writing across disciplines. Besides, simplified texts may be introduced in the class to reduce the gap between interlanguage and [target level of writing skills]. With regard to materials, the author suggests that curriculum should adopt postmodern approach to materials development. In other words, teaching-learning materials should contain 'hybridity' (i.e. mingling of different culture) and multiple identify position where people "eat Vietnamese food listen to Jamaican

music while wearing American clothes...". In line with postmodern approach, different varieties of English may be introduced in the class.

Finally, the author suggests that communicative approach may produce students with low level of proficiency because CLT is less concerned about correct usage of English. Besides, since students in Bangladesh need English mainly for educational and occupational purposes, it is logical to learn English by using it in content subject. He argues for the integration of English into the whole curriculum of SSC level along with teaching it as a separate subject at both SSC and HSC level. If curriculum is not changed, content subject teachers may take the responsibility to improve language skills of the students.

5.3.15 In their survey study, "Problems and Strategies of Teaching English in Large Classes at Universities in Bangladesh", Ahmed Bashir (Lecturer, Department of English, University of Dhaka) and Sakiba Ferdousy (Lecturer, Department of English Language and Literature, Darul Ihsan University) [Bashir & Ferdousy, 2006] investigates teachers' and students' perceptions of large class in Bangladesh.

The participants of this study include 20 university teachers and 100 students (randomly selected) from 2 public universities and 9 private Universities of Bangladesh. As instrument of data collection, the authors used structured questionnaire containing both closed-ended and open-ended questions.

In response to the question whether teachers consider their class large, 60% teachers responded positively and 40% teachers responded negatively. According to 50% teachers, an idea class consists of 15-20 students whereas 5% teachers think that an ideal number of students in class may exceed 30. Apart from this, 45% teachers reported that they use CLT approach in the class; 50% reported that they use eclectic approach; and 5% reported that they use GTM. The teachers were asked about the problems of teaching in a large class.

According to the teachers, a large class cannot be made interactive. Second, teachers cannot pay attention to individual students in a large class. Third, teachers cannot involve students in classroom activities in large class. Forth, students cannot concentrate in a large class. Besides, a large class is indisciplined, noisy and crowded. In addition, teachers cannot build report with the students. However, 25% teachers opine that there are some positive aspects of a large class. For instance, teachers get many ideas from the students if the class is large and contain many students; environment becomes friendly in large class; teachers can improve their teaching skills by teaching in a large class; and teachers can learn about culture of many students form a large class. When asked about the technique of solving problems of a large class, teachers suggest the use of OHP, division of class into small groups, and arrangement of group work/pair work.

Students were also asked whether they think their classes are large. 40% students answered positively and 60% answered negatively. According to 52% students, ideal number of students in a language class may exceed 30. The students also identified some problems of a large class. For instance, students cannot concentrate in la large class, cannot participate in classroom activities, cannot share their ideas, and they feel neglected. Apart from this, 43% students identified the following positive aspects of a large class: a large class interactive and student can compare their ideas with the ideas of other students; a large class is less threatening and the atmosphere of a large class is lively; a large class is competitive which motivates students to work.

The authors suggest that there is a contradiction between the perception of teachers and students about the ideal number of students in a large class. 52% students think that ideal number of students in a large class may exceed 30 whereas only 5% teachers agree with these students. The contradiction of opinion about ideal number of students in a language class indicates that students are comfortable in large class. Besides, 43% students opine that there

are positive sides of a large class whereas only 25% teachers identified some positive aspects of a large class. The authors recommend that English language class should not allow more than 25 students.

5.3.16 In her article, ""Humanistic Approaches" to Language Teaching: From Theory to Practice", Mehjabeen Rahman (Assistant Professor, Department of English, Stamford University Bangladesh) [Rahman, 2008] discusses humanistic approaches and illustrates their application in Bangladesh.

The author notes that humanistic pedagogy involves emotion and empathy of the learners. In the discourse of ELT, the following approaches are considered humanistic: Suggestopedia, The Silent Way, Community Language Learning (CLL), and Total Physical Response (TPR). Suggestopedia classroom is characterized by music, relaxation, flower, colorful/decorated interior, imagination and fantasy. The teaching process of Suggestopedia consist of four stages: Introduction, concert sessions, elaboration, and performance. Another humanistic approach is community Language Learning (CLL). In CLL, teacher plays the role of a therapist and the classroom environment is stress-free. A third approach is The Silent Way introduced by Calleb Gategno (1972). This approach allows the use of mother tongue for self-expression, encourages self-correction and peer-correction to facilitate autonomous learning. A fourth approach is Total Physical Response (TPR) introduced by Asher (1997). TPR synthesizes language and physical action in a stress-free classroom.

The author records her experience of using these humanistic approaches in Bangladesh. In her class of primary level, the author used some technique of TPR and Suggestopedia. Students in her class clapped, moved around, and recited rhymes. The author reports that these activities were enjoyable to students since they were made to memorize rhymes and receive dictation. Following principles of Suggestopedia, the author engaged

students in drawing, singing and [acting out] drama. Children loved these exercises. Besides, children were allowed to draw according to their choice and were asked to describe their drawings. They could fluently describe their pictures. The author communicated with students in a gentle voice and in a friendly way. The author also documents her experience of involving emotions of undergraduate Business English students by engaging students in simulation (role-play). Students were asked to imagine themselves as CEO or manager and to participate in a group meeting. During discussion, students used emotive words and experienced their effect psychologically. Apart from this, in English Composition class [at Stamford university], the author used of suggestopedia in writing class. She reports that playing classical music in the class improved creative writing skill of the students. In the introduction stage, students were informed about the activity in the class, i.e., "they would listen to music and relax" (p.92). In the "concert session" stage, students listened to the music. In the "elaboration" phase, students were asked to express their feelings. As students could not report any feelings, music was played for the second time. In the "performance from the students" phase, students started writing while listening to the back sound music. Finally, they were asked to read their writing.

Finally, the author suggests that humanistic approaches can be used in Bangladesh. In order to successfully implement humanistic approach, teachers have to be trained and policy has to be formulated by the government.

5.3.17 In her survey, "Classroom Code Switching of English Language Teachers at Tertiary Level: A Bangladeshi Perspective", Nargis Chowdhury (Assistant Professor, Department of English, Stamford University Bangladesh) [Chowdhury, 2012] investigate cause of code switching, and attitudes of teacher and students towards code switching in Bangladeshi English language classroom.

The participants of this study involve 20 English teachers and 37 undergraduate students from public and private universities of Bangladesh. The author elicited data through structured questionnaire and interview.

Analysis of teachers' response indicates that 65% teachers think that code switching is essential in maintaining discipline in a large class; 70% thinks that code switching is necessary for effective communications; 85% teachers think that code switching helps students to understand difficult and complex topics; 80% teachers reported that they switch codes to explain unfamiliar terms , words or expressions; 75% teachers believe that code switching helps establish solidarity between teachers and students . In response to one open-ended question about reasons of code switching, teachers reported that they switch code to explain grammar and vocabulary, and to build report with students. Analysis of data about attitude of teachers toward code switching indicates that 55% teachers hold negative attitudes and 45% do not possess negative attitude. Those who hold negative attitude towards code switching believe that code switching interferes with the process of language learning. Analysis of students' data reveals that 100% students believe that code switching facilitates learning. However, 71 % students opined that frequent code switching might negatively affect the process of language learning. The author concludes that though teachers are conscious about the positive role of code switching in language teaching, their attitude is negative regarding the practice. On the contrary, students view code switching positively because they believe that code switching helps language learning. Finally, the author argues that code switching is a useful way to engage students in a particular lesson. However, the frequency of code switching should be low in the classroom.

5.3.18 In his survey study, "Teachers' and Students' Attitudes to Pair/Group Activities in English Language Classroom in High Schools and Colleges in Bangladesh", Md.

Wasiuzzaman (Assistant Professor, Department of English Language and Literature, Jatiya Kabi Kazi Nazrul Islam University, Trishal, Mymensingh) [Wasiuzzaman, 2012] investigates secondary and higher secondary level teachers' and students' attitudes towards group work/pair work.

The participants of this study encompass 20 teachers (10 from high schools and 10 from college) and 30 students (14 from high schools and 16 from colleges) of Rajshahi, Chapai Nawabganj and Thakurgaon. As an instrument of data collection, the author used semi-structured interview protocols and audio recorder.

Findings of the study indicate that attitude of students towards group work/pair work is positive. In particular, students reported that group work/pair work decreases anxiety, stress, and boredom. In addition, group work/pair work creates festive, colorful, and happy environment in the classroom. Some students also reported about the contribution of group work/pair work in increasing motivation and confidence. However, some students opined that group work/pair work is helpful only for proficient speakers of English and these types of activities generate noise in the class. On the other hand, teachers' attitude toward group work/pair work has been found negative. Teachers highlighted some negative aspects of group work/pair work. For instance, students rarely interact with each other in English during group work/pair work even if the class size is small; students pick up each other's mistakes; students are non-cooperative and cannot accept criticism from their peers; students are shy; and teachers cannot monitor all the groups properly.

Finally, the author recommends that students' positive attitude towards group work/pair work should be emphasized, and infrastructure should be developed to make this practice effective. Teachers training programs should equip teachers to implement group work/pair work effectively.

5.3.19 In her essay, "There is No "Correct" Way of Teaching English", Nasrin Pervin (Lecturer, English Department, North South University) [Pervin, 2007-2011] argues that any single method should not be rigidly followed in language class.

In her discussion on the process of language acquisition, the author mentions three concepts: LAD, Bruner's (1983) notion of LASS (Language Acquisition Support System) and Macnamara's (1972, 1979) idea who extended Bruner's idea and holds that children are capable innately "to read meaning into social situations" (p. 184). The author points out that in instructed SLA learning outcome is determined by individual differences such as age, aptitude, cognitive style, motivation and personality. Finally, the author writes that "there is no correct way of teaching English". In addition, she indicates that methods should be used flexibly.

5.3.20 In his article, "L1 as 'Problem' and/or L1 as 'Resource' in L2 Classrooms: Reflecting Three Classroom Activities", Qumrul Hasan Chowdhury (Lecturer of English Language, IML) [Chowdhury, 2012] explicates rationales of using L1 in three classroom activities— from cognitive, sociocultural and affective perspectives.

The author refers to three classroom activities as A1, A2 and A3 in which teacher used L1. Activity A1 was designed to teach past simple and past progressive to pre-intermediate level [undergraduate students]. In this activity, students watched a Bangla TV ad in which a woman recollects her memory of liberation war. This TV commercial was accompanied by English subtitles. The teachers explained past simple and past progressive system of Bangla language and English language. The students were engaged in pair work to complete a worksheet containing fill-in-the-blank exercise on past simple and past progressive. The teacher allowed students to use Bangla in pair discussion. The cognitive explanation of use of L1 in this activity is that the teachers tried to make students aware about

the similarities between English 'simple past' and Bangla 'simple past' and difference between English 'past progressive' and Bangla 'past progressive' to reduce mistakes [of L1 transfer]. The sociocultural explanation of this activity is that collaborative dialog between students [in L1] helped them internalize metalinguistic knowledge. The affective dimension of this activity is liberation war—which is an inseparable component of identity of Bangla speaking EFL students.

Activity A2 was designed to teach writing to mid-elementary level students (age range: 11-13) of Bangladesh. The teachers formed pairs, supplied travel brochures of national tourism corporation of Bangladesh and asked to write a paragraph describing a travel plan in Bangladesh for a foreign tourist. Before writing the paragraph, students were asked to generate ideas for the paragraph using brochures through pair discussion (use of L1 was allowed). The cognitive explanation for the use of L1 in this activity is that use of L1 for generating ideas reduced cognitive load of the students. The sociocultural explanation of use of L1 in this task is that L1 use created opportunity for scaffolding and generating ideas collaboratively. The affective explanation of L1 use in this activity is that use of L1 and national cultural materials in the task gives them the impression that their L1 and culture are important [which motivates students].

Activity A3 was designed to teach pronunciation to English speaking learners of Bangla language. The students were elementary level Bangla learners (age: 18-22) of a University located in the US. In this activity, the teachers showed the image of a 'plum' and asked students to supply Bangla equivalent for this word. The students uttered *kuul*. Demonstrating the image of chilled drink, the teacher asked students to find out an English word phonologically representing the Bangla word *kuul*. The students responded 'cool'. Then the teacher explained [k] (unaspirated) and k^h (aspirated) sound in English. Thus L1 (i.e. English) is used in this case. The cognitive explanation of using L1 in this activity is that

the teacher create consciousness among students using L1 (i.e. English) about the [k] sound

in Bangla which is unaspirated and [k] sound in English which may be aspirated or

unaspirated; this awareness might reduce mistakes in pronouncing [k] sound of Bangla. The

affective explanation of use of English in this activity is that use of L1 reduced anxiety of the

students who are elementary levels learners of Bangla.

5.3.21 In their experimental study, "English Language Teaching History With Special

Reference to Bangladesh: An Analysis", Dr. Bijoy Bhushon Das (Assistant Professor,

English Communication and Skill, Faculty of Business Administration, American

International University Bangladesh (AIUB)) and Farzana Neherin Dipte (Lecturer,

Department of English, School of Arts, The People's University of Bangladesh (PUB)) [Das,

& Dipte, 2005] explore effectiveness of ELT methods.

The participants of this study include 60 Business students from Independent

University-Bangladesh, American International University-Bangladesh, and The People's

University of Bangladesh (20 students from each university). Three different methods were

applied to the [language] classes of these three universities. The duration of the study ranged

from March to June, 2005. The objective of this study was to identify effective ELT method

for business students.

In IUB, students were only grammatical rules and their applications [i.e. use]. After

three months, the percentage of improvement was: reading ability—from 0% to 30%; writing

ability—from 0% to 60%; listening ability—from 0% to 5%; speaking ability—from 0% to

5%. In AIUB, students were taught dialogs and they were engaged in group works. They

showed the following improvement after three months: reading ability—from 0% to 5%;

writing ability—from 0% to 5%; listening ability—from 0% to 30%; speaking ability- from

0% to 60%. In The People's University of Bangladesh, students were taught using a

combination of techniques applied in the previous two universities. In this case, the method was "designed being inspired by the modern communicative method and from the past Jan Amos Comenius' method which Titone said was the 'Direct method'" (p. 190). In addition, students were taught basic grammar and vocabularies. After three months students showed the following increase in their capacity: reading—from 0% to 25%; writing—from 0% to 25%; listening—from 0% to 25%; speaking—from 0% to 25%. Thus, a balanced improvement of linguistic proficiency has been detected among the students' of the The People's University of Bangladesh who were taught [using both communicative principles and GTM principles].

5.3.22 In their experimental study, "Exploring EFL Teaching Strategy for Ethnic Children at Secondary Level of Education in Bangladesh", Md. Fazlur Rahman, Mariam Begum and Mohammad Ali Zinnah (authors are Associate Professor, Institute of Education and Research, University of Dhaka) [Rahman, Begum, & Zinnah, 2008 & 2009] made an attempt to determine effective ELT method for indigenous students of Bangladesh.

The participants of the study include 90 students and 18 teachers of secondary level from 3 districts: Mymensingh, Rangamati, Joypurhat. 2 schools were selected from each district and 3 teachers were chosen from each school. In selecting the setting for this research, the authors followed the process of purposive sampling. The authors elicited data using questionnaire (containing both open and closed ended questions), classroom observation checklist, FGD, and [proficiency] test.

The objective of experimental study was to explore the effectiveness of CLT and mixed method/eclectic method (comparative). Indigenous students of Grade-9 participated in the experiment who were divided into control group and experimental group. The students were given a pre-test and a post-test consisting of two sections: reading comprehension and

writing (paragraph). In the pre-test, the mean score of the control group was 29.44 whereas the mean score of the experimental group was 31.19. As an experimental intervention, the authors themselves taught the experimental group [using mixed method] over a period of two weeks. In the post-test, the mean score of the control group was 39 whereas the mean score of the experimental group was 39.75. Thus, no statistically significant difference had been found between the control group and the experimental group in the post-test (t-value).

In response to interview questions, teachers reported that English proficiency of ethnic students is low. In addition, the teachers informed that since the textbook does not represent students' own culture, students "feel alien in the classroom" (p.12). Further students sometimes ask teachers to translate English texts into their indigenous languages. In FGD, teachers reported that [English proficiency] of Chakma students is better in comparison with other ethnic groups. In addition, rate of failure in English is high among ethnic students.

The authors organized 6 FGD for the students of grade VIII, IX, and X. The number of participants was 70 (50% [of these participants were ethnic students]). The participants reported that they are interested in learning English because "English…is an international language" (p. 13). Besides, some ethnic students demanded their own language to be used in the English classroom.

Analysis of classroom observation checklist (Likert scale) indicates that motivation of students was low. Besides, 'below average' criteria were: 'use of target language' and 'monitoring the students' classroom activities'. However, classroom management skill of the teachers was 'good' and content knowledge [of the teacher] arrangement classroom activities have been marked as 'average'.

Finally, the authors suggest that ethnic minority students of Bangladesh need to learn English "to keep pace with their counterparts in the society" (p. 15). Second, appropriate

method (CLT/GTM/eclectic) should be used to teach ethnic students. Third, local needs should be taken into consideration in adopting ELT methods.

5.3.23 In her essay, "An Exploration of Humanistic Education as a Solution to Language Teaching Blues", Tazin Aziz Chaudhury (Lecturer, Department of English, University of Dhaka) [Chaudhury, 2001] explains the concept of humanistic teaching.

The author points out that humanistic education emerged from humanism, a philosophy of the middle ages. In the 1950s, humanistic psychology contended that the construct 'self' shapes human behavior. Carl Rogers integrates principles of humanistic psychology to education, and maintains that emotional needs of the learners should be emphasized. According to Gage and Berliner (1991) the objective of humanistic education is to develop independence, autonomy and creativity of the learners. They also mention some basic principles of humanistic education. First, students should be allowed to select contents for learning according to their needs; second, students should be encouraged to become self-motivated and autonomous learners; third, students should be directed to evaluate themselves; fourth, students' emotional needs should be addressed; fifth, classroom environment should be non-threatening.

Gertrude Moskowitz (1978) devised some humanistic strategies for foreign language teaching. First, teachers should develop friendly relationship with students. In addition, teachers should help students develop self-esteem and self-confidence.

The author notes some techniques to improve classroom environment. For instance, teachers may try to remember students' names, maintain eye contact with the students and seek feedback from the students about the effectiveness of the course. Besides, the author makes some suggestions to improve class participation of the students. For instance, teaches

may engage students in group work, appreciate students for their activities, and take individual differences into consideration.

5.3.24 In his study, "The Use of Mother Tongue in the EFL Classroom: Learners' Reaction", M. Maniruzzaman (Associate Professor & Chairman, Department of English, Jahangirnagar University) [Maniruzzaman, 2003] investigates EFL students' perception about use of L1 in English language classroom.

The participants of this study include 48 undergraduate and graduate students of different departments of Jahangirnagar University. The author elicited data through questionnaire [following the model of Tang (2002)] and [an open-ended] interview. 43 students participated in the interview session. The level of students was lower intermediate.

In response to the question whether Bangla should be used in English classroom, 56.25% students responded positively. In response to the question whether they need to ask something in Bangla in the English classes, 56.25% respondents answered "yes". In response to the third question whether they like their teacher to use Bangla in the English classes, 56.25% students answered in affirmative. In response to the question on how much they need to use Bangla in the English classes, [87.50%] reported that they need to use Bangla with frequency ranging from 'a little' to 'fairly much'. In response to fifth question, on how much their teachers should use Bangla in the English classes, 87.50% students responded that their teachers should use Bangla with frequency ranging from 'a little' to 'fairly much'. In response to the sixth question on how often they need to use Bangla in the English classes, 87.50% responded that they need to use Bangla with frequency ranging from 'very rarely' to 'fairly frequently'. In response to the seventh question on how often their teacher should use Bangla in the English classes, 87.50% students responded that their teachers should use Bangla with frequency ranging from 'very rarely' to 'fairly frequently'. In response to the

eighth question whether use of Bangla in the English classroom help them learn English language, 93.75% students responded that use of Bangla help learn English with a frequency ranging from 'a little' to 'very much'. In response to the ninth question on the right occasion for their teachers to use Bangla in English class, 81.25% responded that it is necessary for teachers to use Bangla in defining new and difficult words, phrases and expressions. In response to the tenth question on why they need to use Bangla in English classes 81.25% students answered that they need to use Bangla to understand new words, phrases and expressions better. In response to the eleventh question that asks for students' opinion on the proportion of using Bangla and English in the English classes, majority of the students opined that use of Bangla should not exceed 5-10% of the total duration of the class. Analysis of the interview data reveals that 57.75% students are in favor of using Bangla in EFL classes. In addition, 57.75% students reported that use of Bangla in English classes [both by teachers and students] can facilitate understanding of difficult words, expressions, phrases, and pronunciation. Besides, the students reported that use of Bangla in the English classes minimizes shyness and makes them comfortable. However, 42.25% students opposed the idea of using Bangla in the classroom because they believe that use of L1 would interfere with learning English and "it would result in the waste of valuable class time" (p. 52).

Finally, the author recommends that teachers may use Bangla to explain complex linguistic items and to provide feedback. In addition, the author contends that "the second/foreign language teacher who has a good command of the learners' mother tongue is/might be more helpful for the learner and a greater facilitator of the learning and teaching processes than the one who lacks command of the learner's mother tongue (for example, a native speaker as the second/foreign language teacher)" (p. 55).

5.3.25 In his article, "Seeing Oneself in Another Practitioner: The Ploughman Pulling the Plough", Md. Obaidul Hamid (Assistant Professor, Department of English, University of Dhaka) [Hamid, 2004] critically examines his experience of attending a French as a Foreign Language (FFL) course.

The author registered in a French language course in an institute of Dhaka in 2004 and attended classes as a "learner-cum-ethnographer". The duration of the course was 60 hours (3 classes per week; duration of each class was 3 hours). The number of students in the course was 28. The classroom contained movable chairs, pictures, maps representing France on the wall. The author maintains that a teacher can develop herself by learning 'another language', because the process of learning another language allows a teacher to take reflective action. In other words, by learning another language a teacher can gain insights about teachers' and students' roles, affective factors, learning styles, learning strategies, tasks, activities, materials, methods etc. In short, a teacher can learn "how language is learnt" by converting himself into a language-learner. The author of this article enrolled himself with a view to understanding pedagogic process as a language learner.

The author critically examines four aspects of this course: teacher-students relationship, learner autonomy, pedagogic materials, and utilization of class time. In the section entitled "pedagogic conflict: Teacher vs. learners ?" the author notes that "an invisible tension" existed in the FFL class that ensued from the mismatch of pedagogic beliefs of the French teacher and [learning] preferences of the learners. For instance, students asked for meaning [i.e. translation] of French conversation. But the teacher ignored students' requests. The students collectively expressed their dissatisfaction regarding the teaching method that she was using, but she did not change any pedagogic process. Second, the teacher was authoritative and considered herself transmitter of knowledge. Third, the classroom atmosphere was not friendly and the teacher did not ask for any suggestions from the

students. Fourth, the teacher did not encourage to ask questions. In addition, the teacher was reluctant to explain anything "again and again"; she became impatient and angry if she was asked to repeat any information. Fifth, the teacher used audio-lingual and direct method in her class; she did not translate any French conversation into [learners' own language]. The author observes: The "audio-lingual parroting presented an occasion of anxiety and fear and embarrassment for us because we could hardly repeat those sentences which appeared to be full of meaningless sounds" (p. 6). In the section entitled "Freedom or imprisonment ?" the author notes that learner autonomy was absent in the class. Learners were not informed about goals and objectives [of tasks/activities]. The students did not even know anything about the textbooks because they were supplied with photocopied materials. There was not any group work/pair work in the class; the students did not get any scope to use French creatively in the class or to "learn it by testing hypothesis or by trial and error" (p. 8). In the section entitled "Learners' world or materials' world ?", the author notes that the teacher exclusively used materials in the class that represented [only] French culture (e.g. French foods, habits, dresses). Therefore, the author ended the course without learning French equivalent for the word 'rice' which is "the staple food" for Bangladesh. The author found grammar drills and repetition drills irrelevant and fruitless. In the section entitled "Teaching or time-killing ?" the author points out that major portion of the classtime got wasted. Precisely, in parroting exercise, the teacher played an utterance from the tape recorder and asked students one by one to respond. Therefore, when the teacher dealt with one student, the other students spent time idly. In addition, the first student (i.e. who was asked to respond to the tape recorder first) got the second after a long time.

From this experience of attending FFL course, the author derives the following implications for EFL course. First, students' expectations, cultures, and preferences need to be taken into account while designing materials and selecting methods. Second, teachers

should not be authoritative in the class. Third, teachers should adapt pedagogic decisions according to the teaching-learning context.

5.3.26 In their article, "Use of Pair Work and Group Work in the English Classroom", Naheed Quayyum (Deputy Director, Research and Documentation, NAEM), Goutam Roy (Lecturer), Naushaba Akhter (Trainer, ELTP) and Md. Zulfeqar Haider (Trainer, ELTP) [Quayyum, Roy, Akhter, & Haider, 2006] investigates employment of group work and pair work in English language classroom at secondary level.

The authors observed 13 classes of 13 secondary level (Grade VI, VII, and VIII) trainee teachers of ELTIP. The trainee teachers took classes in their respective institutions. The first part of the ELTP is called sandwich course (15 days). The observed teachers of this course went back to their schools after receiving training for 15 days to implement new knowledge gained from the training course. The objective of this research was to investigate teachers' practice of engaging students in group/pair work to identify the implementation of CLT. The authors assume that "one of the best ways to achieve the target of CLT is to introduce pair work and group work in the classroom" (p. 81). Therefore, this paper "investigates the actual picture of trained teachers teaching English—whether they do practice the communicative way of teaching English through the use of pair work and group [work]" (p. 81). It is to note that the trainee teachers were randomly selected, and they were observed in the activation phase—i.e. after receiving training in ELTIP for 15 days. The teachers were selected from Dhaka region, and they were not informed about the focus of observation.

Analysis of observatory data reveals that teachers spent 14.80% time on group work and pair work. In addition, out of 18 instances of group work/pair work, there were 15 pair works and 3 group works. However, 15.58% class did not arrange any group/pair work. The

average duration of each pair work was 4.2 minutes; and the average duration of group

activity was 4.6 minutes. Out of 18 group work/pair work activities, student 'equally'

participated in 10 activities. However, in 6 activities some students had been found

dominant; in 2 activities there was no interaction between students. out of 18 group/pair

activities, teachers' instruction was clear in case of 13 activities; teacher's voice was clear in

18 activities; time was specified in 4 activities; and students appeared to be interested in 14

activities. The authors observe that teachers organized pair work mainly to teach speaking

skills. In particular, 59% group work/pair work organized to teach speaking skills. 50%

teachers monitored the students during group work/pair work. Out of 18 group/pair

activities, teachers move around the class in 9 instances, and teachers provided feedback in

15 cases. The teachers author observed that out of 18 group/pair activities, students achieved

the target of the activities 12 cases.

Finally, the authors recommend that trainers should inform the trainee teachers about

the usefulness of group work/pair work in teaching grammar, because two teachers reported

that they did not organize any group/pair activity since they were teaching grammar in the

class. Trainee teachers should be encouraged to move around the class. Microteaching

sessions should be arranged for the trainee teachers.

5.3.27 In her article, "Professional English Language Course With Content", Samina Nasrin

Chowdhury (Centre for Languages) [Chowdhury, 2009] describes a course that adopted CBI

(Content-based Instruction) as teaching approach.

The course was designed to teach development-managers of BRAC, an NGO of

Bangladesh. It was an in-service residential EFL course of BRAC University. The number

of students in the course in the course was 50 (mean age of the students was 38). The

duration of the course was 10 weeks [6 days per week].

The course consisted of 10 units (36 hours were devoted to complete each unit). The first unit was entitled "Biography and Autobiography". While dealing with this unit, students were shown a video interview of F. H. Abed (Founder of BRAC). students also read biographies and autobiographies of renowned people. As a follow-up activity, students were asked to write their own biographies. In the pre-writing phase, teacher explained mind map and students were required to use mind map while writing their autobiographies. The objective of this activity was to "prepare students to tell about themselves" p. 75). The second unit was entitled "Comparing and Contrasting". In this unit, students read about different organizations (e.g. BRAC's annual report). As a post-reading activity, students were engaged in a debate [in which students were required to compare and contrast different organizations]. The third unit was entitled "Process Writing". In this unit, students watched videos of on working procedures of different organizations (e.g. activities of Center for Rehabilitation for Paralyzed (CRP)). Students also read about activities of different organizations. As a follow-up activity, students outlined probable process to attain Millennium Development Goal [MDG] of Bangladesh. The fourth unit was entitled "Argumentation". This unit introduced students with techniques and features of good argumentation. This unit directly addressed students' needs, because the participants of this course "were expected to attend donor meetings to convince donors for raising find" (p. 75). Students were engaged in reading BRAC annual report to establish arguments in favor of generating more funds for certain programs. A debate was organized on "Acceptance of foreign aid by Bangladesh" in the class. The fifth unit was entitled "Project Proposal". This unit also directly addressed students' needs. The students of this course were required to write project proposals to donor agencies as part of their job. Therefore, this unit explained the techniques/strategies of writing project proposals. Besides, students watched videos on natural disasters of Bangladesh, and read about donor agencies. In addition, students were

asked to detect problems in their own localities, and to design project to solve those problems. Finally, students wrote project proposal as a group activity. The sixth unit was entitled "Interviewing and Questioning". In this unit, students were involved in reading on issues concerning global-warming, desertification etc. Students were also shown an interview [video] of an environment activist. Next, students learned the techniques of formulating questions for conducting an interview. Finally, students constructed a questionnaire to assess the effectiveness of a project. The seventh unit was entitled "Disaster Management". In this unit, students watched video on Sidr [a cyclone that attacked Bangladesh]. [As a follow-up activity] students were engaged in a discussion on "What more could be done to reduce the suffering of Sidr affected people" (p. 76). Students also read about disaster management. Next, students were taught how to write different types of reports. Finally, students worked in groups and wrote reports. The eighth unit was entitled "Presentation Skills". This unit directly addressed the students' need, because job responsibility of the participants of this course encompassed making presentations in official meetings. Students watched some videos of presentations. Students were also taught presentation techniques. Finally, students made presentation. The ninth unit was entitled "Negotiation Skills". This unit discussed negotiation methods, techniques, and strategies. Students were shown video clips of negotiation. Students also read negotiation theories and case studies [on negotiation]. The tenth unit was entitled "Revision". While dealing with this unit, students were asked to select contents for revision. In line with students' feedback, some grammatical points were explained [in the class].

A team consisting of 8 teachers taught this course. The evaluation system of this course involved both summative evaluation and formative evaluation. Besides, students were asked to write three entries each week. Journal writing was a part of free-writing practice and reflective learning. The following principles were used to teach this course: Krashen's i+1,

extensive reading, group work/pair work, cooperative learning, and addressing students'

needs. The author observes that students improved their linguistic proficiency in the course.

In particular, students' reading speed increased. The author writes: "They [students] took

comparatively less time for extensive reading after fourth unit" (p. 78). In addition, Journal

entries of the students gradually became "more detailed and more organized" (p. 78).

5.3.28 In her article, "Peer Correction in ESL Classrooms", Asifa Sultana (Department of

English and Humanities, BRAC University, Dhaka) [Sultana, 2009] investigates Bangladeshi

adult and young English language learners' attitude toward peer correction.

The participants of this study include 23 adult learners (age range: 19-24) of BRAC

University. In addition, 20 young learners (age range: 8-11) participated in this study. The

author used questionnaire (containing both open-ended and closed-ended questions) to elicit

data. The participants were asked to express their opinions about peer correction in speaking

and writing activities.

Out of 43 participants (both young and adult learners) 20% preferred peer correction

whereas 80% "did not see much use of it" (p. 14). However, 70% young learners reported

that they like peer correction in both speaking and writing activities. On the contrary,

56.52% adult learners reported that they like peer correction in speaking activities whereas

60.87% adult learners responded that they like peer correction in writing activities. Two

adult learners opined that peer correction should be accompanied by teacher correction. On

the other hand, young learners reported that they dislike peer correction because (a) peers are

not more knowledgeable than teachers; and (b) peers may make mistakes. Besides young and

adult learners pointed out some reasons for liking peer connection. Adult learners like peer

correction because peers explain mistakes softly, and young learner[s] like peer correction

because it helps to improve English. Both adult and young learners were asked to

agree/disagree on some statements pertaining to peer correction. 26.09% adult learners and 45% young learners agreed to the following statement: "I do not want my friends to know about my mistakes". Second, 30.43% adult learners and 55% young learners agreed to the following statement: "I will feel more comfortable if my friends tell me whether I was correct on not". All the adult and young learner reported that they want a final answer from the teacher. The author writes: "All the members of the adult and the child groups agreed to one point that whatever the method for correction might be, the final answer should come from the teacher" (p. 16).

Finally, the author recommends that teachers should train students to provide peer feedback. As part of this training, teachers may encourage learner autonomy and collaborative learning (e.g. group work in the class, group take-home projects). Second, teachers should "create a 'safe' environment in class", i.e. a classroom atmosphere in which students would not be embarrassed by peer feedback. Third, peer feedback should not be used as the only technique of providing feedback to students [in a particular language course].

5.3.29 In her article, "Interaction in Second Language Classrooms", Shaheena Choudhury (Department of English and Humanities, BRAC University, Dhaka) [Choudhury, 2005] explores the significance of classroom interaction in learning English as a second language. The author reflects on her experience of observing ESL classroom to shed light on different dimensions of interaction in ESL classroom.

In the section entitled "Cultural differences in classroom norms" the author indicates that students' cultural norms may determine their participation in interaction in ESL class. The author refers to Sato's (1982) research on Asian ESL students who found that Asian students "did not actively participate in the class" (p. 78). The author records her own

experience of teaching Japanese students. In her class, Japanese students were unwilling to participate in class interaction. The students were 'worried' about their low linguistic proficiency. The author also observed 'shyness' and 'inhibition' among these students. However, the author suggests that if teacher show interest in students' culture, students may become motivated to interact in the class. The author writes: "My interest in their cultures encouraged them to use English as they shared with me experiences from their own lives" (p.78).

In the section entitled "Roles of the interactive teacher" the author suggests that teachers should play the role of a facilitator to encourage interaction in the class. The author observed a class in a Language Center at University of Pennsylvania. The class consisted of 18 students from different countries. In the class, the teacher (an American female) sat with her students. The students were responsive, and interaction took place in the class. The author observed: "When they [students] saw the teacher as their peer, not one in front of the classroom giving direction, they felt more relaxed, and natural interaction took place" (p. 79).

In the section entitled "Questioning strategies for interactive learning", the author indicates that the teacher should initiate interaction in the class, because students' level of anxiety may increase if they are asked to initiate conversation. However, the author points out that display questions reduce interaction in the class. In her discussion on questioning strategy, the author explains the use of 'wait time' in questioning students. 'Wait time' refers to the pause (i.e. duration of pause) between questioning a students and receiving the answer. The author records that in one of her ESL classes, she asked a question to a beginning level ESL student and "waited patiently". Eventually, the student failed to answer. The author notes that the student was not prepared for the answer. The author writes: "In the process, the student felt humiliated and I felt rather inept. Too much wait-time can be counter-productive just like asking questions to the student who is not prepared" (p. 80).

In the section entitled "Interaction through pair work/group work" the author documents that in one of her ESL classes she observed that group work increased interaction between students. The author points out that group works eliminate inhibition of the students. In addition, the author notes that her passive students became active interlocutors during group work. The author notes that during group work/pair work, she can pay attention to individual students, and detect their mistakes to provide feedback in future.

5.3.30 In his article, "The Use of Visuals in Teaching EFL Classes in Bangladesh", Mohammad Mustafizur Rahman (Senior Lecturer, Department of English, Faculty of Humanities & Social Science, Daffodil International University) [Rahman, 2009] explores students' and teachers' opinions regarding the effectiveness of the use of visuals in EFL classes. Citing Canning (1998), the author notes that 'visuals' refer to illustrations, pictures, mental images, figures, impressions, replicas etc. In addition, the author refers to Canning-Wilson (2000) who maintains that "the use of illustrations, visuals, pictures, perceptions, mental images, figures, impressions, likenesses, cartoons, charts, graphs, colors, replicas, reproductions, or anything else help one see an immediate meaning in the language that benefit the learner by helping to clarify the message" (p. 46). The author includes 'video' in the category of 'visuals'.

The participants of this study include 35 English [language] teachers and 330 students of tertiary level from 2 public and 8 private universities of Bangladesh. The athor adopted random sampling method to select participants. As an instrument of data collection, the author used closed-ended questionnaire.

The questionnaire for teachers contained 8 questions. The first question was: "Do you use visual materials in your English classes?" In response to this question, 80% answered positively and 20% answered negatively. The second question was: "Do you think that visual

materials are useful for teaching English?" In response to this question, 94% answered 'yes' whereas 06% answered 'no'. The third question was: "Are you satisfied with the use of visual materials in your English classes?" In response to this question, 51% answered 'strongly satisfied'; 31% answered 'slightly satisfied'; and 17% answered 'dissatisfied'. The fourth question was: "Which English classes are more effective and interesting to the student?" In response to this question, 74% answered "classes with visual materials" whereas 26% answered "classes without visual material". The fifth question was: "Are you satisfied with the visual facilities provided by the institution?" In response to this question, 40% selected the option 'strongly satisfied'; 37% selected the option 'slightly satisfied'; and 23% selected the option 'dissatisfied'. The sixth question was: "How is the performance of the students in the classes without visual materials?". In response to this question, 20% opted for the option 'strongly satisfied'; 69% chose the option 'slightly satisfied'; and 11% selected the option 'dissatisfied'. The seventh question was: "How is the performance of the students in the classes with visual materials? In response to this question, 57% answered 'strongly satisfied' and 43% answered 'slightly satisfied'. The eighth question was: "What limitations do you face in using visual materials in your English classes?" In response to this question, 46% identified "lack of visual materials" and 49% identified "interruption of electricity" as limitation.

The questionnaire designed for the students also contained 8 questions. In response to the first question, 83% students informed that their English teachers use visual materials in the class whereas 17% students reported that their English teachers do not use visual materials in the class. The second question was: "Do you think that visual materials are useful for learning English?" In response to this question, 85% students answered 'yes' and 15% students answered 'No'. The third question was: "Are you satisfied with the use of visual materials in the English classes?" In response to this question ,15% students answered

"strongly satisfied"; 71% answered 'slightly satisfied'; and 14% answered 'dissatisfied'. The fourth question was: "Which English classes are more effective and interesting to you?" In response to this question, 74% answered "classes with visual materials" whereas 26% answered "classes without visual materials". The fifth question was: "Are you satisfied with the visual facilities provided by the institution?" In response to this question, 17% students responded 'strongly satisfied'; 56% responded 'slightly satisfied'; and 27% responded 'dissatisfied'. The sixth question was: "How is your performance in the English classes without visual materials?" 12% students answered 'strongly satisfied'; 64% answered 'slightly satisfied'; and 24% answered 'dissatisfied'. The seventh question was: "How is your performance in the English classes with visual materials?" In response to this question, 39% answered 'strongly satisfied'; 53% responded 'slightly satisfied'; and 8% answered 'dissatisfied'. The eighth question was: "What limitations do you find in the use of visual materials in your English classes?" In response to this question, 46% students selected the option "lack of visual materials"; 15% opted for the option "interruption of electricity"; and 12% selected the option "lack of administrative support".

5.3.31 In their study, "The Use of Audio Aids in the EFL Class at the Tertiary Level: A Plus or a Minus?", M. Maniruzzaman (Associate Professor, Department of English, Jahangirnagar University) and Mohammad Mustafizur Rahman (Lecturer, Department of English, Daffodil International University) [Maniruzzaman, & Rahman, 2008] investigate teachers' and students' (tertiary level) perceptions of the use of audio aids in EFL classes. The authors mention that the term 'audio-aids' encompasses recorded materials, radio, cassette players, etc.

The participants of this study include 32 English language teachers and 120 students (random sampling) from 2 public and 8 private universities of Dhaka. The authors generated data for this study by using closed-ended questionnaire.

The questionnaire for the teachers comprised 8 questions. The first question was: "Do you use audio aids in your English classes?" In response to this question, 100% teachers answered positively. The second question was: "Do you think that audio aids are useful for teaching English?" In response to this question , 87.5% teachers answered 'Yes' and 12.5% teachers answered 'No'. The third question was: "Are you satisfied with the use of audio aids in your English classes?" In response to this question, 25% teachers replied that they are 'strongly satisfied' and 75% replied that they are 'slightly satisfied'. The fourth question was: "Which English classes are more effective and interesting to the student?" In response to this question , 87.5% teachers answered: "Classes with audio aids" whereas 12.5% answered: "Classes without audio aids". The fifth question was: "Are you satisfied with the audio facilities provided by the institution?" In response to this question, 100% teachers answered that they are 'slightly satisfied'. The sixth question was: "How is the performance of the students in the classes without audio aids?" In response to this question, 62.5% teachers replied that they are 'slightly satisfied' and 37.5% teachers replied that they are 'dissatisfied'. The seventh question was: "How is the performance of the students in the classes with audio aids?" In response to this question , 37.5% teachers answered that they are 'strongly satisfied'; 50% teachers answered that they are 'slightly satisfied'; and 12.5% answered that they are 'dissatisfied'. The eighth question was: "What limitations do you face in using audio aids in your English classes?" In response to this question, 50% teachers selected the option 'lack of audio aids'; 37.5% opted for the option 'lack of teacher training'; and 12.5% ticked the option 'lack of administration support'.

The questionnaire constructed for the students also contained 8 questions. The first question was: "Does your English teacher use audio aids in your classes? In response to this question, 67.5% students replied 'Yes' whereas 32.5% students replied 'No'. The second question was: "Do you think that audio aids are useful for learning English?" In response to this question, 97.5% answered 'Yes' and 2.5% answered 'No'. The third question was: "Are you satisfied with the use of audio aids in the English classes?" In response to this question, 5% answered that they are 'strongly satisfied'; 52.5% answered that they are 'slightly satisfied'; and 42.5% answered that they are 'dissatisfied'. The fourth question was: "Which English classes are more effective and interesting to you?" In response to this question , 87.5% answered 'classes with audio aids' and 12.5% answered 'classes without audio aids'. The fifth questions was: "Are you satisfied with the audio facilities provided by the institution?" In response to this question, 5% answered that they are 'strongly satisfied'; 40% answered that they are 'slightly satisfied'; and 55% answered that they are 'dissatisfied'. The sixth question was: "How is your performance in the English classes without audio aids?" In response to this question, 20% answered that they are 'strongly satisfied'; 35% answered that they are 'slightly satisfied'; and 45% answered that that they are 'dissatisfied'. The seventh question was: "How is your performance in the English classes with audio aids?" In response to this question, 30% answered that they are 'strongly satisfied'; 47.5% answered that they are 'slightly satisfied'; and 22.5% answered that they are 'dissatisfied'. The eighth question was: "What limitations do you find in the use of audio aids in your English classes?" In response to this question, 62.5% ticked the option 'lack of teacher training', and 27.5% chose the option 'lack of administrative support'.

5.3.32 In their article, "Strengths and Limitations of Different Teaching Modes: A Comparative Study", Mili Saha and Md. Ali Rezwan Talukdar (authors are Lecturer,

Department of English, Daffodil International University, Dhaka) [Saha, & Talukder, 2006]

investigate students' perceptions of different teaching modes.

The participants of this study include undergraduate students (ranging from first year

to fourth year) of BBA, CSE, CIS, ETE, Textile Engineering, B.Com (Hons.) and English

Discipline from Daffodil International University. The number of participants was 100. The

author elicited data through questionnaire (closed-ended), class observation, and group

interview.

When asked about lecture mode of teaching, 95% ETE and CSE students reported that

"lecture does not help then at all to understand and build up their ideas properly" (p. 149);

68% B.Com (Hons.) and BBA students reported that lecture mode is "not at all" helpful.

However, 81% students of English Discipline responded that lecture mode is helpful "to

some extent". When asked about discussion mode of teaching, 100% students responded in

favor of discussion mode. When asked about pair work, 90% students reported that pair

work is "useful and interesting". When asked about group work, 100% students (i.e. all the

students) reported that group work is "interesting and useful". When asked about

'presentation or demonstration' [some of the] students responded that

demonstration/presentation is useful. When asked about writing task in the class (whether

they like it or not), 57% reported that they 'always' like writing task whereas 43% reported

that they 'sometimes' like writing task. When asked about brainstorming activity, 38%

reported that they 'always' like brainstorming; 29% reported that they 'often' like

brainstorming; and 29% reported that they 'sometimes' like brainstorming. When asked

about 'role play' activity in speaking class, 95% students of English Discipline and 80%

students of BA and Textile Engineering Discipline responded in favor of role play activity in

language class. When asked about debate, 58% reported that they "prefer debate always in

every course" whereas 42% reported that they "like it sometimes [e]specially in the language classes" (p. 151).

The authors make some suggestions to effectively utilize different teaching modes. First, lecture mode can be used to provide factual information. Second, students may be engaged in 'discussion' activity to solve problems in language classes. Third, students may be involved in pair work to do exercises or solve problem. Fourth, teachers should monitor and guide group work. Fifth, teachers may ask students to summarize texts as a writing activity. Fifth, teachers should help students to collect, analyze and organize information when students are assigned to present any project report. Sixth, before conducting role play activity, teachers should provide adequate information regarding the roles. Seventh, teachers should choose "effective propositions" to engage students in debate. Eighth, teachers should engage students in brainstorming activity. In short, the authors write: "What we find in our inspection and research is that learners do not welcome excessive authority of any single mode, like lecture or pair work or group work or writing or discussion" (p. 152). The authors recommend "amalgamation of different modes" (p. 152).

5.3.33 In their essay, "Cooperative Learning for a Real Student-Centered Language Classroom", Arjumand Ara (Assistant Professor, University of Asia Pacific, Bangladesh) and Shaheda Akter (Senior Lecturer in English, North South University, Bangladesh) [Ara, & Akter, 2013] discuss the significance and techniques of facilitating cooperative learning in (English) language classroom.

Citing Kagan (1994), the authors note: "Cooperative learning (CL)...is a teaching arrangement that refers to small heterogeneous groups of students working together to achieve common goal" (p. 199). Citing Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec (1993), the authors record the following five concepts of cooperative learning: positive interdependence,

individual accountability, collaborative skills, processing group interaction, and heterogeneous grouping. Citing Johnson and Smith (1991), the authors describe three types of groups: informal learning groups (ad hoc groups for a single session), formal groups (for a specific task), and study team (formed for a semester). Citing Kippel (1984), the authors note the following physical design of a group: circle, half circle, and block.

Citing Davis (1993), the authors record some principles of designing group tasks. First, a group task should require students to work together. Second, a group task should require equal contribution from the group members. With regard to evaluation of group work, the authors suggest that grade may be assigned on the basis of individual performance or group performance. This apart, the authors record some benefits and drawbacks of cooperative learning. The authors mention the following benefits of cooperative learning. First, cooperative learning "increases the amount of student talking time" (p. 205). Second, cooperative learning increases students' self-confidence and self esteem, because students form hypothesis and provide feedback on each other's works during cooperative tasks. In addition, cooperative tasks help students form a "supportive community". Third, mixed-ability class can benefit from cooperative learning. Fourth, cooperative learning reduces classroom anxiety. Fifth, cooperative atmosphere reduces students' mistakes, since students can reflect on their action in cooperative environment. The authors mention the following drawbacks of cooperative learning. First, teachers may find it difficult to monitor cooperative learning in a large class. Second, weak or shy students may remain inactive in cooperative tasks. Third, students may use their LI while working in a group. Fourth, group work may create noise. Nevertheless, the authors maintain that cooperative learning ensures active and creative involvement of learners.

5.3.34 In his article, "Investigating Humanistic Methodological Characteristics in Teaching English to Bangladeshi Undergraduate Students", Ahmed Bashir (Assistant Professor, Department of English, University of Dhaka) [Bashir, 2013] explores the presence of humanistic teaching at undergraduate level in Dhaka University.

The participants of this study include 35 (21 male and 14 female) second year students (academic session: 2010-11) of English department (purposive sampling) in Dhaka University. The author used questionnaire (both closed-ended and open-ended questions; Likert type) to elicit data. In addition, the author used SPSS (version 16.0) to analyze data.

Citing Moskowitz (1978), the author notes the following definition of humanistic education: Humanistic education means "educating the whole person in the intellectual and non-intellectual or affective dimension. In humanistic education the subject matter of teaching is related to the feelings, experiences, memories, hopes, aspirations, beliefs, values, needs and fantasies of students" (p. 163). The author used the following indicators of humanistic teaching: materials (i.e. whether materials address students' needs and experiences), classroom tasks and activities (i.e. students' freedom of choice), assessment (e.g. self-evaluation, continuous assessments, feedback (i.e. positive feedback), learner autonomy, and teacher students relationship. The participants were asked to respond to questions pertaining to these indicators.

In response to the questions about "materials", 74.3% students informed that teachers allow them to choose materials according to their interests; 74.2% informed that teachers develop and use new [additional] materials in the classroom; and 71.4% reported that materials are culturally sensitive and related to their lives. In response to the questions about "classroom tasks and activities", 94.3% students reported that teachers encourage them to share their experience with their classmates and 80% reported that encourage them to help each other during class activities in the class. The author remarks: "This finding indicates

that teachers promoted cooperative learning, one of the main characteristics of humanistic teaching, in the classroom" (p. 172). In response to questions about "assessment", 91.4% students reported that teachers encourage them to self-evaluate their performance and 85.7% reported that teachers use the process of continuous assessment. In response to the questions about "feedback", 94.3% students reported that teachers praise them when they perform well. In addition, 77.1% reported that teachers encourage peer feedback [in the class]. However, 40% students reported that teachers criticize them in the class when they make mistake. In response to the questions about "learner autonomy", 97.2% students reported that teachers encourage them to be independent; 94.3% reported that teachers allowed them to express their feelings and opinions; and 94.2% reported that teachers encourage them to develop positive self-image. However, 45.7% reported that teachers force them to participate in class activities. In response to the question about "Teacher-student relation", 97.1% students reported that teachers are friendly and cooperative. In addition, 85.7% participants reported that teachers show sympathy and empathy for students.

The author also tried to identify 10 most prominent and 10 least prominent humanistic methodological characteristics in teaching practices. The statement "The teacher moves around and monitors our class activities" has been identified as the most prominent (mean 3.60) humanistic methodological feature. On the other hand, the statement "The teacher uses video and multimedia" (mean 1.83) has been identified as the least prominent humanistic feature in teaching practice. This apart, the author records an order of the presence of humanistic feature in the six constructs: classroom tasks and activities (highest mean), feedback, learner autonomy, teacher student relations, assessment and materials (carrying lowest mean).

In the open-ended question, students were required to write about their expectations from their English language teachers. The author generated the following categories of

expectations form students responses: (a) more use of modern teaching aids in the classroom, (b) good-teacher student relationship, (c) more participation in activities (presentations & assignments), (d) use of eclectic teaching methods, (e) positive feedback, and (f) conducive classroom environment.

Finally, the author remarks: "The findings reveal that humanistic methodological characteristics are present in all six areas of investigation in the undergraduate language classes of the English department of the University of Dhaka. So it can be said that the language teachers are aware of humanistic teaching" (p.181).

5.3.35 In their study, "Methods and Practices of English Language Teaching in Bangla and English Medium Schools", Rozina Parvin (Assistant Teacher, English, Tejgaon Govt. Girls' High School, Tejgaon, Dhaka) and Md. Zulfeqar Haider (Associate Professor, English, Govt. Bangla College, Dhaka) [Parvin, & Haider, 2012] investigate similarities and differences between classroom practices of Bangla medium School and English medium Schools in Bangladesh.

The participants (purposive sampling) of this study involve 400 students (280 from 4 Bangla medium schools and 120 from 4 English medium schools of Dhaka city) [Class 6] and 32 [English language] teachers (20 from Bangla medium and 12 from English medium Schools). The authors used [closed-ended] questionnaire to elicit data from the respondents. This apart, the authors observed (using observation checklist) 8 lessons of English medium schools and 16 lessons of Bangla medium schools. The authors collected data from 2008-2009.

Analysis of data reveals the following differences in classroom practices between Bangla medium and English medium schools. First, when asked about medium of instruction, 17.86% Bangla medium students reported that their teachers use only English in

English lessons whereas 82.14% students reported that teachers use both Bangla and English in English lessons. On the other hand, 100% students of English medium schools reported that their teachers use only English in the class. In response to the same question, 33.33% Bangla medium teachers reported that they always use English in the class and 66.67% teachers reported that they use both Bangla and English in the class; on the other hand, 100% teachers of English medium schools reported that they use only English in the class. Classroom observation data confirms the finding of the questionnaire survey. Second, in response to the question about the use of translations from English to Bangla, 62.86% students and 53% teachers of Bangla medium schools reported that "English texts are translated into Bangla" (p. 55). On the contrary, 100% students and teachers of English medium schools reported that English texts are not translated into Bangla in the class. Classroom observation data confirms this finding. Third, when asked about the techniques of teaching reading, 51.43% Bangla medium students reported that they read aloud texts in the classroom; 20% reported that they read texts silently; and 28.57% reported that they practice both silent reading and reading aloud. On the contrary, 100% English medium students reported they practice only silent reading in the class. In response to the same question, 40% Bangla medium teachers reported that they engage students in reading aloud; 20% reported that they involve students in silent reading; and 40% reported that they engage students in both reading aloud and silent reading. On the other hand, 100% English medium teachers reported that they always engage students in silent reading. Classroom observation data confirms this finding. Fourth, when asked about the techniques of teaching grammar rules, 56.14% Bangla medium students reported that they memorize grammar rules whereas 42.87% students reported that they learn grammar rules "by reading the content of the English textbooks" (p. 56). On the other hand, 96.67% English medium students reported that they learn grammar rules from the content of the text [i.e. from the context]. In response

to the same question, 65% Bangla medium teachers reported that they ask students to memorize grammar rules; 35% reported that they ask students to practice grammar items from the textbook. On the other hand, 24.99% teachers of English medium schools reported that they explain grammatical structures and rules in the class whereas 74.97% teachers reported they ask students to learn grammar from the contents of the textbook. Classroom observation data confirms this finding. Fifth, when asked about the difficulties in four skills, 45% students of Bangla medium schools reported that four skills are difficult [i.e. it is difficult to gain proficiency in four skills] whereas 55% students reported that four skills are not difficult. On the other hand, 10% English medium students reported that four skills are difficult whereas 90% students reported that four skills are not difficult. Sixth, analysis of data reveals that 20% Bangla medium teachers graduated from English Discipline whereas 100% English medium teachers graduated from English Discipline. In addition, 100% Bangla medium teachers received professional training whereas 16.67% English medium teacher received professional training.

Analysis of data reveals the following similarities in the classroom practices of Bangla medium teachers and English medium teachers. First, when asked about warm-up activities, 87.86% Bangla medium students reported that their teachers do not conduct warm-up activities in the class. However, 12.14% Bangla medium students reported that teachers use pictures as warm-up activities. On the other hand, 83.33% English medium students reported that teachers do not conduct warm-up activities in the class. However, 16.67% reported that teachers conduct warm-up activities in the class. In response to the same question, 55% Bangla medium teachers and 71% English medium teachers reported that they do not conduct warm-up activities. However, 40% Bangla medium teachers and 29% English medium teachers reported that they use pictures while introducing new language lesson. Besides, 5% Bangla medium teachers reported that they use games as warm-up

activity. Second, when asked about the techniques of teaching/learning vocabulary items, 6% Bangla medium students and 13% English medium students reported that they try to guess meaning from the context. In addition, 17% Bangla medium students and 46% English medium students reported that their teachers explain unknown words in English. Besides, 30% English medium students reported that they consult English-to-English dictionary to learn vocabulary. In response to the same question, 11% Bangla medium teachers reported that they ask students to guess the meaning of words from the texts; 13% reported that they use pictures/visual aids; 52% reported that they explain the meaning of vocabulary in Bangla; 19% reported that they explain the meaning of words in English; and 5% reported that they use dictionary to teach vocabulary. On the other hand, 17% English medium teachers reported that they ask students to inter meaning; 4% reported that they use pictures/visual aids; 73% reported that they explain the meaning of vocabulary in English; and 6% reported that they use dictionary to teach vocabulary. However, classroom observation data suggests that teachers of both Bangla medium and English medium schools predominantly use the technique of explaining meaning in Bangla [practice of Bangla medium teachers] and English. Third, in response to the question about "students' interaction pattern", 20% Bangla medium students reported that their teachers arrange group activities in the class whereas 80% students reported that they work individually in the classroom. On the other hand, 10% English medium students reported that their teachers involve them in pair work; 13.33% reported that their teachers engage them in group work; and 76.66% students reported that their teachers engage them in individual work. In response to the same question, 30% Bangla medium teachers reported that they engage students in pair work; 10% reported that they engage their students in group work; and 60% reported that they engage their students in individual work. On the contrary, 28% English medium teachers reported that they involve students in pair work; 8.33% reported that they involve students in group work; and 63.67%

teachers reported that they involve students in individual work. Classroom observation data indicates that teachers [of both Bangla medium and English medium schools] do not engage students in group work or pair work. Fourth, in response to the question regarding the preferred method of teaching, 80% Bangla medium teachers responded in favor of CLT. On the other hand, 16.67% English medium teachers reported that they follow the principles of CLT while conducting classes. However, the authors note: "While observing the classes in Bangla medium schools, most of the teachers were found conducting the classes in traditional ways. The lessons taught by the English medium schoolteachers were mainly reliant on following the textbooks rather than following a certain method of teaching" (p. 60). Fifth, when asked about lesson plans, 20% Bangla medium teachers reported that they prepare lesson plan everyday and 80% reported that they prepare lesson plan once a weak. On the other hand, 100% English medium teachers reported that they create lesson plan everyday. However, classroom observation data indicates that Bangla medium and English medium teachers do not use any lesson plan in the class.

5.3.36 In his article, "The Role of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) at the Higher Secondary Level in Bangladesh", Md. Ziaur Rahman (Senor Lecturer in English, Northern University Bangladesh) [Rahman, 2010] investigates higher secondary level teachers' and students' perceptions of CLT.

The participants of this study include 100 teachers and 100 students from 20 colleges of Bangladesh (10 from Dhaka city and 10 from Khulna city). The author used questionnaire (containing both closed-ended and open-ended questions) to elicit data. The author conducted this study in 2007 (April-July).

The questionnaire for teachers contained 10 closed-ended questions and 1 open-ended question. In response to the first question, majority of the respondents (66%) reported that

they are aware of the purpose of CLT. In response to the second question, majority of the participants (50%) reported that CLT approach 'sometimes' help their students. The third question inquired about the benefit of CLT. In response to this question, majority of the teachers (32%) reported that their students enjoy English lecture. In response to the fourth question, 84% teachers reported that they encounter problem while using CLT approach. The fifth question inquired about the types of problems the teachers encounter while using CLT. In response to this question, majority of the respondents (44%) reported that they cannot teach their students properly. In response to the sixth question, 65% teachers reported that advantages of CLT outnumber its disadvantages. In response to the seventh question, 55% respondents reported that problems of CLT are avoidable. In response to the eight question, 60% teachers reported that if limitations of CLT are removed, CLT would become a good approach. In response to the ninth question, 71% respondents reported that they were not successful in teaching English using CLT. The tenth question inquired about the causes of failure of teachers in using CLT. In response to this question, majority of the teachers (40%) reported that they did not receive any training on CLT. The eleventh question (open-ended) asked teachers to write comments on CLT. In response to this question, teachers wrote about the necessity of arranging workshops on CLT.

The questionnaire for students also contained 11 questions (10 closed-ended and 1 open-ended). In response to the first question, 86% students reported that they do not have any knowledge about CLT approach. In response to the second question, majority of the students (75%) reported that they do not have any knowledge of CLT because their teachers did not inform them about CLT. In response to the third question, majority of the students (65%) reported that CLT 'sometimes' improved their English language skills. The fourth question inquired about the benefit of CLT. In response to this question, 35% students reported that they understand English lecture easily. In response to the fifth question, 83%

students reported that they encounter problem in CLT class. The sixth question inquired about the types of problems students encounter in CLT class. In response to this question, majority of the students (73%) reported that they do not understand English lecture properly. In response to the seventh question, 53% students reported that benefits of CLT outnumber its problems. In response to the eighth question, 58% students reported that the problems of CLT are unavoidable. In response to the ninth question, 78% students reported that their teachers were not successful in using CLT. The tenth question inquired about the causes of the failure of the teachers. In response to this question, 70% students reported that their teachers are not trained. The eleventh question asked students to make comments on CLT. In response to this question, students pointed out that classroom environment in Bangladesh is not conducive to using CLT.

Finally, the author makes the following recommendations to improve the condition of ELT in Bangladesh. First, teachers should receive training. Second, grammar should be taught in ELT classes. Third, ELT classroom size should be small.

5.4.0 Communicative Language Teaching

5.4.1 In his paper entitled "Communicative Language Teaching in Rural Bangladesh: Teachers' Beliefs and Perceptions" Md. Akramuzzaman (Lecturer, Department of English, Victoria University of Bangladesh, Dhaka, Bangladesh) [Akramuzzaman, 2011] makes an attempt to explore whether teachers in rural areas conform to the fundamental principles and assumptions of CLT.

As an instrument of data collection, the author employs 20-item structured questionnaire along with a three response Likert Scale (strongly agree, neither agree-nor disagree, strongly disagree) to elicit responses on principles, practices and assumptions of

CLT approach. In this study, 26 secondary level teachers from six schools at Batiaghata and Digholia upazillas [sub districts] of Khulna district participated as respondents. Apart from structured questionnaire, the researcher conducted an open-ended interview with those participants (two from each school) who appeared to be associated with either GT Method or CLT approach.

The findings of the study indicate that 90% teachers believe in the significance of explicit teaching of grammar in language education and 4 out of 6 teachers [who were interviewed] report that learners prefer to learn grammar. Besides, 82% teachers believe that interaction is the best way to learn a language though they do not engage students in communicative activities. With regard to the role of games in language learning, 65% teachers opine that playing games is time-consuming and 42% think that games are insignificant in language classroom. Further, interview data reveals negative attitudes of teachers towards games: teachers believe that games are distracting and chaotic. With regard to teachers' role, 99% teachers believe that teachers should authoritatively control the class whereas 76% think that teachers should play the role of a facilitator. In addition, 86% believe that students should be given the opportunity to express themselves freely. With regard to error correction, teachers believe that grammatical errors have to be corrected explicitly. In this study, no teachers have been found to be using authentic materials in the classroom. The author states that 90% teachers tend to combine CLT and GTM in the classroom. However, 27% teachers believe that they are well informed about CLT though their classroom practices do not reflect their belief. In short, this study suggests that secondary level teachers at rural areas are not informed about basic principles of CLT, and therefore they cannot practice it in the classroom. Second, teachers encourage rote learning and extensively use L1 in the classroom. Third, teachers synthesize GTM and CLT in the classroom. Fourth, teachers

prefer to use GTM over CLT. Fifth, teachers are not motivated and enthusiastic in teaching English.

5.4.2 In the article, "CLT Classrooms: Teachers' Role & a Bangladesh Perspective", Sawsan Tarannum (Lecturer in English, Centre for University Requirement Course (CENURC), IIUC) [Tarannum, 2010] discusses the roles of teachers in CLT approach and traditional approach. In addition, the author points out some problems of English language teaching in Bangladesh.

In the section entitled "meaning of CLT", the author notes five characteristics of CLT: emphasis on interaction, authentic text, learning process, learners' background/experience, and use of language outside the classroom. In the section entitled "attributes of a CLT teacher" the author maintains that a CLT teacher should be informed about students' interest, purpose of learning English, learning style and learning strategies. In the section entitled "traditional role of teachers" the author points out five roles of a traditional English language teachers: model of language (i.e. teachers present the correct usage of a linguistic item); lesson planner, presenter of new language material, controller of student practice, and classroom manager. In a table, the author shows the distinction between a "traditional" classroom and "progressive" classroom. A traditional classroom is teacher-centered and follows transmission mode of teaching whereas a progressive classroom is learner-centered and follows constructivist learning theory. In addition, a traditional classroom adopts lock-up system in learning [non-collaborative] (e.g. GTM); on the other hand, a progressive classroom is collaborative (e.g. CLT). In the section entitled "role of teachers in CLT" the author notes eight roles of CLT teachers: controller, organizer, assessor, prompter, participant, resource, tutor and monitor. In the section entitled "CLT: A Bangladeshi perspective" the author identifies some problems of teaching English in Bangladesh. First,

traditional teachers who are comfortable in following GTM are not aware of the pedagogic

principles in CLT. Second, teacher training programs are inadequate to effectuate any

change in teaching-learning situation at national level. Third, class size in Bangladesh is

typically large which causes problems in assessment and classroom management. Fourth,

technological aids such as OHP, projection, computers etc. are generally unavailable in the

classroom. Finally, the author suggests that initiatives should be taken to train teachers and

introduce modern educational equipments.

5.4.3 In his study, "Post-Secondary ESL Teachers' Perceptions, Attitudes and Expectations

About Communicative Language Teaching (LLT) in Bangladesh: Research Findings and

Implementation Plan", Khaled M.R. Karim (Lecturer, Department of English, North South

University) [Karim, 2004-2005] investigates teachers' perceptions about principles and

practice of CLT, and correspondence between their perceptions and classroom practices. In

addition, the author seeks to identify teachers' perceived obstacles in implementing CLT in

Bangladesh.

In this survey research, 36 ESL teachers (age between 24-58) from three private

universities (English medium) participated. The author used structured questionnaire to elicit

data. In the analysis of data, patterns or common themes have been emphasized.

Findings of the study suggest that teachers are well informed about principles and

practice of CLT. The research instrument (i.e. questionnaire) asked teachers whether CLT

means only group work/pain work, discourse competence, teaching speaking, and exclusion

of grammar from language lesson. Most of the participants of this study answered

negatively. Besides, teachers engage students in role play, group discussion, listening to

audio tapes, simulation etc. Teachers' knowledge about CLT positively correlated with their

classroom practice. Teachers detected the following obstacles in the process of successful

implementation of CLT in Bangladesh: large class size, lack of resources, and well-equipped classroom, traditional grammar-oriented testing system, lack of support from administration, and lack of training. On the other hand, the participants of this study did not identify the following factors as barriers to successful implementation of CLT: knowledge of target culture and lack of high proficiency of teachers.

Based on the findings, the author indicates that teachers' perceptions and pedagogic conditions are favorable to successful implementation of CLT in Bangladesh. The author suggests that since teachers of the three universities who participated in this study demonstrated positive attitudes toward CLT, other institutions may seek expert support from these institutions. Besides, successful implementation of CLT depends on teacher training, contextualized teaching of vocabulary and grammar, availability of authentic materials, reformation of assessment/evaluation system by incorporating principles of CLT (i.e. determining criteria for the assessment of four skills).

5.4.4 In his article, "From Communicative Competence to Communicative Language Teaching: Cultural Context of Origin and Clash of Cultures in Other Contexts", M. Shahidullah (Professor, Department of English, Rajshahi University) [Shahidullah, 2007] outlines theoretical background of CLT, and explains cultural dimension of CLT.

The author mentions that Hymes, wilkins, Widdowson, and Brumfit and Johnson introduced the nation of CLT in 1970s. According to Hymes (1972), four features of communicative competence involve formal possibility, feasibility, appropriateness and performance. According to Canale and Swain (1980), four components of communicative competence include: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence. According to Bachman (1990) communicative

competence involves 'language competence' (i.e. organizational and pragmatic competence), strategic competence, and psycho-physiological mechanism.

The author notes CLT's views about language and process of language learning. In CLT, language is viewed as a means of communication and structures of language as manifestation of function/purpose. On the other hand, learning theory of CLT is influenced by J. Brunner's idea of discovery learning and active learning. Besides, in CLT language learning means learning to use language and developing communicative competence. Pedagogic framework of CLT involves peer-collaboration, national-functional and need-based syllabus and anxiety-free classroom. In addition, authentic context and materials, interaction, and positive treatment of errors are emphasized in CLT.

The author notes that the role of teacher in CLT can be defined as an informant, monitor, stimulator (i.e. interlocutor with the class), manager, advisor, consultant, participant, organizer of resource, and facilitator. On the other hand, learners responsibility in CLT framework is to activity participate in the learning process, evaluate and monitor their own progress, and employment of appropriate learning strategy. In other words, learners are expected to take responsibility for their own learning.

The author tries to trace the cultural origin of CLT. The author points out that CLT evolved in western democratic educational culture. CLT adopts progressive model of education in which learning process is active and creative. On the other hand, Afro-Asian or Latin American educational culture encourages passivity among students. Besides, non-western educational culture follows transmission model and encourages rote learning. In addition, non-western learning culture is teacher-entered. Finally, the author suggests that teaching methodology should be devised in synchrony with local culture. In addition, non-western societies should not rigidly follow any methodology. Culture and context sensitive pedagogy needs to developed.

5.4.5 In her survey study, "Communicative Language Teaching in Bangladesh: Teachers' Beliefs and Practices", Samina Akter Nayla (Lecturer in English, ASA University Bangladesh) [Nayla, 2008] explores teachers' perceptions about communicative language teaching.

The participants of this study include 27 Bangladeshi English teachers from Bangla medium and English medium schools of Dhaka city. As an instrument of data collection, the author used Likert scale with four responses: strongly disagree, disagree, agree and strongly agree. The respondents are required to express their opinion about 31 statements concerning CLT.

Findings suggest that 50% teachers of English medium school believes that grammar rules are important in language learning whereas 80% teachers of Bangla medium schools believes that grammar is important in language learning. In addition, 66.65% teachers of English medium and 73.33% teachers of Bangla medium schools strongly agree with the statement that communication is the best way of acquiring a language. Both Bangla medium and English medium school teachers report that group works are effective in language classroom. However, most of the teachers (80%) of Bangla medium schools suggest that group work might create chaos in the classroom whereas 42% teachers of English medium schools report that group works become chaotic. Most of the teachers of Bangla medium and English medium schools opine that playing games is useless and distracting in language classroom. Both English medium schools teachers and Bangla medium school teachers believe that courses should be designed according to the needs of the students; teachers should correct grammatical errors; control the class; and create communicative environment in the class. With regard to authentic language, Bangla medium teachers appeared to be uninformed about the concept whereas some English medium teachers seem to be aware about the use of authentic text in the classroom. With regard to the role of learners both

Bangla medium and English medium teachers opine that students should be allowed to express their ideas in the classroom, though they do not seen to be well-equipped (linguistically) to express themselves. With regard to memorization, 63% English medium and 60% Bangla medium teachers believe that memorizing answers form textbooks help language learning.

Finally, 93.33% teachers of English medium schools and 47% teachers of Bangla medium schools believe that they have good command over CLT. In addition, 94% teachers of English medium schools and 100% of Bangla medium schools report that they would prefer to combine principles of CLT and GTM in the classroom. Based on the findings, the author concludes that teachers do not have any negative attitude towards CLT; and synthesis of CLT and GTM might be useful in Bangladesh context.

5.4.6 In the survey, "Communicative Language Teaching in EFL Contexts: Teachers Attitude and Perception in Bangladesh", Diana Ansarey (Assistant Professor, Department of English, ASA University Bangladesh) [Ansarey, 2012] explorers primary and secondary level English teachers' perceptions about challenges and difficulties in implementing CLT in Bangladesh.

In this study, 30 English teachers (age: 30 and above) of primary and secondary level from 30 school of Dhaka city participated in this study. The author used structured questionnaire to elicit data from the respondents. In addition, the author interviewed 5 teachers from the 30 respondents using an open ended questionnaire. To analyze data, the author employed descriptive statistics (SPSS) and content analysis technique.

Findings of the study indicate that teachers hold positive attitudes towards teaching English. Besides, the teachers identified the following problems of English teaching in Bangladesh: large class, heavy workload of teachers, mismatch between curriculum and testing system, low proficiency of students, and low motivation of students. Majority of the

teachers appeared to be well-informed about principles of CLT. In particular, 67% reported that they use CLT in their class whereas 33% reported that they did not use it. Most of the teachers identified the following difficulties and challenges in implementing CLT in Bangladesh: teachers' linguistic and sociolinguistic (cultural) proficiency in English, lack of training in CLT, lack of time for material development, misconception about CLT, lack of support from administration, unavailability of authentic materials. In addition, some teachers opined that students need to master reading and writing skill in the context of Bangladesh. But CLT's emphasis speaking and listening skill has created a contradiction between students' purpose and the method's purpose.

Finally, the author recommends that teachers should be trained in CLT; teachers' workload should be reduced; teaching aids should be provided; teachers should be highly paid; and testing system should incorporate principles of CLT.

5.4.7 In his essay, "Grammar-Translation Method vs. Communicative Language Teaching: Objectives and Strategies", Dr. Sujut Kumar Dutta (Professor of English, Chittagong University) [Dutta, 2006] illustrates principles and practices of CLT and GTM.

The author notes that the objective of GTM is to teach grammatical rules and writing. In addition, GTM is teacher centered. On the other hand, the objective of CLT is to develop communicative competence of the students. The author describes an imaginative classroom lesson by using the text "A Myanmar Family" to demonstrate the distinction between GTM and CLT. In the GTM class, the teacher reads and translate the passage in Bangla; students write answers some questions; learn Bangla equivalent; synonyms and antonyms of some English words. In the grammar exercise, students are asked to write past and past-participle form of some English words (present from). In the end, students are required to write Bangla translation of the passage, summary of "A Myanmar Family", memorize vocabulary and

present form, past form, and past participle forms of some verbs; they are also required to construct sentences using previously learned vocabulary. On the other hand, in a CLT class, the teacher begins with greeting the students, and conducts a warm-up activity by eliciting answers about a picture. Next the teachers ask students to rearrange some scrambled sentences. Next the teacher divides the class into two groups and introduces 'true/false' exercise. The teacher also introduces *Country Naming Game*, *Nationality Naming Game* and *Prayer House Naming Game* (e.g. My name is Kamal; I am from Kenya. Karim lives in Bangladesh; He is Bangladeshi. Pagodas are Buddhist prayer house). The teacher also introduces a grammar activity in context. In this activity, students fill in some gaps in a dialogue using 'to be' verb about planning to stage a play. Finally, the teacher assigns students to write a project report on differences between life-style in Bangladesh and in other countries.

Finally, the author concludes that GTM is ineffective and theoretical whereas CLT prepares students to use the language. He recommends that there should be extensive teacher training program for teachers on CLT. However, the author remarks that teachers may use eclectic method as well.

5.4.8 In their survey, "Communicative Approach at Higher Secondary Level: Problems and Possibilities", Shahidul Islam Khan (Lecturer, Stamford University Bangladesh) and Shaheda Akter Lubna (Teacher, North South University, Bangladesh) [Khan & Lubna, 2007] explicate some obstacles in implementing CLT in Bangladesh, and investigate perceptions and practice of CLT among college teachers in Bangladesh.

According to the author, "practical problems" in adopting CLT approach in Bangladesh involves large class size, poor logistic support, untrained teachers with low motivation, traditional role of teachers, and misconception about teaching of grammar in CLT

approach. In the survey about teachers' perceptions and practice of CLT, 50 teachers of different colleges of Dhaka city participated. The author derived data using structured questionnaire that contains both closed-ended and open-ended questions.

Analysis of data about perceptions of CLT discloses that 29% teachers are familiar with the role of teachers in CLT; 23% teachers believe that CLT is better than GTM in Bangladesh context whereas 61% teachers believe that CLT is not better than GTM ; 91% teachers reported that grammar section of the [textbook] create problem for them. With regard to the practice of CLT, 71% teachers reported that they follow lesson mode [interactive] whereas 29% follow lecture mode; 52% teachers reported that in their class the ratio of Teacher Talking Time Vs Student Talking Time is 70:30; 25% reported that it is 80:20; and 23% reported that the ration is 50:50 (ideal). In response to the question whether they can follow the instruction of the book properly, 58% reported that they find it difficult to follow the instruction. In response to the question whether they arrange group work/pair work in the class, 87% reported that they "sometimes" organize group work/pair work; 6.5% reported that they "never" arrange it.

In response to the open-ended question which seeks their suggestions about improving teaching-learning situation in Bangladesh , teachers opined that class size should be reduced; grammar should be emphasized in the syllabus; classroom should be learner-oriented; text should be interesting to the learners; and institutional support should be increased. Finally, the author recommends that teachers should be trained on the following skill: lesson plan, classroom management, teaching grammar, providing positive feedback, and developing materials.

5.4.9 In their essay, "Defining and Re-Defining Communicative Competence: A Historical Overview", Sayed Salahuddin Ahmed (Assistant Professor, Department of English, Eastern

University) and Fatima Tabsun (Assistant Professor, Department of English, Stamford University Bangladesh) [Ahmed & Tabsun, 2009-10] trace the history of the term 'communicative competence'.

The authors note that Dell Hymes proposed the term 'communicative competence' in 1966. This idea is an extension of Chomsky's concept 'linguistic competence. Chomsky distinguishes between 'competence' and 'performance'. 'Competence' refers to the speaker-listener's knowledge of their [native] language in a homogenous speech community. On the contrary, 'performance' refers to the 'actual use' of language/manifestation of competence through actual use in communication. According to Dell Hymes, Chomsky's idea of competence does not include social and functional use of language. Hymes' formulation of 'communicative competence' involves negotiation of meaning and context of language use. Hymes (1972) explains four components of 'communicative competence': formal [grammatical] possibility, feasibility [whether something is feasible in reality], appropriateness [in a context] and performance [whether a sentence occurs or not due to reasons related to acceptability]. Canale and Swain (1980) detect four elements of communicative competence: Grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, strategic competence. Bachman's (1990) 'illocutionary competence' (sociolinguistic competence in Canale and Swain) involves function or purpose of using language (e.g. stating, requesting, greeting etc.). According to Spitzberg (1984), communicative competence refers to the ability to interact effectively, accurately and appropriately. Canary and Cody (2006) offers six criteria for judging communicative competence: adaptability (i.e. changing goals and behaviors according to the demand of the situation), conversational involvement (e.g. responsiveness, attentiveness), conversational

management (e.g. topic change), empathy (i.e. emotional reaction), effectiveness (i.e. attainment of goals), and appropriateness.

5.4.10 In his article, "The Present Mode of Teaching in the ELT Classes at the Higher Secondary Level in Bangladesh: Is it the Practice of CLT or Disguised GTM ?", Md. Minhajul Abedin (Assistant Professor, Department of English, Stamford University Bangladesh) [Abedin, 2012] investigates approaches to language teaching at higher secondary class.

The participants of this study include 100 students and 30 English language teachers from 10 colleges (10 students and 3 teachers from each college) of Dhaka city. The author elicited data through structured questionnaire and interview.

27 % students reported that teachers deliver lecture in English; 100% students reported that teachers emphasize on translation. Besides, 15% students reported that they get opportunity to interact in the class; 82% students reported that they prefer to work on seen comprehension; 42% reported that that they prefer to learn English through grammar whereas 58% reported that they prefer to learn English through communication. Apart from this, 90% students reported that there is "room of memorization in English class"; 77% reported that only reading and writing skills are addressed in the class; 72% reported that they learn vocabulary through memorization; 78% reported that teachers are rigid about students' mistakes. On the contrary, analysis of teachers' data indicates that 60% teachers prefer CLT; 6.67% prefers GTM and 33.33% prefers mixture of CLT and GTM; 26.67% employs translation as a teaching technique; 20% teachers concentrate on improving communicative competence of students whereas 80% is [only] concerned about grades of the students. Besides, 93.33% identified large class size as a problem; 56.67% reported that they encounter some difficulties in implementing CLT in the classroom. Interview data (one teacher from

each college) indicates that some teachers are ignorant about principles of CLT. Some teachers also expressed dissatisfaction about lack of logistic support. Those teachers who mix CLT and GTM in the class opined that Bangladesh learners are not yet ready to accept CLT.

The author recommends that teachers should encourage active participation of the students in the class. Second, formative assessment (e.g. assessment on class participation) should be introduced in the class, and teachers should provide positive feedback to students. Third, logistic support for the teachers should be increased.

5.4.11 In his article, "Teachers' Awareness and Current Practice of Communicative Activities in Bangladeshi Universities", Md. Shayeekh-Us-Saleheen (Assistant Professor, Department of English and humanities, University of liberal Arts Bangladesh (ULAB)) [Saleheen, 2010-2011] investigates teachers' practice and perception of CLT.

The participants of this study include 10 teachers from 7 private universities of Dhaka city. The author used structured questionnaire (containing both open-ended and closed-ended questions) to elicit data.

Analysis of data shows that 9 teachers out of 10 used CLT in their classes because they think that CLT approach is interesting and enjoyable to students; in addition, they also think that students can be engaged in language learning activities using CLT. In response to the question about specific activities that they use in the classroom, 40% teachers reported that they always use questioning activities; 60% reported that they always use thinking strategies (brainstorming); and 50% reported that they always use problem-solving activities. On the other hand, two rarely used activities are jigsaw task and simulation. In response to the question about challenges of using CLT in the classroom, teachers identified the following problems: (a) teachers' lack of competence in oral communication skills, (b)

insufficient time of teachers in designing communicative materials, (c) large class size, and (d) low proficiency of the students.

The author suggests that teacher-training programs can help improve teachers' proficiency in English. In addition, teachers can learn the process of designing appropriate CLT materials and managing large classes. The author recommends that teachers' workload should be reduced. Besides, on the basis of his experience of using CLT approach, the author argues that low proficiency of the students is not an obstacle to implementing CLT in the classroom; rather, proficiency of the students can be improved using CLT. The author concludes that "Bangladeshi EFL teachers are very much aware of using communicative activities" (p. 248).

5.4.12 In her article, "The Application of Communicative Language Teaching in Bangladesh", Shayla Nahar Ahmed (Lecturer, Department of English, University of Dhaka) [Ahmed, 2005-2006] investigates secondary level teachers' opinion about the effectiveness of CLT in Bangladesh.

The participants of the study encompass 10 secondary level teachers (5 males and 5 females) from schools of Dhaka. The author elicited data using a questionnaire.

Findings of the survey have been divided into four categories: respondents' perception (knowledge) about CLT, the effectiveness [appropriacy] of CLT in Bangladesh, the situation of classroom pedagogy, and perceived barriers of proper implementation of CLT. In the category entitled 'Participants' perception of CLT", 6 respondents out of 10 reported that they did not received any training on CLT. Therefore, they tend to shift to GTM or use both CLT and GTM in the class. In addition, some respondents believe that grammar is excluded in the syllabus of CLT, and only oral communication skill is emphasized. In the second category entitled "The effectiveness of CLT in Bangladesh", 9

respondents opined that CLT is inappropriate in the context of Bangladesh. 1 respondent remarked that Bangla medium schools lack logistic support. Therefore, class cannot be made interesting. In the third section entitled "The situation of classroom pedagogy" 7 teachers out of 10 reported that they mix Bangla and English in the classroom. 6 respondents out of 10 reported that only 25% students participate in group discussion in the class. 8 teachers out of 10 reported that students do not prefer to see teachers' as facilitator since they are accustomed to lecture-mode of teaching. In the fourth category, "The perceived barriers of proper implementation of CLT", teachers detected large class size (40-45 students) and unavailability of materials as obstacles.

Finally, the author remarks that "with our developing economy and poor funds available for education, the application of CLT often seems an extravagance" (p. 199). The author suggests that opportunities for teacher training and availability of teaching aids for secondary level should be ensured. In addition, an integrated method [combination of CLT and GTM] should be developed to teach English language in Bangladesh.

5.4.13 In their study, "The Effect of the Present Communicative Approach in the Teaching of English on Students Learning at Grade IX & X", Rokeya Begum, Mariam Begum & Jahangir Alom (IER, Dhaka University) [Begum, Begum, & Alom, 2004] investigate effectiveness of CLT in Bangladesh.

The participants of this study include teachers of English and students of class IX and X from Dhaka (urban) and Rajbari (rural) districts. The authors elicited data from the students through questionnaire and [proficiency] test, and from the teachers using interview schedule. The authors also observed classroom to collect data (using classroom observation checklist) about practice of CLT in the classroom.

In response to the questions about teachers' use of English in delivering lecture, 60% urban students and 40% rural students reported that their teachers use English in lecture. In response to the question about student-teachers' communication in the classroom, 58% urban students and 44% rural students reported that they can communicate with their teachers in English. In response to the question about students' learning, 71% students (urban: 32%, rural: 39%) reported that they learn from teachers' lecture whereas 6% students (urban: 4%, rural: 2%) reported that they learn "better from pair work" (p. 48). In response to the question about mode of learning, 60% male students and 80% female students of urban areas gave their opinion in favor of pair work whereas 70% rural students (both male and female) preferred pair work and (small) group work. However, 12% male and female students of urban areas reported that they prefer to work in large group. In response to the question about useful classroom activities, 80% students (both rural and urban) opined that singing, role play etc. might help in language learning. In response to the question about English textbook, 48% urban students and 38% rural students opined that English textbook is interesting.

Analysis of interview data reveals that 70% teachers lack knowledge about ELT [CLT] and 65% teachers are uninformed about [adoption of new] ELT methods and curriculum [at national level]. However, 50% teachers reported that they are comfortable with new textbook. Besides, teachers reported that they teach large classes (teacher-student ratio: 1: 50-60) and they are burdened with heavy workload (30-36 classes per week plus administrative work). In response to the question about students' improvement of performance [proficiency], the teachers reported that they did not observe any noticeable improvement in students' performance.

Classroom observation data indicates that majority of the teachers did not apply CLT approach in the class. However, ELTIP trained teachers tried to implement CLT in the classroom.

Analysis of [proficiency] test results indicates statistically significant differences (t-value) between urban students (mean score: male: 22.8; female: 24.2) and rural students (mean score: male: 14.6; female: 13.8). In addition, statistically significant differences (t-value: .05 level) has been found between 9th and 10th grade students of urban area (mean score: Grade IX: 20.9; Grade X: 26.1).

The authors recommend that there should be scope for pre-service and in-service training for the English teachers. Second, contents from students' own culture should be incorporated into the syllabus. Third, audio players should be made available in the schools. Fourth, four skills of the students should be tested.

5.4.14 In her study, "Attitude of Bangladeshi Students Towards Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and Their English Textbook", Dr. Feroza Yasmin (Professor, Department of Linguistics, University of Dhaka) [Yasmin, 2008 & 2009] explores students' attitude toward CLT and English textbook.

The participants of the study include 32 secondary and higher secondary level students (16 males and 16 females). Among these 32 participants, 16 students are students of Grade-9 and the other 16 participants are students of Grade-12. In terms of economic class, the students fall under the category of middle class. The author elicited data through semi-structures interview. In analyzing data, the author adopted grounded theory approach.

Analysis of data indicates 'positive', 'negative' and 'mixed' attitude of students toward CLT and their textbook. In particular, 88% students showed positive attitude toward CLT. Majority of the students reported that they like CLT because CLT encourages

improvement of speaking skill and it "focus[es] on students' own ability" (p. 52) [i.e. takes into account students' level of proficiency while providing input]. 2 students mentioned that "CLT helps to eliminate the fear of L2 learning" (p. 52). This apart, 2 students out of 32 displayed mixed attitude toward CLT. These students reported that they like CLT because CLT helps to improve speaking skill and creative writing skill; further, it encourages understanding rather than rote memorization. Nevertheless, the students reported that they are not satisfied with the way CLT deals with grammar. Finally, 1 student displayed negative attitude toward CLT. However, this student did not have any comprehensive knowledge about CLT.

Students' attitude toward English textbook was also 'positive', 'negative', and 'mixed'. 20 students out of 32 showed positive attitude toward the English textbook. Majority of these students mentioned that they like exercises, topics and vocabulary of the textbook. They also appreciated the textbook's attempt to nurture students' creativity and to improve creative writing skills. 7 students showed negative attitude towards the textbook. In particular, 1 student did not like the vocabulary items of the textbook; another student did not like the idea of conversation and pair work suggested in the textbook; a third student did not like the "language of the texts" (p. 57). 5 students out of 32 showed mixed attitude toward the textbook. In particular, 1 student reported that she dislikes the textbook since it contains less number of reading passages; but she likes the textbook since it helps to improve "free-hand writing" (p. 57).

Concisely, in terms of gender-based response, 56.25% male students and 68.75% female students showed positive attitude; 25% male students and 18.75% female students showed negative attitude. In addition, 18.75% male students and 12.5% female students showed mixed attitude toward textbooks. In terms of grade, 75% Grade-9 students and 50% Grade-12 students showed positive attitude; 6.25% Grade-9 students and 37.5% Grade-12

students showed negative attitude; and 18.75% Grade-9 students and 12.5% Grade-12 students showed mixed attitude toward their textbook.

5.4.15 In his article, "Performance of Teachers in Implementing the Communicative Approach in English Classes at the Secondary Level: An Evaluative Study", Mohammod Moninoor Roshid (Lecturer, Institute of Education and Research (IER), University of Dhaka) [Roshid, 2008 & 2009] investigates activities in the English language classes at secondary level.

The participants of this study include 40 teachers and 80 students from 40 secondary schools located in suburban areas of Dhaka, Rajshahi, Chittagong, and Barishal divisions. 1 teacher and 2 students were purposively chosen from each school (Grade-10). The author elicited data using questionnaire. In addition, the author observed classes (using observation checklist) of English First Paper of Grade-10. Further, the author analyzed curriculum of secondary level, syllabus of grade IX-X, textbook of secondary level, and Teacher's Guide (TG).

Analysis of textbook indicates that textbook of secondary level contains communicative activities. In particular, the textbook includes activities to develop listening skill (e.g. listening and completing passage), speaking skills (e.g. describing picture), reading skill (e.g. reading for specific information), writing skill (e.g. writing paragraph/essay) and integrated skill where one skill is followed up by another skill. The activities in the textbook includes identifying true/false, rearranging, matching, list making etc. Teaching-learning process in the textbook encompasses group work and pair work. Besides, word game is included as a technique for teaching vocabulary.

In response to the questionnaire [about English 1st paper class] 67% teachers and 90% students informed that listening practice is not arranged in the class. Classroom observation

data reveals that 85% teachers did not engage students in practicing listening. 55% teachers claim that they involve students in speaking activities whereas 82% students reported that they do not practice speaking in the class. Classroom observation indicates that 72% teachers did not engage students in speaking activities. 60% teachers reported that they 'regularly' engage students in reading activities whereas 55% students reported that they 'sometimes' practice reading. Classroom observation data reveals that 20% teachers 'regularly' involved students in reading and 33% teachers 'sometimes' engaged students in reading activities. However, 75% students reported that they practice writing in the class.

Classroom observation indicates that teachers do not provide corrective feedback. Besides, 37% students informed that teachers take 'good' preparation before entering the class. However, classroom observation indicates that classroom preparation of the teachers was 'average'. Besides, teachers "made the students afraid" to manage classes (p. 183). This apart, 87% teachers did not involve students in pair work, and 73% teachers did not conduct class in English. Ignored classroom activities were: matching, question formation, and list making. However, rearranging and gap-filling were practiced in the class. It is to note that above 65% teachers "did not interact with their students properly" (p. 184); and above 50% teachers appeared to be ignorant about the purposes of lessons. Besides, a significant number of teachers did not get TG; 70% of those who got TG did not follow its instructions. Apart from this, 52% teachers reported that they cover all the sections (A, B, C, D, E, F) of a lesson whereas 78% students reported that all the sections are not discussed in the class. Classroom observation supports students' claim about dealing with sections of the lessons.

5.4.16 In her essay, "CLT: Another Assumed Ideal From the West ?", Rumana Siddique (Assistant Professor, Department of English, University of Dhaka) [Siddique, 2004) identifies some limitations of CLT in the context of Bangladesh.

Referring to papers presented in the 2nd National Conference of BELTA (Bangladesh English Language Teachers Association) (held in July 2004), the author notes some obstacles in implementing CLT in Bangladesh. First, local ELT practitioners are not proficient English language user. In other words, they have not achieved communicative competence. Besides, there is limited scope of pre-service and in-service teacher training in Bangladesh. Further, teachers are not well-informed about principles of CLT. Second, teachers in Bangladesh are underpaid. Therefore, teachers are not motivated to teach in the classroom. Besides, teaching aids such as overhead projectors, computer, photocopier etc. are rarely available in the institutions of Bangladesh. Third, authority of the institutions and guardians prefer exam-oriented teaching. Therefore, teacher cannot concentrate on developing communicative competence of the students. Fourth, class size in Bangladesh is large. In addition, class duration (i.e. 45 minutes) is insufficient to implement CLT. Fifth, students prefer teacher-cantered classroom rather than student-centered classroom. The author defined this phenomenon as "cultural conflicts".

Apart from pointing out the constraints of implementing CLT in Bangladesh, the author detects some mismatch between the theoretical assumptions of CLT and language learning goal and condition in Bangladesh. Referring to Canale and Swain, the author writes that CLT emphasizes on functional or 'genuine' language needs of the students. But English language pedagogic practices in Bangladesh have failed to address needs of the students. Second, CLT advocates 'genuine' communication through the language. But, in the context of Bangladesh 'genuine communication' is not possible [since English is a foreign language in Bangladesh]; therefore, "teachers are forced to practice English in artificial situations" (p.

21). Third , CLT suggests to develop sociolinguistic competence of the students. But, the author observes, since students do not have any opportunity to practice English outside the classroom, it is difficult to develop sociolinguistic competence of the students. The author observes: "there is little or no scope to use it in the social context, the relevance of sociolinguistic competence is questionable" (p. 22). Citing Haque and Maniruzzaman (2000), the author contends that it is different for the students to achieve strategic competence, because it requires "meaningful interaction". Referring to Hamid [2003], the author maintains that "there may indeed be components communicative competence [i.e. grammatical competence, discourse competence, socio-cultural competence, and strategic competence] that are absolutely irrelevant to the local learning environment" (p. 23).

Finally, in the section entitled "A method of one's own: Appropriating the teaching process", the author argues that a 'hybrid' method should be constructed for Bangladesh. The author cites Beale (2002) who suggests to combine context-based and task-based approach; Hamid (1999) who advocates adoption task-based approach [in Bangladesh]; Shahidullah (2003) who suggest to practice 'anti-method pedagogy' [i.e. critical examination of methods]; and Kumaravadivelu (1994) who proposes to adopt 'post-method' [which deals with teacher development].

5.4.17 In their article, "A Study on Effective Communicative English Teaching: Higher Secondary Level in Bangladesh", Dr. Md. Lokman Hossain (Asst. Professor in Zoology; now Asst. Director, Research and Documentation Division, NAEM), Ms. Hasina Momtaz (Lecturer in English, Haji Md. Mohsin College, Chittagong, Bangladesh), Ms. Rukhsana Sultana (Lecturer in Zoology, Goripur Govt. College, Mymensingh), and Md. Alamgir Hossain (Asst. Professor in Accounting, Sylhet Govt. College, Sylhet) [Hossain, Momtaz,

Sultana, & Hossain, 2006] investigate (a) existing practices of CLT and (b) teachers' and students' perception about the obstacles in implementing CLT in Bangladesh.

The participants of this study include 28 principals, 28 English language teachers, and 220 students of 28 higher secondary level in institutes form there administrative divisions of Bangladesh. The author collected data through questionnaire, interview schedule, and classroom observations (40 classes had been observed). The study was conducted in 2005.

Analysis of data reveals that 65.71% post of English teachers were filled and 34.29% position of English teachers in government institutions were vacant. However, in non-governments, almost all the position of English teacher were occupied. Second, the mean teacher-student ratio in government institutions is 1:464; this ratio is 1:175 in non-government institutions. Third, 96.43% teachers who participated in this study came from literature background whereas 3.57% teachers came from language background. Third, 46.43% teachers attended in-service training; 53.57% teachers did not receive any in-service training. Fourth, 69.8% students opined that CLT is 'relatively easy' and 46% students opined that CLT method is 'easy'. Fifth, observatory data shows that 80% teacher did not conduct any warm-up session. Sixth, 71.43% teachers reported that they take classes according to the lesson plan suggested in the textbook in 'most of the times' whereas 17.86% teachers 'occasionally' follow the lesson plan of the textbook. Seventh, 17.86% teachers reported that they 'always' follow [the instructions of] Teachers' Guide [TG]; 39.28% reported that they 'occasionally' follow TG; 35.71% reported that they follow TG in 'most of the time'; 7.14% reported that they 'never' followed TG. Eighth, 84.2% students reported that their teacher use both Bangla and English in the classroom. Ninth, 53.64% students reported that their teachers prefer discussion method; 46.36% students responded that their teachers prefer question-answer [mode of teaching]; 10% students informed that their teachers prefer lecture method; 8.64% students responded that their teachers engage them in

pair work/group work; 1.36% students informed that their teachers organize simulation and role play activities; 27.73% students reported that their teachers use all these methods [mentioned above] in teaching English]. However, classroom observation data suggests that in 95.8% cases, teachers used lecture mode to teach English language. Grammar was taught in 83.87% sessions. Tenth, analysis of classroom observation data indicates the following emphasis on four skills: Listening—20%; speaking—59.10%, reading—75%, and writing—50% [the calculation of focus on skills is done by comparing prescribed exercises in the textbook and actual practice in the classroom. Thus, 10 exercises on Listening is prescribed; but only 2 experience, i.e. (20%) are actually practiced in the class]. Eleventh, 54.4% students reported that they "feel free to interact in English" in the classroom whereas 45.6% reported that they are not comfortable with interacting in English in the classroom. When asked about the causes that generate discomfort while interacting in English, teachers and students expressed different opinions. 64.29% teachers and 66% students indentified low level of English proficiency (oral-aural) as the cause of discomfort; 53.57% teachers and 43% students detected 'shyness and phobia' as the cause of student' reluctance to interact in English in the class; 39.30% teachers and 10% students attribute the reasons to 'lack of practice'; and 7.14% teachers and 3% students attribute the reasons to 'lack of motivation'. Twelfth, the authors did not find any language lab, OHP, audio-visual teaching aids in the institution that they studied. Thirteenth, when the asked about the obstacles in implementing CLT in Bangladesh, a large number of principals (50%), teachers (50%) and students (55.45%) identified shortage of teacher as a problem. In addition, 81.81% principles, 85.71% teachers, and 61.82% students identified 'large class size' as problem. When asked about the solution to overcome the constraints of implementing CLT, 63.64% principals, 82.14% teachers and 61.82% students responded in favor of reducing class size. 81.81% principles, 67.86% teachers, and 55.45% students suggested to increase the number of English teachers.

When asked whether "Listening and speaking skill test should be included in public examination", 50% principals, 71.43% teachers, and 28.[18%] students answered positively.

The author recommends that ELT training should be arranged for teacher and language labs should be established in institutions. Besides, "grammar and translation could be included in consistence with Bangladesh situation" (p. 141).

5.4.18 In their article, "Communicative Language Teaching in Bangladesh: An Overview on the Problems, Misconceptions and Probable Suggestions", Nur-E-Nusrat Zereen and Imrana Islam (both are Lecturer, Department of English, Stamford University Bangladesh) [Zereen, & Islam, 2010] investigate Bangladeshi EFL teachers' perceptions about CLT.

The participants of this study encompass 39 EFL teachers of secondary and higher secondary level from institutions located in Dhaka city. The authors elicited data using a questionnaire which contains both closed-ended and open-ended questions.

In response to the question regarding the use of CLT in the classroom, 10.25% participants reported that they 'always' use CLT; 33.33% reported that they 'often' use CLT; 35.89% reported that they 'sometimes' use CLT; and 20.22% reported that they 'never' used CLT in their classroom. When asked about their perception of the definition of CLT, respondents emphasized on communication and meaning. Analysis of data indicates that teachers are well-informed about the principles of CLT. In particular, 89.74% teachers responded that 'CLT is student/learner-centered approach '; 94.87% reported that CLT stresses on communication in L2; 92.3% responded that 'CLT emphasizes fluency over accuracy'; 74.35% responded that 'CLT relies heavily [i.e. overemphasize] on speaking and listening skills'; 12.82% reported that 'CLT involves teaching speaking only'; 8% reported that 'CLT involves no grammar teaching'; 9% reported that 'CLT involves only group work

or pair work'; 56.41% teachers reported that 'CLT requires teachers to have a high proficiency in English'.

The authors asked teachers about the obstacles in implementing CLT in the context of Bangladesh. The authors categorized the obstacles into three sections: "teacher-related difficulties", "student-related difficulties", and "CLT-related difficulties". In response to the questions regarding teacher-related difficulties, 36 respondents identified teachers' lack of proficiency in spoken English as a challenge (ranging from 'major challenge' to 'mild challenge') in implementing CLT whereas 3 respondents did not identify this factor as a challenges; 38 respondents identified teachers' 'lack of knowledge about the appropriate use of language' as a challenge (ranging from 'major challenge' to 'challenge') whereas 1 respondent did not identify it as a challenge; 36 teachers identified lack of opportunities of receiving training as a challenge (ranging from 'major challenge' to 'mild challenge') whereas 3 respondents did not identify this issue as a challenge; 38 teachers reported that teachers do not get sufficient time to develop communicative materials and it is a challenge (ranging from 'major challenge' to 'mild challenge') in implementing CLT in Bangladesh; 1 respondent did not identify this factor as a challenge; 26 respondent reported that 'misconceptions about CLT' do not constitute challenge in the process of implementing CLT in Bangladesh. In response to questions about "students-related difficulties", all the participants identified students' lack of motivate as a challenge (ranging from 'major challenge' to 'challenge'); 38 participants identified 'students' preference for accuracy' over fluency as an obstacle (ranging from 'major challenge' to 'mild challenge') in implementing CLT in Bangladesh whereas 1 participant did not identify it as a challenge; all the participants identified 'students' tendency to be a silent listener' as an obstacle (ranging from 'major challenge' to 'mild challenge'). In response to questions about "CLT-related difficulties", 38 respondents reported that lack of administrative support is an obstacle

(ranging from 'major challenge' to 'mild challenge') whereas 1 respondent did not consider it

as a challenge; 38 respondents identified 'lack of authentic materials' as a challenge (ranging

from 'major challenge' to 'mild challenge') whereas 1 respondent did not identify it as a

challenge; all the respondents identified large class size and heavy workload of teachers as

obstacles (ranging from 'major challenge' to 'mild challenge') in implementing CLT in

Bangladesh.

Finally, the author recommends that teachers should be given the opportunities to

receive in-service training; teachers' workload should be reduced; and class sized should be

reduced.

5.5.0 English for Specific Purposes

5.5.1 In her expository essay, "The Role of Teachers in ESP" Shaila Shams [Shams, 2012]

defines the term ESP and discusses the role of teachers in ESP class. Citing Dudley-Evans

and St. John (1998), the author notes that the definition of ESP contains two categories,

namely, 'absolute category' and 'variable category'. The absolute category links ESP

(English for Specific Purposes) with learners needs, use of methodological principles of

academic disciplines and discourse/genres along with linguistic skills such as grammar, lexis

and register. On the other hand, variable category of ESP suggests that ESP is designed for a

specific discipline. The author documents the distinction between ESP Course and General

English Course: ESP course prepares students to use language skills in a particular academic

subject whereas General English Course tends to cover all branches of knowledge.

With regard to roles of ESP teachers, the author notes five types of responsibilities of

an ESP teacher based on the discussion of Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998). First, the

instructor of an ESP course is a facilitator. Second, ESP teachers design course and create

materials according to the specific needs of the students. Third, ESP teachers are researchers

since they are expected to remain updated about the development in the field of ESP. Fourth,

ESP teachers are collaborators with specialist of a particular academic discipline. Fifth, an

ESP teacher is an evaluator who assesses students' linguistic proficiency and effectiveness of

teaching materials.

Finally, the author suggests that an ESP teacher may not be a specialist of disciplines;

but she needs specialized knowledge (i.e. knowledge of values, epistemology and discourse

of a discipline) to handle students with specific needs.

5.5.2 In his article, "Teaching English in Our Business Schools: A Misled Arrow",

Muhammad Fazle Ramzan Khan (Lecturer, Department of English, ASA University

Bangladesh, Dhaka) [Khan, 2007] investigates appropriacy of syllabus, materials and

methodology used in foundation English course of undergraduate level. In particular, the

study aims to explore whether syllabus, classroom methodology and teaching materials serve

specific need of Business students of foundation English course.

In this study, 25 teachers and 100 students participated from 12 private universities.

The author used questionnaire survey method, interview method, and classroom observation

method for data elicitation.

Findings suggest that most of the teachers (92%) think that English courses are not

appropriate for the business students. Besides, 50% teachers report that the objective of the

course is to develop writing [general] skills of the students. 95% teachers think that materials

used in the classroom are not appropriate for the students. 80% teachers think that materials

are difficult for the students. 90 teachers believe that materials are not available for

conducting classes. Besides, teachers mainly focus on teaching reading, writing and

grammar. In addition, teachers prefer grammar-based syllabus and lecture-based

methodology. Apart from this, 88% teachers report that classroom tasks are difficult; 90%

report that topics and tasks are not enjoyable; 95% students think that tasks do not help them learn English; 90% think that the English course does not help improve speaking skills; 90% believe that the English course do not help learning in other business course; 80% students indicate that materials of the course are difficult; 95% students report that teachers do not engage them in group work on pain work. Findings of the classroom observation suggest that teachers give lectures (mainly) in the class and students tend to memorize linguistic items. In addition, classroom activities are not designed in accordance with students' needs. Further, learner autonomy and group work/pain work are not encouraged in the classroom.

To develop language courses for business students, the author makes the following recommendation. First, syllabus should be constructed according to the needs of the students. Second, teachers should use eclectic method in the classroom. Third, English course for business students should focus on writing business reports, business letters, memorandum, press release, advertisements etc. In teaching listening skills, business news of CNN and BBC recorded in CD or recorded talk of business conference may be used in the classroom. As reading materials teachers may use articles/reports from *The Economist* or from *The Financial Express.*

5.5.3 In the article, "Teaching Business English With Business Studies in Bangladesh: Initiating a Model Syllabus to Meet Challenges", Diana Ansarey (Lecturer, department of English, ASA University Bangladesh) [Ansarey, 2008] investigates needs of Business English and proposes a model for business English course.

In part I of the article, the author reports the findings of a survey among employers, teachers, and students to explore perceptions about Business English. The participants of this study include 20 business professionals from 4 corporate organizations, 25 teachers and 100 students of Business discipline from 6 universities (both public and private). As an

instrument of data elicitation, the author used structured questionnaire. The author used descriptive statistics to analyze data.

The analysis of survey among employers indicates that most of the employers are 'slightly satisfied' with the English proficiency of their employees. In particular, employers are 'slightly satisfied' with writing skills of fresh graduates. Besides, communicative skills and presentation skills are reported to be 'well' and 'moderate'. However, 43.48% employers think that graduates should improve their speaking skill. Besides, 93.33% think that universities should teach Business English with special focus on Business jargons.

Analysis of survey questionnaire administered on teachers indicates that most of the teachers are 'slightly satisfied' with their teaching method, students' quality, and students' fluency. However, most of the teachers reported that they need technological support in teaching English which they rarely receive from the authority.

Analysis of students' response reveals that students are 'slightly satisfied' with the English courses they are offered at university level. 71% student reported that undergraduate English courses do not help them in improving business writing and 69% students opined that there should be English course with specific focus on Business registers.

In part III of this article, the author proposes a syllabus of Business English. The syllabus focuses on four skills and covers 9 topics: socializing, career, describing company history, companies, management, managing people, communication at work, corporate social responsibility, and presentation. Further, the author stresses the need for authentic business publications (e.g. *The Financial Times*, *The Economist*) and Business English textbooks.

Finally the author recommends that both CLT and Task-Based learning may be synthesized in the classroom. Second, report writing, presentation, writing meeting minutes, negotiation should be emphasized in the Business English course. Third, teachers should be trained to teach Business English course. Fourth, one Business English course should be

introduced in the last semester because outgoing students are prospective employees of the corporate world and they are likely to be more motivated in the Business English course.

5.5.4 In his article, "Opportunities and Challenges in Teaching ESP in Private Universities of Bangladesh", ATM Sajedul Huq (Assistant Professor, Department of English and Humanities, University of Liberal Arts Bangladesh (ULAB), Dhaka) [Huq, 2010-2011] explicates significance of ESP courses in Bangladesh context.

The author points out that General English courses offered at private universities of Bangladesh cannot meet specific academic needs of the students. In addition, these courses ignore lessons on improving study skills though study skills are essential to manage academic reading and writing requirements.

The author investigates students' attitudes toward General English courses offered at private universities through a questionnaire survey. The participants of the survey encompass 50 students of 3 Private Universities of Bangladesh. In response to the first question whether they can utilize the skills acquired in [General] English course in their major disciplines, 80% students answered negatively. In response to the second question whether English courses should use content form their major discipline, 84% answered positively.

The author defines ESP as a concept which concentrates on developing academic and professional language skills of students. The author cites Strevens (1988) and Dudley-Evans (1997) who describe features of ESP. According to Strevens, ESP meets specific needs of the students and deals with themes, topics, and style of a particular discipline or occupation. According to Dudley-Evans, ESP course adopts methodological principles of relevant academic disciplines, and teaches grammar, lexis, register, study skills, and discourse of specific disciplines. The author notes five stages of designing ESP course: needs analysis, content analysis, determining ESP course: need analysis, content analysis, determining

category of ESP (i.e. EAP or EOP), [identifying immediate utility of the course according to learners' background], and designing syllabus and materials. In designing ESP course, there should be collaboration between ESP teacher and content/subject teacher.

Finally, the author suggests that government should recognize the significance of ESP course; consequently, as the author indicates, universities would offer ESP course and train faculty members who would teach these courses. Besides, English language courses should be offered according to the needs of the market.

5.5.5 In her article, "Methods and Practice in the EAP Classrooms at Dhaka University", Tazin Aziz Chaudhury (Assistant Professor, English Department, University of Dhaka) [Chaudhury, 2010] documents and analyzes pedagogic practices of EAP courses at Dhaka University.

The author observed 22 hours EAP classes of four faculties: Humanities (Philosophy, Linguistics), Science (Physics, Biochemistry, Psychology), Social Science (International Relations, Women and Gender studies) and Business Studies (Finance, Marketing). As an instrument of data collection, the author wrote field notes. In addition, observation checklist created by Alam and Begum (2005) and Khan (2000) (adapted) were used. In order to increase internal validity of class observation, two research associates were assigned to observe classes for 6 hours.

Findings of the study are as follows. First, in Business Faculty, EAP class of Finance discipline is "clear, orderly, well organized and moderately focused" (p. 23), and teacher and students speak in English in the class. The lesson of Marketing department of this faculty is "clear, orderly, organized and focused" (p. 23), and language of communication of teacher and students in the class is English. In addition, classroom practice of Marketing department include group presentation and peer feedback (on presentation). In Finance discipline, model

essays (e.g. narrative essay) are analyzed and practiced in the class. In Business Faculty, language teacher and subject teacher collaboratively teach EAP course.

In the Humanities Faculty, lesson of philosophy discipline "was quite clear, fairly orderly, organized and focused" (p. 24). In both the disciplines, teacher used only English in the class whereas students used both English and Bangla. In addition, students used a textbook. The lesson of Linguistics discipline "was quite clear, very orderly, organized and focused" (p. 24). Besides, a language teacher taught EAP course of philosophy discipline and a subject teacher taught EAP course in Linguistics discipline.

In the Science Faculty, lesson of Bio-chemistry "was not very orderly... moderately clear, organized, and fairly focused in purpose" (p. 25). In the Physics department, "lesson was moderately clear, reasonably orderly, rather organized and fairly focused" (p. 25). In the discipline of Psychology, "lesson was fairly clear, moderately orderly, somewhat organized and rather focused" (p.26). In all the three disciplines, teachers and students used both Bangla and English in the class. Besides, Bio-chemistry and physics department did not use any textbook whereas Psychology discipline used a grammar workbook. In the Science Faculty, EAP course was taught by a language teacher.

In Social Science Faculty, lesson of Women and Gender Studies "was quite clear, modernly orderly, well organized and focused". Lesson of International Relations "was moderately clear, quite orderly, fairly organized, and focused…and textbooks were used" (p. 26). Students and teacher of Women and Gender studies used both Bangla and English whereas students and teaches of International Relations used only English in the class. Besides, in all the disciplines, writing was the most frequent class activity; on the contrary, presentation and board work were the least frequent activities. In addition, most frequent teaching style involves question-answer, lecture, and group discussion.

The author points out that Business Studies faculty classes were "highly interactive" (p. 27) whereas Humanities Faculty classes were less interactive in comparison with Business Studies faculty. Science faculty classes "were not interactive" (p. 27). In the Social Science faculty, Women and Gender studies class was "highly interactive and lively" (p. 28) whereas International Relations class "was unmotivated and not interactive" (p. 28), because syllabus of the EAP course in International Relations was not challenging to the students.

The author mentions some approaches to teaching EAP course. For instance, 'integrated skill approach' [i.e. teaching four skills], 'reading-to-write' approach [i.e. imitating rhetorical structures of reading text in writing], 'Language Experience Approach' [Where learners select materials], 'process approach' to writing and 'Genre approach' to writing can be adopted. In addition, students should be taught note-taking skills and cooperative or group writing should be encouraged.

5.5.6 In his essay, "ESP in Medicine: Bangladesh Perspective", AKM Waliul Islam (Assistant Professor of English, IML, University of Dhaka) [Islam, 2000] evaluates an ESP program for medical students of Bangladesh introduced in 1993-94 academic session.

The author mentions that ESP course for 13 medical colleges and 1 dental college was introduced in 1993-94 academic session. The duration of the course was 50 hours (4 to 6 weeks). The program was supported (financially) by IDA of World bank. The author himself taught this ESP course. On the basis of his involvement with this ESP program the author evaluates effectiveness of the course. The author interviewed president of FRD, the agency responsible for implementation of the program. In addition, the author generated data through informal conversation with ESP teachers.

In his evaluation of the Course Book, the author remarks: "The very concept of ESP has been misunderstood while preparing the materials" (p. 95). The author points out that the

course book is (a) designed to practice drill and structure; (b) the materials of the course book do not contain humanistic components; (c) the course book ignored the needs of the students; (d) the units of the course book are inconsistent; and (e) the course book could not maintain thematic and stylistic coherence.

Apart from the course book , the author notes that since students simultaneously took ESP course and core medical courses, and since ESP was a non-credit course, students were not interested in the course and did not come to the class regularly. However, they took final exam and managed to pass easily. The author remarks: "This might mean that either the course was not interesting and challenging or the examination was too easy" (p. 97). With regard to teacher-factors, the author observes that there was a shortage of sufficient supply of teachers trained in ESP. With regard to institutional support, the author indicates that some medical colleges failed to provide logistic support (e.g. room). In addition, in some institutions medical faculty members were cordial to ESP teachers and in others ESP teachers "were not accepted easily" (p.98). The author points out that evaluation system in the course was subjective. The author suggests that since the Implementing Agency did not get sufficient time to introduce the course after the commencement of "work order", the course became ineffective [the agency did not get time for needs analysis, teacher training etc].

Finally, the author recommends that (a) the course book has to be preplanned in accordance with needs, interests and proficiency level of the students; (b) contents of the course book should be designed to develop communicative skills essential for medical students; (c) teachers should be trained to teach ESP; (d) ESP course should be transformed into a credit course and it should introduced before the commencement of core medical courses; and (e) survey and research should be conducted on ESP course.

5.5.7 In her article, "Theory and Practice of Language Teaching: Significance of Needs Analysis in ESP", Naureen Rahnuma (Lecturer, Department of English, Independent University, Bangladesh) [Rahnuma, 2008-09] describes the process of needs analysis in ESP, and proposes a course outline for airline professionals.

In her discussion on needs analysis, the author notes that needs analysis comprises two components: Target Situation Analysis (TSA) and Present Situation Analysis (PSA). TSA involves the analysis of situations that students would encounter in future whereas PSA means analysis of students' existing strengths and weaknesses. Another taxonomy of needs analysis makes reference to 'subjective needs analysis' and 'objective needs analysis'. Objectives needs can be determined by examining information about learners' national, cultural, familial, or academic identity and real life communicative events, and level of linguistic proficiency. On the other hand, subjective needs of the learners can be defined by examining information on learners' personality, confidence, expectations, attitudes, wants [lack] and learning strategies. The author notes that in order to conduct needs analysis, data can be elicited through questionnaires, interviews, participatory discussion, recording and observation of authentic target situation.

The author proposes a course outline to teach staffs of 'Air Asia' (Airfield English). The author notes that it is a 4-week course (4-hour per week) and the syllabus is designed synthesizing principles of notional-functional and structural syllabus. In the section entitled "Course plan", the author mentions 21 units: Unit 1—Greeting; Unit 2—vocabulary—airports; Unit 3—Air travel; Unit 4—Basic grammar; Unit 5—Giving advice/Expressing necessity; Unit 6- Giving instructions; Unit 7—Pronunciation, stress, and intonation; Unit 8—Word partners (collocations); Unit 9—Apologies, excuses, and thanks; Unit 10—Requests, invitations, and suggestions; Unit 11—special conventions in English ('cheers', 'bless you' etc.); Unit 12—Frequency and degrees/modifiers; Unit 13—Information

questions; Unit 14—Transport; Unit 15—Tourism; Unit 16—Discourse markers; Unit 17—

Heads and tails; Unit 18—Situational ellipsis; Unit 19—Inject interjections!; Unit 20—Fixed

expressions and linking words; Unit 21—Idioms and phrasal verbs.

The author documents some activities that can be used in this course. Activity-1 is

role-play representing a checking- in dialogue (e.g. "Speaker 1: Good morning. May I have

your ticket, please?/Speaker 2: There you go"). Activity-2 engages learners in listening to

airport announcements and filling in gaps using information on flight, departure time and gate

[no.]. Activity-4 engages students in solving a crossword puzzle. This activity is intended to

teach lexical items (e.g. "on a plane you can sit on window or [*aisle*] seats". Activity-6

involves students in circling correct words in a sentence (e.g. "A stamp in your passport

which allows you to travel to another country is called authorization/visa/papers"). Finally,

the author indicates that this course outline can used to teach other airline professionals such

as 'Biman' as well.

5.5.8 In his article, "Promoting Learner Autonomy on a University Course of English for

Academic Purposes: A BRAC University Case Study", Md. Golam Jamil (Lecturer, Centre

for Languages, BRAC University, Bangladesh) [Jamil, 2012] discusses 'learner autonomy' in

the context of an MEd program offered at BRAC University.

The author notes that BRAC University taught its first batch of Master of Education

(MEd) students under the Institute of Educational Development (IED) in the academic

session 2009/10. This program offered an EAP course with a duration of 66 contact hours.

66 contact hours of this EAP course was divided into three phases: First phase consisted of 24

hours; second phase: 24 hours, and third phase: 18 hours. The objective of this study was to

examine whether this EAP course can foster learner autonomy. The purpose of this EAP

course was to teach students writing academic assignments and papers. The author elicited

data through observation, questionnaire (closed ended) and interview [with 5 randomly selected students].

The author defines 'learner autonomy' as "the explicit and conscious behaviour of a learner in the learning or making use of the learning strategies" (p .47). In addition, citing Holec (1981), the author records that the concept 'learner autonomy' comprises two ideas: 'learner' is the center of a teaching learning context; and 'learner' is empowered [to take responsibilities of her own learning].

In the section entitled "Findings" the author presents data generated through observation, questionnaire survey and interview. Observatory data suggests that students managed to develop their own learning strategies as they were allowed to act independently. The author observes: "It was also seen that the provided autonomy sometimes isolated some learners from other interpersonal and social interactions such as group work, peer review or just taking help from a classmate to prepare a difficult assignment" (p. 48). Analysis of the questionnaire survey data reveals that: (a) 30% students "were entirely unfamiliar with the EAP course materials used in phase one and two"; (b) 45% students "were not familiar with some of the learning materials before attending the course"; (c) 25% "found the EAP contents always difficult and stressful to learn"; (d) 65% "helped their teacher in designing the course plan and materials"; (e) 75% students attained the capability of consulting books and internet to solve learning problems; (f) 60% developed the capacity to construct a checklist to edit their own academic papers; (g) 70% gained confidence in performing "other academic activities"; (h) 85% believes that EAP course is essential [beneficial] to perform academic activities in Master of Education program. Interview data suggests that students can find out materials to complete academic tasks. In addition, they can utilize print and electronic sources for academic purposes. However, the students suggested that teaching of grammar and pronunciation should be included in the course.

Finally, the author recommends that the first phase of any EAP course should be "lengthy and controlled". Learner autonomy should be allowed in other phases (which should be shorter [in comparison with the first phase]). Besides, regular interval between phases might be helpful.

5.5.9 In their essay, "ESP Courses for Literature: Exploring the Language-Based Approach", Rumana Siddique and Batool Sarwar [Siddique, & Sarwar, 2007] propose a model of language-based ESP Course.

The authors point out that language-based approach involves learners in actively constructing meaning of literary texts. The authors hold that language-based approach can develop both linguistic and literary competence of the students. The authors describe the goals, activities, and structure of their proposed ESP course. The authors note the following goals of the ESP course: improving reading skills, understanding figurative language, reinforcing the knowledge of grammatical structure, teaching writing formal academic essays etc. The authors record the following activities that would be used in the proposed course: reading (e.g. skimming; scanning, comprehension activities), writing (e.g. creative reformulating/extension of literacy texts, writing academe essays, summarizing etc), speaking (role play, debate on the themes of the literary texts), and grammar and vocabulary (i.e. contextualized teaching of grammar and vocabulary). The authors divide the course into three parts. Part I contains theme-based units. This part will introduce poems and extracts from novels/short stories. The objective of this part is to improve general language skills and vocabulary of the students. Part II is title as "Literary Concepts". This part would introduce students with literary term such as metaphor, simile, alliteration etc. Part III is titled as "Writing Skills". This part would concentrate on improving writing skills of the students. Precisely, students would follow process approach to writing, i.e. students would write draft

and receive feedback from tutors and peers. Students would be required to write five assignments on literary issues (addressed in part I and part II). The authors note that each part spreads over three months, i.e. the duration of the whole course is 9 month. In addition, the students would attend two classes per week (class duration: 1 hour). The authors indicate that the number of students in the class should not exceed 15.

5.6.0 Learning Strategy/Style

5.6.1 In his article, "Language Learning Strategies: A Study of Teacher and Learners Perceptions", Muhammad Fazle Ramzan Khan (Former Lecturer, English Language Center, Jazan University, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia) [Khan, 2012] investigates the categories of language learning strategies (LLS) used by non-native learners (NNL), and teachers' perceptions about the deployment of LLS.

In this survey study, the sample size was 150 (120 student participants and 30 teacher participants). The student respondents (beginner to advanced level) include both male and female non-native speakers (NNS) of English from six countries: Bangladesh, Egypt, Eritrea, Saudi Arabia, Yemen, and Turkish, with an age range of 17-28. On the contrary, teacher respondents encompass both native speakers (NS) and non-native speakers (NNS) of English who were teaching in Bangladesh and Saudi Arabia at university level from 12 countries: Algeria, America, Bangladesh, Canada, England, Egypt, France, India, Morocco, Saudi Arabia and Sudan. As the instrument of data collection, the author uses Licker Scale (1932) that contains responses ranging from never/almost never (score 1) to always/almost always (score 6) regarding the use of six language learning strategies explained by Oxford (1990). The six strategies are: cognitive strategy, metacognitive strategy, memory strategy, compensation strategy (e.g. guessing meaning), social strategy (e.g. receiving help from

others), and affective strategy. In the survey questionnaire, teachers and students were asked to identify mostly used and least used LLS.

The analysis of data reveals a contradiction between teachers' beliefs about strategy use and learners' [actual] use of strategy in their learning. According to students' rating, social strategy is the mostly used (rated: sixth) language learning strategy. Among other strategies, metacognitive strategy has been rated fifth, cognitive strategy: fourth, compensation strategy: third, affective strategy: second and memory strategy: first (least used). On the other hand, teachers indentified memory strategy as the mostly used strategy (rated: sixth). Besides, cognitive strategy has been rated fifth, metacognitive strategy: fourth, compensation strategy: third, social strategy: second and affective strategy: one (least used). Based on these findings, the author remarks that there is a difference between teachers' belief and learners practice with regard to the use of LLS.

Finally, the author recommends that teachers should help learners determine their learning strategies in synchrony with learning style and purpose of learning, and guide them to employ strategies in a disciplined way in learning English. In addition, classroom tasks should be designed to encourage use of different learning strategies.

5.6.2 In her study, "Language Learning Strategies Used by Bangladeshi Learners: An Investigation", Tania Tahmina (Lecturer, Independent University, Bangladesh) [Tahmina, 2007] deals with three research questions: (a) language learning strategies used by Bangladeshi learners; (b) language learning strategies used by high- proficient and low-proficient students; (c) the difference of the strategy use between male and female students.

As an instrument of data collection, the author employed Oxford's (1990) 50- item Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), version, 7.0. She used descriptive statistic

to analyze data. The participants of the study include 41 first year undergraduate students (30 males, 11 females) of Independent university, Bangladesh.

Analysis of data reveals the following order of strategy use: cognitive strategy, (highest), metacognitive strategy, compensation strategy, social strategy, memory strategy, affective strategy (lowest). Mean score of overall strategy use (3.06) indicates that frequency of strategy use among Bangladeshi learners medium.

A comparison between the mean of score of strategy use between high-proficiency and low-proficiency students indicates that the frequency of strategy use among high proficiency students is higher than that of low-proficiency students. Besides, comparison between mean score of male and female students suggests that male students use cognitive strategy, metacognitive strategy, compensation strategy, memory strategy and affective strategy more frequently than female students do. On the other hand, female students use social strategy more frequently than do male students. The author reasons that Bangladeshi students less frequently use affective strategy since they are "thinking-oriented" rather than "feeling-oriented". Female students scored lower in the frequency of strategy use because Bangladesh is a male dominated society and females are not assertive. Finally, the author recommends that strategy training should be incorporated in language lesson. In particular, low-proficiency students and female students of Bangladesh should explicitly be taught language learning strategies.

5.6.3 In her study, "Language Learning Strategies (LLS) of EFL Learners in Bangladesh", Shaila Sultana (Assistant Professor of English, IML) [Sultana, 2012] investigates LLS used by Better Language Learners (BLL) and Weaker Language Learners (WLL).

The participants of this study encompass 8 EFL learners of a private university located in Dhaka. The participants were chosen according to the following criteria:

participants A1, A2, A3 and A4 got 80% or above marks in a course, and are categorized as better language learners (BLL). On the other hand, participants B1, B2, B3 and B4 got less than 60% marks [in the same course] and they were retaking the course for the third time. These learners were categorized as Weaker Language Learners (WLL). The author used a modified version of Oxford's (1990) questionnaire on LLS. Part I of this questionnaire intends to elicit responses on background of the students and part II includes Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), version 7 (ESL/EFL).

Analysis of data indicates that family background (parents' academic background and occupation) is superior of BLL to WLL. Second, BLL completed their pre-university education in cosmopolitan cities whereas WLL completed their pre-university education from district towns. The analysis of data regarding use of LLS reveals that 54% BLL use memory strategies, 77% BLL use cognitive strategies, 56% BLL use compensation strategies, 53% BLL use metacognitive strategies, and 47% BLL use affective strategies. On the other hand, among WLL, 25% use memory strategies, 27% use cognitive strategies, 59% use compensation strategies, 48% use metacognitive strategies, and 0% use affective strategies. Besides, 34% BLL use social strategies whereas 22% WLL use social strategies.

The author suggests that EFL learners should be taught LLS [In response to the question about language learning experiences WLL and BLL students reported that they were not taught LLS at school and college level]. Second, syllabus and materials should encourage strategy use. Third, teachers and materials developers should be informed about the implication of LLS.

5.6.4 In his article, "Language Learning Style Preferences: Bangladeshi EFL Learners", Md. Jahurul Islam (Lecturer, Department of English, Jahangirnagar University) [Islam, 2011] investigates leaning styles of Bangladeshi EFL students.

The participants of this study include 256 undergraduate (both fresher and sophomore) students (148 males and 108 females) and 16 English teachers from 2 private universities and 2 public universities of Bangladesh. The author used Brindley (1984)'s and Riazi and Riasati (2007)'s questionnaire [both were adapted] on language learning preference to elicit data. The author administered Chi-square test to measure statistical significance.

In response to the question about preferred mode of learning, 33.20% students reported that they prefer to learn individually whereas 66.80% students answered that they prefer to work in groups or pairs to learn language. The author observes: "Conclusion can be made from the results of this item that learners seemed that to be in favor of a communicative approach to language learning by showing reluctance to working on their own. It seemed they felt more comfortable, productive, and relaxed by working in other ways, e.g. in pairs, or in groups where their voices would be heard, and views listened to and valued" (p. 65). In response to the same question (about students' mode of learning), 75% teachers opined that students prefer to learn individually whereas 25% teachers negated this proposition. In response to the question about preference of listening and note taking to learn language, 77.34% students reported that they like listening and note taking. In response to the question about preference of reading and note taking to learn language, 70.31% students answered positively. In response to the question about technique of learning new vocabulary, 62.5% students reported that they prefer to learn new words by using them in a sentence. The author observes: "This shows that learners preferred to learn the new vocabulary by making a sentence with them and using them in a context" (p. 66). In response to the question about avoidance of verbatim translation [into Bangla] to learn new vocabulary, 32.03% students reported that they avoid verbatim translation. Teachers were also asked whether students avoid verbatim translation. In response to this question, 31.25% teachers opined that students avoid verbatim translation whereas 68.75% teachers opined that students tend to learn "new

vocabulary through translation" (p. 67). In response to the question on their feedback preference, 66% students reported that they prefer "to be corrected later in private" (p. 68). The author remarks: "This shows that students were against immediate correction and preferred to be corrected later in private" (p. 68). In response to the question about use of media (i.e. television/video/films), 85.94% students reported that they like to learn English using these media. 75% teachers also opined that students prefer the use of media (i.e. television/video/films) in language learning. In response to the question on students' preference of learning about culture, 67.19% students reported that they prefer to learn about culture whereas 68.75% teachers believe that students are not interested in learning about culture. Besides, the author notes that students are not interested in "language games" [to learn language].

        The author draws the following conclusions on the basis of the findings of this study. First, students "did not like to remain passive in the classroom, but wished to participate actively in the classroom activities" (p. 70). Second, students prefer to learn new words by using them in context and through verbatim translation. The author writes: "Teachers wrongly thought that their students like to learn the new words through translation only" (p. 70). Finally, the author suggests that students should identify their own learning style. In addition, teachers may help students to find out their learning style.

5.6.5 In his article, "An Investigation on the Use of Metacognitive Language Learning Strategies by Bangladeshi Learners With Different Proficiency Levels", Pankaj Paul (Centre for language) [Paul, 2012] explores frequency of the use of metacognitive language learning strategy by low proficiency and high proficiency students.

        The participants of this study include 100 tertiary level students of BRAC university. Among these 100 students, 50 students were selected from a beginning level course and the

other 50 students were chosen from an advanced level course. The proficiency of the students was assessed by the Centre for Languages (CfL) of BRAC University [through placement test]. As an instrument of data elicitation, the author used Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) (a Likert-type questionnaire). The author used descriptive statistics to analyze data.

Analysis of data reveals that the mean of metacognitive strategy deployment by low proficiency students is 3.72 whereas the mean of metacognitive strategy use among high proficiency students is 3.5 (both the groups fall under the category of "high users" of metacognitive strategy). In particular, 64% low proficiency students fall under the category of 'high users' of metacognitive strategy and 36% falls under the category of 'moderate users' of metacognitive strategy. On the other hand, among the high proficiency students, 6% falls under the category of 'very high users'; 38% falls under the category of 'high users'; 54% falls under the category of 'moderate users'; and 2% falls under the category of 'low users' of metacognitive strategies. In the section entitled "Discussion", the author writes: "The findings of this study suggest low proficiency students use metacognitive strategies more frequently (M=3.72) than high proficiency learners (M=3.5)" (p. 51).

The author tries to provide an explanation of the strategy use by students of different proficiency level. The author claims that perhaps the low proficiency students are more motivated toward learning English and use more metacognitive strategies to improve English, because "if they do not pass the intensive language course successfully, they will not be allowed to study in this university [i.e. BRAC University] as regular students" (p. 51). On the other hand, perhaps, task ad activities that are used for advanced level students do not encourage the use of metacognitive strategy.

5.7.0 Listening

5.7.1 In their article, "The Importance of Listening in Second Language Acquisition: An Overview", Chowdhury Mohammad Ali (Professor, Department of English, University of Chittagong) and Durdana Matin (Assistant Professor, Department of English, University of Chittagong) [Ali & Matin, 2004] discuss significance, process and techniques of teaching listening in the classroom. The authors maintain that listening is the mostly used skills, and professional success is contingent on listening skills to a great extent. The authors detect some factors that might create difficulty in listening. Some of these factors are: speaking speed, pronunciation of the speaker, content, unfamiliar vocabulary etc.. Since Bangladeshi students do not get adequate exposure to English conversation, the authors make some suggestions for students to practice listening skills. For instance, students may get access to spoken English through English movies, radio, BBC and Voice of America.

With regard to teaching materials, the authors suggest that authentic materials such as "workplace training videos", "audio tapes of actual workplace exchanges", "TV and radio broadcast" may be used in the classroom. The authors note that artificial material or simplified texts may not be helpful in the class; therefore, texts should reflect the real characteristics of conversation such as hesitations, rephrasing, varieties of accents etc.. In short, teaching materials should be designed to teach listening skills rather than testing it, and materials should not increase memory load of the students. Besides, students should be taught listening strategies such as predicting, asking for clarification, and the use of non-verbal cues.

Finally, the authors document Lund's (1990) nine types of listening task: 1) 'doing' which means the use of TPR, (2) 'choosing' i.e. learners' freedom to choose from objects, texts or actions, (3) 'transferring' i.e. drawing map or chart based on oral instruction, (4) 'answering' questions about text ,(5) 'condensing' which involves note taking, (6)

'extending' which entails problem solving or continuing a story, (7) 'duplicating' which means repeating a message, (8) 'modeling' or imitating a conversation, (9) 'conversing' which means participating in a face-to-face conversation.

5.7.2 In their article, "Listening Practice in English Language Learning: Bangladesh Context", Mohammad Tanvir Kaisar and Mst. Shahanaz Khanam (authors are Senior Lecturer, department of English, Prime University) [Kaisar & Khanam, 2008] investigate pedagogy of listening in Bangladesh.

The author elicited data through class observation, informal discussion with students and teachers, and questionnaire survey administered on students of Prime University. In addition, the authors examine SSC and HSC textbooks to identify the emphasis placed on listening in the education system of Bangladesh.

Analysis of data indicates that 50% students listen to English news on radio/TV everyday for 10-50 minutes. In response to the question whether teachers lecture in English at university, students of English department answered positively whereas non-English major students reported that their teachers partially lecture in English. This apart, 30% students responded that their teachers at SSC and HSC level lectured in English. However, [100% students] reported that they did not practice any listening activities at SSC and HSC level, and they did not have any language laboratory. In response to the question whether they understand instruction in English, 10% reported that they completely understand English instructions whereas 50% reported that they partially understand English instructions. 40% students reported that they understand English pronunciation of foreigners. Besides, 100% students reported that they did not take any listening test at SSC, HSC or tertiary level.

In their analysis of English textbooks, the authors found that *English for Today* of class IV contains sufficient amount of listening activities. On the other hand, *English for*

Today of class X contains 20 lessons on listening out of 119 lessons and *English for Today* of class XI contains 23 lessons on listening out of 151 lessons—which are inadequate. Finally, the authors recommend that students can improve their listening skills through listening to cassette players and watching movies. In addition, educational institutes should establish language laboratory. Further, National Curriculum should include listening tests in public examinations.

5.7.3 In her article, *"Teaching 'Listening' as an 'English Language Skill'*, Mili Saha (Lecturer, Department of English, Jagannath University, Dhaka) [Saha, 2009] explores utility of teaching listening skills to ESL/EFL students.

The author conducted a survey in 2009 to identify the impact of teaching listening among 40 Fresh [undergraduate] students of Pharmacy, CSTE, ACCT, FIMS who had been practicing listening using audio and video files in language lab for three months. The author elicited data using questionnaire.

Findings of the study show that 30 students gained confidence and managed to eradicate fear, shyness, hesitations and inertia through practicing listening. Besides, 36 students reported that listening to dialogs and conversation improved their vocabulary skills; 10 students reported that intensive listening contributed to learning syntactic structures, spelling, accent and intonation; 19 students reported that listening texts on cultures and customs of English speaking people increased their motivation.

The author notes that listening can provide comprehensible input for language learning. In addition, listening improves speaking and writing skill as well. This apart, the author mentions five categories of listening (according to objective of receiving of auditory data): Attentive listening (e.g. music, listening to personal stories), extensive listening, intensive listening, selective listening (e.g. listening to a selected section of a text to predict

content of the whole text), and interactive listening. The author suggests that content of the listening text should be selected according to the level and socio-cultural background of the students. However, the author suggests that listening text "must be of a native speaker" (p. 203). Teachers may use video clips to involve students in listening practice. For instance, students may be asked to watch a video clip and to guess the dialog. Besides, students may be required to practice listening using internet websites.

Finally, the author recommends that students should be introduced with the speech of native speakers. Second, logistic support should be improved to effectively teach listening skill.

5.7.4 In her article, "Introducing Listening to Adult Learners—'The Fun Way'", Faria Tofail (Assistant professor, Department of English, East West University) [Tofail, 2011] explicates advantages and techniques of using songs in teaching listening skills.

The author points out the following advantages of using songs in teaching listening. First, since students of Bangladesh are familiar with English songs, listening to songs can be a relaxing and anxiety-free learning task for them. Second, use of songs in the class does not require costly logistic support. Third, learners can use both top-down and bottom-up strategies while listening to songs. Fourth, songs are authentic materials. Fifth, various genres of songs such as rap, blues or rock can be used to sensitize students about the existence of different dialects and accents. Sixth, group work, pair work or discussion can be arranged as a follow-up activity of listening to songs. Seventh, refrains used in songs may create awareness among students about redundancy in spoken language. Eighth, songs can be used in a large class.

The author mentions some activities that can be conducted in the class using songs. For instance, activities on songs can be divided into several phases. In the first phase,

students may silently listen to the song. In the second phase, students may listen to the song again and the teacher may check comprehension of the students by asking questions. In the third phase, the teacher may distribute lyrics in a handout and the whole class may sing the song while listening to it. Besides, follow-up activities on listening to song may include speaking and writing. Students may make presentation on the singer and write reflective report on the song. In addition, students may write compare-contrast essay on Bangla and English songs. Apart from that, activities on vocabulary may be integrated with listening activity by asking students to raise their hand while listening to key words of the lyric from a pre-distributed list. Further, students may be required to fill in the blanks while listening to the song.

The author makes some suggestions regarding selection of songs. According to the author, songs should be selected according to the proficiency level and tastes of the students. In the context of Bangladesh, English songs which have Bangla version (e.g. Anne's song) may be selected for comparative exercise.

5.7.5 In their article, "Developing Listening Skills for Tertiary Level Learners", Zerin Alam and Begum Shahnaz Sinha (both are Associate Professor, Department of English, University of Dhaka) [Alam & Sinha, 2009] propose some activities to develop listening skills of EFL students.

In terms of processing input, the authors explain three models of listening: bottom-up model, top-down model, and interactive model. Bottom-up model is concerned with identification of acoustic signal, words, phrases, clauses, sentence etc. to construct meaning; top-down model connects schema and context to build meaning of a listening text; and interactive model simultaneously uses top-down and bottom-up model to constitute meaning of a listening text.

The authors offer some activities to develop listening skill of the students. First, the authors describe a scanning activity using weather forecasts. As a pre-listening activity students can be given a list containing the following words: 'cold', 'cool', 'dry', 'drizzle', 'centigrade', 'farenhight', 'southeast', 'northwest' etc. Students may be asked to guess the meaning of the words, or teacher may explain the meaning of these words. As a while-listening activity, students may be asked to fill in the blanks using these words. Second, students may be taught skimming by using news reports. In the pre-listening phase, students may be engaged in reading a newspaper article, or they may be asked to read headlines of a newspaper. Thus, schema of the students may be developed in the pre-listening stage. Then, students may listen to a TV news or a radio news. In the post-listening activity, students may be asked to write the main points of the news. Third, as extensive listening activity, short story may be used. In particular, the teacher may read aloud a short story. In the post-listening phase, students may be required to summarize the story. Fourth, as an intensive listening activity, songs may be used as text. Students may be asked to focus on detailed information of the text. In this case, a listening text has to be played several times. In the post-listening phase, student may be asked to fill in the blanks or match columns. Fifth, to acquaint students with international speech (conversations that occur for social purposes, e.g. chat, greetings), teachers or students may read aloud dialogs/transcripts of dialogs. Sixth, teacher should discuss the use of discourse markers while teaching listing. The authors point out that there are two types of discourse markers: macro markers (e.g. topic markers, topic shifters, summarizes) and micro markers (i.e. intersentential connectors). Seventh, students may be taught to take notes using table or chart. In other words, students may be asked to create spider graph, mind maps, flow charts after listening a text as post-listening activities.

Finally, the author suggests that in the initial classes of a course, non-authentic text may be used in the context of Bangladesh. Authentic texts may be introduced toward the

middle of the course. Second, Short text should be used in the class. Third, the authors observe: "In order to move away from the test approach and provide a more enabling approach to listening we feel that teachers need to be considerate of and sympathetic to student needs and problems. We must remember that we are teaching them listening instead of assessing their listening ability" [p. 44].

5.7.6 In their article, "Listening Skills at Tertiary Level: A Reflection", Md. Minhajul Abedin (Lecturer in English, Stamford University Bangladesh), Saiful Hassan Khan Majlish (Lecturer in English, The people's University of Bangladesh), and Shorna Akter (Lecturer in English, Dhaka City College) [Abedin, Majlish, & Akter, 2009] explore the practice of teaching listening skill at tertiary level in Bangladesh.

The participants of this study include 300 students form 10 private universities and 26 teachers from 11 private universities of Bangladesh. The authors elicited data using questionnaire. However, in one open-ended question teachers were asked to make suggestions on teaching listening skill.

Analysis of student's questionnaire reveals the following condition of teaching-learning listening skills. In response to the first question, 75% students informed that their teachers use both Bangla and English in the classroom and 25% students responded that their teachers use only English in the classroom. In response to the second question, 60.33% students reported that they understand English lecture whereas 39.33% students responded that they 'sometimes' understand English lecture. In response to the third question students identified obstacles in understanding English lecture. In particular, 34.33% students reported that they cannot understand English lecture due to 'difficult content'; 21% cannot understand teachers' [English] pronunciation; 15% reported that their listening skill is poor; 29.66% students reported that all these factors (i.e. difficult content, teachers' pronunciation, and poor

listening skill) create problem in understanding English lecture. In response to the fourth question, 64% students reported they 'sometimes' understand native English (i.e. dialogs in movie, native English conversation, BBC/CNN news) whereas 36% reported that they 'fully' understand native English. In response to the fifth question, 100% students reported that it is necessary to practice listening skill. In response to the sixth question, 50% students reported that logistic support to practice listening skill is not 'adequate' in their university; 39.33% students reported that there is no logistic support in their university; and 32% students reported that they are 'satisfied' with the logistic support of their university.

The teachers were also asked questions about teaching listening skill. In response to the first question, all the teachers asserted that teaching of four skills should be equally emphasized. In response to the second question, 61.53% teachers reported that they use both English and Bangla in the classroom and 38.46% teachers reported that they use only English in the classroom. In response to the third question, 46.15% teachers reported that their students understand English lecture 'in most of the time'; 38.46% teachers reported that their students ask for explanation in Bangla; 15.38% teachers reported that their students 'always' understand English lecture. In response to the fourth question, 61.53% teachers reported that listening skill "is not directly included in the syllabus [p. 80]; 26.92% teachers reported that syllabus [of their universities] encompass listening skill; 11.53% teachers reported that "there is no option for listening development in their syllabus" [p. 80]. In response to the fifth question, 34.61% teachers reported that there is 'enough' logistic support [in their universities] to teach listening skill; the rest of the teachers reported that their universities do not have 'enough' logistic support to teach listening skill. In response to the sixth question, 96.15% teachers opined that special care is necessary to develop listening skill of the students; however, 3.84% teachers opine that listening skills would develop automatically.

Finally, the author recommends that listening class should be anxiety free. Second, tape recorder may be used to teach listening. Third, teachers may encourage students to listen to song, English news, sports commentary [in English] etc. Fourth, "in teaching listening, teachers should give maximum importance to the listening process and he/she shouldn't be too much rigid about the evaluation of the learners" [p. 84].

5.8.0 Writing

5.8.1 In their article, "Journal Writing: A Silent Kit for Improving Writing Skills", Samina Nasrin Chowdhury and Mohammad Aminul Islam (authors are Lecturer at Centre for Languages, BRAC University, Bangladesh) [Chowdhury & Islam, 2011] investigate the effectiveness of "dialogue journal" in improving writing skill. The authors define 'journal writing' as a task of documenting thoughts, understanding and explanations in a bound notebook. In addition, dialog journal is defined as a 'composition book' that involves learners in a personal written interaction with language teacher throughout a written semester/course over a long period of time.

In this study the authors analyze writing samples (i.e. dialogue journals) of sixty five primary school trainee teachers to systematically demonstrate that the practice of writing dialog journals contribute to improving writing skills, critical thinking skills, grammatical accuracy and confidence level. To generate necessary data, students were guided to write on such topics as memory, food habit, culture and festival etc. through some questions. Apart from content analysis, the authors conducted a post-study questionnaire survey that required participants to reflect on their experience of writing dialogue journal.

Findings of the study indicate that students gradually gained accuracy as they wrote journals. The authors argue that journal writing created grammatical awareness among students. This observation is supported by the post-study survey in which 87% participants

claimed about improvement in grammatical accuracy. Besides, the authors mention that initially students were reluctant to write journal; but at the end of the course all the students (100%) reported that journal writing improved their writing skill. The authors claim that journal writing improved critical thinking ability of the trainees as well. To substantiate this point, the authors record an extract of a female student's writing in which she complained about the gender inequality of the society. In addition, the authors argue that journal writing improved confidence of the students which is evident in the comparatively longer and better organized writings that they produced towards the end of the course.

Finally, the authors point out some obstacles in introducing dialogue journals in English class. First, reviewing journals is time-consuming for teachers. Second, learners may copy from each other. However, this problem, as the authors note, can be overcome through assigning different topics to individual students.

5.8.2 In his essay, "The Development of L2 Writing Expertise: The Teacher as a Facilitator of Qualitative Changes in the EFL/ESL Classroom", Monjurul Alam (Assistant Professor, Institute of Modern languages, University of Chittagong) [Alam, 2007] discusses some problems in students' approach to writing and suggests some techniques to improve writing skills of the students

Citing Victori (1999, An analysis of writing knowledge in EFL composing: A case study of two effective and two less effective writers, *System, 29*, pp. 537-555), the author notes that difficulties of L2 writers can be classified in three categories: first, problems about 'person knowledge' which refers to motivational and identify related problems; second, 'task knowledge' which means problems about purpose and audience; third, 'strategy knowledge' which relates to problem about planning and organizing ideas, evaluation and resources.

The author suggests five techniques to improve L2 writing of students. First, before starting any writing activity, there should be a 'motivation session' (p. 148) to create problem- solving attitude in students. Further, teachers need to discuss topic, audience, and purpose of writing. Second, writing task should be conceptualized as a 'knowledge transforming' (p.149) (i.e. analysis, planning, organizing etc) (p.146) rather than a 'knowledge telling' (p.149) (i.e. retrieving information from memory). In addition, students should follow process approach to writing which involves reflective thinking, studying samples, planning etc. Third, students may adopt the technique of 'text modeling' (p.149) which means following and analyzing rhetorical structures of reputed writers, and 'cognitive modeling' (p.149) which means imitating the thought process (e.g. planning and revision) of expert writers. Fourth, there may be three types of feedback on students' writing: 'connective feedback' in which teachers detects students' mistakes'/ 'errors'. Teachers-student conference in which teachers talk to students and provide feedback on individual problems; 'peer feedback' in which students get feedback from their peers who play the role of audience. Fifth, teachers need to explicitly teach revision as a global process [modifying concepts, ideas etc.] rather than 'surface level revisions' on editing sentences. Besides, the author recommends that teachers should engage students in authentic tasks such as writing research papers, reports etc. by following whole language approach. In addition, Vygotsky's concept of 'scaffolding' and 'zone of proximal development' can be used in writing classroom by focusing on specific problems of students with different levels of proficiency. The author argues that principles of SLA theory, cognitive psychology and process theory may be applied in teaching writing. SLA theory's concept of 'comprehensible input' indicates that students need to be exposed to comprehensible input in the writing classroom; principles of cognitive theory indicate that repeated practice of writing in the classroom may help students internalize linguistic input; and, process theory of writing offers ideas about

planning, problems-solving, revising, feedback, knowledge-transforming [e.g. analysis, synthesis] in writing.

5.8.3 In their survey, "Feedback in EFL Writing at Tertiary Level: Teachers' and Learners' Perceptions", Md. Moniruz Zaman (Assistant Professor, Department of English, ASA University Bangladesh) and Md. Abul Kalam Azad (Senior Lecturer, Department of English, ASA University Bangladesh) [Zaman & Azad, 2012] explore perceptions of teachers and students about feedback on writing.

The participants of this study include 12 English teachers and 120 students (BA in English and BBA) of a private University in Bangladesh. As an instrument of data collection, the authors used structured questionnaire. However, there was one open-ended question for the teachers. The questionnaire was constructed using the model of five-point Likert scale.

Findings reveal that 83.33% teachers and 90.83% students think that corrective feedback is useful; second, 66.67% teachers believe that feedback on content appears vague to learners and 72.50% students prefer connective feedback on grammar rather than on ideas and organization. Third, 46.33% students report that they prefer to get feedback from their peers whereas 42.50% students report that they cannot trust on the feedback provided by their pears. On the other hand, 58.33% teachers believe that learners are not capable of giving peer feedback. Fourth, 75% teachers and 84.16% learners prefer direct feedback [where connect answers have been provided]. Fifth, 60.83% learners report that they cannot correct their own writing whereas 75% teachers think that learners do not have the proficiency to correct their own writing. Sixth, 91.67% teachers believe that negative feedback do not frustrate students whereas 35% learners report that negative comments frustrate then. In addition, all the teachers (100%) think that there should be a combination of negative and

positive comments. Seventh, 86.67% students and 100% teachers opine that conference on errors help improve writing skills. 58.33% teachers think that mid-draft feedback inhibits flow of writing whereas only 20% students think that mid-draft feedback has a negative impact. Finally, in the interview the teachers mention that process or practice of feedback generally impaired by time constraint, teachers' heavy workload, large class size, lack of motivation of students, and mixed-ability class.

The author recommends that feedback technique should be selected according to the perception of the students about the usefulness of feedback. Therefore, the process of feedback would be distinctive in accordance with the need of the context.

5.8.4 In their article, "Teaching Composition: Approach and Experience", Tasik Mumin (Lecturer in English, Stamford University Bangladesh) and Mohammad Azizul Haque (Lecture, Dept. of English, Stamford university Bangladesh) [Mumin & Haque, 2006] compare the effectiveness of using literary texts and everyday English materials (e.g. newspapers, magazines etc.) in teaching composition.

The participants of this study were 225 fresh students of BBA, EEE and CSE. Among the participants, some students completed Foundation English course and some others did not attend the course. The authors assessed students to summarize eight literary texts and some non-literary texts takes from newspaper, magazine or textbook. Students were also assigned to write on such topics as traffic jam in Dhaka city, power-shortage etc. The analysis of students' marks obtained in reading and writing indicates that students obtained better marks on the assignment of everyday English in comparison with literary text. In reading comprehension , 16 students obtained "excellent" marks, 93 got "above average" marks and 75 obtained "average" marks on literary exercise whereas 42 obtained "excellent" score, 98 achieved "above average" and 54 scored "average" on everyday English exercises.

In writing assignment, 33 students obtained "excellent" grade, 88 scored "above average",
and 64 attained "average" marks on literary exercises whereas 49 students achieved
"excellent" grade, 100 scored "above average" and 45 got "average" marks in everyday
English writing. The author indicates that performance of students who attended
Fundamental English course were better than that of the fresh students. In the interview (the
author interviewed 35 students), students reported that they their knowledge of vocabulary is
poor.

Finally, the author suggests that literary texts may be useful only for above average students.
Second, in a composition class students should be taught techniques of paragraph writings
rather than grammatical items. Third, students should take a few Basic English courses
before attending a composition course.

5.8.5 In her article, "Feedback in Writing: Problems and Solutions", Sabina Mohsin
(Lecturer, Stamford University Bangladesh) [Mohsin, 2007] discusses techniques of
providing feedback on students' writing. In addition, she analyzes the result of a survey
study that she conducted among university teachers to elicit data about their practice of
providing feedback. She collected data through interview and classroom observation.
Besides, she analyzed contents of students' writing.

In the interview, 10% teachers reported that they provide feedback on first draft of
students whereas 90% teachers reported that they write comment and assign grade on the
final draft of the students. In her analysis of 25 drafts, the author found that most of the
teachers (72%) are inclined to provide feedback on grammatical errors. However, 1 teacher
gave feedback only on content due to the demand of the testing system. The author notes that
technique of providing feedback of the teachers is unsystematic because they simply
underline the errors, but does not provide any explanation to allow students to correct those

errors. Another faulty method of giving feedback is correcting students' mistakes because it does not help students in identifying and correcting their mistakes.

The author notes that there are two types of errors: Global (which affects communication) and local (which does not affect communication). Local errors can be categorized into two groups: 'Slips' and 'errors'. Slips (e.g. verb form, subject-verb agreement, articles, number, gender etc.) can be corrected by the students; therefore, teachers may avoid emphasizing on this type of mistake/slips. The analysis of students' scripts suggests that most of the teachers (68%) [17 teachers out of 25] displayed a tendency to correct slips. On the other hand, "errors" refer to wrong syntax, fragment, run- on sentences etc. Teachers should identify this type of errors and help students correct them. Apart from local errors, global errors impair communication, and readers fail to understand the message contained in writing. The author notes that teachers should make comments on this type of writing (e.g. 'How this point is related', 'tell me more about this' etc.). In addition, feedback should depend on the goal of a writing task. For instance, teachers may provide feedback on tense errors on an assignment of narrative paragraph if the purpose is to teach tense.

5.8.6 In her essay, "Approaches to Teaching Writing in Higher Education: An Enquiry From the Applied Linguistics Point of View", Mehjabeen Rahman (Assistant Professor, Dept. of English, Stamford University Bangladesh) [Rahman, 2009-10] surveys and critiques existing approaches to teaching writing in the discourse of ELT.

The first strategy to teaching writing is 'rhetoric approach'. This approach teaches the following categories of writing: (a) exemplification (i.e. writing persuasive essay using facts, details, statistics etc.), (b) process writing (e.g. instruction manual), (c) cause and effect, (d) comparison and contrast, (e) definition, (f) classification, (g) narration, (h) argumentation. A second approach to teaching writing is 'modeling transfer' or 'paragraph pattern approach'.

In this approach, students are made to imitate a particular pattern of paragraph. A third approach is 'free-writing' in which students keep on writing to express themselves without paying attention to grammar or syntax. A fourth strategy is 'grammar-syntax-organization approach' in which teachers concentrate on accuracy of syntax, grammar, content, organization, vocabulary etc. A fifth approach is 'process approach'—which emphasizes on multi-drafting, peer correction, brainstorming etc. A sixth approach is 'controlled-to-free approach' where students are initially taught composition, combination or conversion of sentences, and gradually students are guided to move towards fee-writing practice. The author remarks that all these approaches originated from 'Aristotelian Rhetoric Principles' which refers to the art of persuasion.

In the review of the conventional approaches to teaching writing the author notes that 'modeling-transfer' approach might inspire students to plagiarize ; 'free-writing approach' does not have any purpose, i.e. it is aimless; 'controlled-to-free approach' is top-down and teacher-centered. In short, approaches of ELT discipline do not enhance critical and creative thinking skills. The author indicates that techniques of all these approaches may be used in the classroom (according to the needs of the students) to improve writing. In addition, more research should be conducted on teaching writing skills.

5.8.7 In her study, "English Proficiency: Improving Under the Heading of Paraphrasing", Nazia Shah (Lecturer at Isra University, Pakistan) [Shah, 2009-10] investigates the usefulness of paraphrasing in improving four skills.

The participants of this study include 44 students from Isra University, Pakistan. The author generated data using a structured questionnaire and administering pre and post proficiency test. The objective of the questionnaire survey was to explore students'

perceptions about English language learning whereas the purpose of pre and post proficiency test was to identify effect of paraphrasing in improving four skills.

Analysis of data suggests that there is a significant difference between students' perception before teaching paraphrasing and after teaching paraphrasing. For instance, in the pre-teaching paraphrasing phase, 88.63% students reported that they translate every question into native language to find the correct answer in English. In post-paraphrase teaching phase, this percentage decreased to 13.63%. When asked whether any teaching technique can contribute to improving their vocabulary skills. Only 9.09% student where found optimistic about vocabulary learning in pre-paraphrase teaching stage. This rate increased to 97.72 in post-paraphrase teaching phase. Student were also asked whether they considered themselves efficient writer. In the pre-paraphrase teaching stage, only 13.63% students answered positively which increased to 90.90% in the post-paraphrase teaching phase.

The author conducted a proficiency test (in March 2009) in four skills before teaching paraphrase. The mean score of this pre-test was 37.36. The students were taught paraphrasing for five weeks (3 hours per week). The mean score of post-proficiency test (i.e. test after teaching paraphrasing) was 78.18. The author claims that the score in pre and post proficiency test indicates that the practice of paraphrasing improves student's proficiency. Besides, in response to an open-ended question, students opined that new technique of teaching English should be introduced in the class [in reaction to GTM]. Finally, the author recommends that student should be involved in paraphrasing. In addition, class should be learner-centered.

5.8.8 In her study, "Aapplication of Peer Editing Method in English Composition Class: A Positive Outcome", Farhana Ferdouse (Senior Lecturer, Department of English, Stamford

University Bangladesh) [Ferdouse, 2011] explores the usefulness of peer editing in teaching writing skills.

In this study, 18 students of 'English Composition' course in Stamford University Bangladesh participated (in summer 2009). The instructor of the course formed 3 mixed ability groups on the basis of students' performance in a diagnostic test. The students were engaged in writing a composition and were required to give feedback to each other. The students were given a checklist to record comments and mistakes of their peers (the terms 'error' and 'mistake' appear to be used synonymously in this article). The process of providing peer feedback involved there stages: in the first stage, students wrote a first draft of their composition and received feedback from their group members and revised their writing which led to a second draft; in the second stage, the instructor read the second draft and provided feedback; in the third stage, students revised their second draft and created a third draft.

The analysis of data of 6 scripts [6 students, Group -1) indicates improvement in students' writing and their capacity in providing peer feedback. Particularly in the first paragraph of the first draft, peer editors detected 88 grammatical errors out of 118. They themselves corrected 56 mistakes (25 by their own and 31 by taking support from the instructor). In the second paragraph of the first draft, the students (i.e. peers) identified 55 mistakes out of 66. In this case, students corrected 46 mistakes (31 by their own and 15 with the support of the teacher). In the third paragraph of the first draft, students located 27 errors out of 31. The students corrected 26 errors (20 by their own and 6 with support from the teacher). These data indicates that students' writing skills and peer-editing ability gradually improved. Apart from this, the author also conducted a survey towards the end of the course to reveal students' attitude towards peer feedback. The survey study reveals a positive

attitude of students towards peer-feedback. Finally, the author suggests that peer feedback might be helpful in raising consciousness about grammatical or mechanical mistakes.

5.8.9 In her article, "Learning From Mistakes: Using Correction Code to Improve Students' Writing Skill in English Composition Class", Farhana Ferdouse (Senior Lecturer, Department of English, Stamford University Bangladesh) [Ferdouse, 2012] investigates the effectives of using correction symbols as feedback on students' writing.

The participants of this study include two batches (41 A and 41 B) of BBA students of Stamford University Bangladesh enrolled in "English Composition" course in summer 2011. The author generated two groups (Groups A and Group B; each group consists of 10 members) from the two batches on the basis of their marks (nearly equal) on midterm exam.

The author introduced correction symbols to students of Group A throughout three sessions. In the first session, the researcher explained correction symbols to the students of Group A. In the second session, the author demonstrated the process of revising writing using correction symbols. In the third session, the author engaged students in correcting writing from a practice sheet. Finally, the author assigned students of Group A and Group B to write three types of paragraph. The author returned the scripts of Group A after putting correction symbols. On the other hand, she just underlined the mistakes on the scripts of Group B. The students were asked to revise their writing using correction symbols.

Analysis of students' script suggests that in case of first draft of first paragraph, Group A corrected 66.11% errors whereas Group B corrected 33.33% errors; in case of the first draft of the second paragraph, Group A corrected 78.75% errors whereas Group B corrected 40.81% errors; in case of the first draft of third paragraph, Group A corrected 86% errors whereas Group B corrected 62.65% errors. These data suggest that use of correction symbols was effective for Group A. The author conducted a questionnaire survey to

indentify students' (Group A) attitude towards coded feedback. Analysis of survey data indicates that 80% students prefer coded feedback and 85% students like to correct their own mistakes. Data elicited through free discussion and interview suggests that coded feedback improves writing skills, develops learner autonomy, and increases motivation of the students. Finally, the author suggests that teachers should pre-teacher grammatical items on which coded feedback is provided; teachers should involve students in correcting errors in the class using editing checklist and explain the process when necessary; teachers may provide practice sheet. Besides, teacher-students conference may be useful in communicating techniques of errors connection using codes to students.

5.8.10 In the article, "ESL Students' Reflective 'Burning Experiences' at a Writing Workshop", Adcharawan Buripakdi (English Program, School of Liberal Arts, Walailak University, Nakornsrithammarat, Thailand) [Buripakdi, 2011] describes [the author's] experience of attending a workshop at a university of United States as part of a graduate course.

In the section entitled "Teacher's roles in the writing workshop", the author notes that the teacher works as a facilitator in writing workshop. In addition, the teacher views her students as writers. Further, the teacher makes comments on students' writing from the perspective of an editor and writer. In the section entitled "Students' reflections on the "burning experiences"", the author documents remarks of some students who attended the workshop. For instance, Angela, a participant of the workshop, learned about the significance of providing positive feedback on peers' writing. Nicky, another student, enjoyed writing poetry in the workshop where she succeeded in expressing her emotion and lived experience. Thus, the workshop encouraged self-expression and subjective experience. In the workshop, the author wrote memoires of [the author's] childhood. The characteristic

of the workshop was flexible and democratic. In particular, students were allowed to select topic according to their own choice. Besides, the workshop dealt with creative writing and personal writing genre which allowed students to transform their experience into essay and to constitute their own identities. The author wrote autobiography and discovered that writing heals [wounds]. This apart, the author documents that Rachael, a participant of the workshop, remarked that writing workshop allows writers to explore their own values, attitudes, beliefs and voice. Philip, another student, commented that writing workshop is a space where students collaborate and generate ideas, and "construct their identity through language, which can be a liberating experience" (p.68). Diana, another participant, remarked that she experienced the joy of ownership [authorship] as she wrote her book in the workshop. The author concludes that the experience of writing in the workshop created high self-esteem in the students and removed "I can't write" syndrome.

5.8.11 In his essay, "The Place of Grammar in EFL Composition Classes", Ahmed Bashir (Lecturer, Department of English, University of Dhaka) [Bashir, 2005-2006] discusses significance of teaching grammar in writing class in the context of Bangladesh.

The author documents place of grammar in 'process approach' and 'product approach' of writing. In the process approach to writing, teaching of grammar receives peripheral attention. In other words, process approach is concerned about creation of ideas and the maintenance of the flow of writing. The author points out that books on process approach to [teaching] writing ignore teaching grammar; they deal with grammar in the post-writing process section. On the other hand, in the product approach to teaching writing, teaching of grammar receives central attention. In this approach, students are taught grammatical rules and correct sentence structure as part of teaching writing. In addition, students are instructed to imitate model compositions to reduce [grammatical] error in

writing. Besides, the author refers to Tribble (1996) who suggests a synthesis of process and product approach in teaching writing.

The author argues that grammar should be taught in the composition class of Bangladesh for the following reasons. First, students tend to identify grammar as their major problems in writing. In an unsystematic and randomly conducted survey among approximately 100 undergraduate and 50 graduate students of public and private universities [of Bangladesh], the author found that 80% undergraduate and 65% graduate students listed grammar as their major problem. Second, in the educational culture of Bangladesh, students are interested in learning grammar. Thus, considering needs of students grammar can be taught in Bangladeshi writing classroom. Apart from this, the author documents debate concerning benefits of grammar teaching in language learning. For instance, Ellis (1990) and Fotos (1993) indicate positive impact of teaching grammar whereas Polio, Fleck and Leder (1998) did not find any positive effect of grammar instruction and corrective feedback in improving writing skill.

The author recommends that grammar should be taught in a contextualized way. Second, students can be engaged in free-writing activity. Third, teachers should provide feedback on major [global] grammatical errors and ignore minor [local] errors.

5.8.12 In her article, "The Role of Feedback in Teaching Process Writing: From Theoretical Considerations to Practical Implementation", Batool Sarwar (Assistant Professor, Department of English, University of Dhaka) [Sarwar, 2010] discusses techniques of providing feedback on writing and impact of some feedback strategies on students' writing.

The author mentions the following feedback strategies: written comment, error correction, conferencing, peer feedback and grading. In particular, written comment is a form of feedback in which teachers make informative, evaluative and supportive remarks on

students' writing or drafts. Error correction can take the form of indicating an error using symbols. Conferencing involves discussion on writing problems between teacher and individual student or whole class. Peer feedback is a process where students respond to the writings of their classmates. Grading is a process of providing feedback which summarizes students' linguistic proficiency.

In a course entitled "Advanced Reading and writing strategies" (E-201) offered to undergraduate (sophomore) English-major students of Dhaka University, the author (instructor) observes impact of some feedback strategies. First, the author made written comments (e.g. good point, abrupt, wo: word order, T: tense mistake, ww: wrong word used) on students' writing during teacher-individual student conference. After receiving feedback, the students were required to re-write their essay. Second, the author engaged students in a group writing project (4 groups; each group consisting of 5 students). The essays produced by the students every fortnight were distributed to the whole class. In the first phase, both the instructor and students wrote short comment on the assignments. In the second phase, the author and the students developed an evaluation criteria (e.g. organizational structure, grammatical accuracy, content etc.) through a collaborative discussion.

The author claims that the feedback strategies that she incorporated in the course contributed to improve students' writing skill and motivation. Group members were cooperative and helpful. Besides, discussion on texts produced by the students "worked much better [than]…using model texts from a book" (p.7). In addition, students' participation in the development of evaluation criteria led to a transparent assessment process.

The author suggests that feedback sheets should be distributed to students so that they can revise their drafts according to the guideline of feedback sheets. Second, students should

be provided opportunity to write extensively and get feedback in the class. Third, curriculum should recognize the significance of process approach to writing.

5.8.13 In his article, "English as Second Language (L2) Academic Writing: Exploring its Nature, Processes and Approaches to Errors", Khaled Karim (Lecturer, Department of English, North South University) [Karim, 2007-2011] discusses approaches to teaching writing, and feedback on errors in writing.

In the section entitled "Nature of L2 writing", the author points out that there are similarities and differences between the process of L1 and L2 writing. Citing Silva [1993], the author notes that process of writing [planning, drafting etc.] are similar in L1 and L2, writers of L2 tend to revise, reread and reflect less on their writing. In the section entitled "L2 academic writing", the author suggests that students of L2 need linguistic proficiency, knowledge of writing strategies, capacity of logical thanking to write in a second language. Citing Kutz, Groden and Zamel [1993] the author indicates that rhetorical and cultural convention of L2 writing might create difficulty for ESL learners. In the section entitled "Models of L1 and L2 writing", the author mentions Flower et. al.'s socio-cognitive model of writing. Flower et. al.'s argument is that students encounter difficulty in learning writing conventions of a particular academic discourse community. Myles's [2002] discussion of writing model (based on Bereiter and Scardamalia's [1987] model contains two components: knowledge-telling model in which writers recall from memory and write; and knowledge-transforming model in which writers engage themselves in problem-solving, goal setting and analysis. In the section entitled "Implications of process model for L2 classes", the author, citing Kern [2000], notes that socio-cognitive model of writing ignores cross-cultural distinction in writing. In the section entitled "Error in L2 academic writing", the author records that errors may be the consequence of sociological factors (e.g. negative attitudes

toward L2 language and culture), lack of integrative and instrumental motivation. In addition, the author points out that language transfer (both positive and negative) explains errors in 22 writing. Further, overgeneralization, inadequate knowledge of L2 usage may cause errors.

In the section entitled "Implications", the author indicates that feedback on both grammar and content may improve writing of students. Second, students should be introduced with standard samples of writing and different types of genres. Third, students can be involved in analyzing models of texts. Fourth, students can be given diagnostic feedback.

In the "Conclusion" section, the author suggests that teachers should try to develop students' linguistic skills and writing strategy. In addition, the author believes that writing teachers should be informed about the writing process of learners in both L1 and L2.

5.8.14 In her study, "Influence of Composition of Classroom Population on Language Learning by Immigrants", Dil Afroze Quader (Associate Professor, English, Institute of Modern Languages, Dhaka University) [Quader, 1995] investigates language learning outcome of Bangladeshi immigrant students in London in ethnically homogenous and heterogamous classroom setting.

In this research, the author selected two classroom settings: Homogenous setting which consists of 98% Bangladeshi students and mixed setting which contains 45% Bangladeshi students and 55% students with English and other languages as their L1. The author collected data through observation of English, Science and Humanities classes (fourth form of secondary level) of from 4 school over one academic year. Apart from class observation, the author used audio recorder, video recorder, and pre and post language test as instruments for data collection.

Analysis of data indicates that (a) amount of language is greater in homogenous setting in companion with heterogeneous setting; (b) homogenous group used higher percentage of English whereas heterogeneous group used higher percentage of Bengali [in the classroom] ; (c) analysis of pretest and posttest scores suggests that lower scorers of homogenous group improved their linguistic proficiency whereas higher scorers [in pretest] of heterogeneous group made progress and lower scorers [in pretest] of this group could not improve; (d) homogenous group showed improvement in speaking skill whereas heterogeneous group displayed improvement in listening skills; (e) both the groups showed similar level of improvement in reading and writing skills; and (f) mixed group managed to improve sociolinguistic competence. However, it is to note that all the students of homogenous group managed to improve their linguistic proficiency.

In her interpretation [the author hedges in her reasoning] of the findings, the author relates results of her research to [pedagogic factors, sociolinguistic factor, and psycholinguistic factor]. In pedagogic factor, the author points out that homogenous setting provided more opportunities for student interaction in comparison with heterogeneous setting. The number of ESL teachers in heterogeneous setting was higher in comparison with homogeneous setting—which ensured high quality of input [for multiethnic students] that contributed to the improvement of high proficiency students (i.e. higher scorers in pre-test). On the other hand, since there was no native speaker in the homogenous group, exposure to high quality input was limited. Therefore, high proficiency students of homogenous group could not manage to make noticeable improvement. In psycholinguistic factors, shyness of less proficient students appeared to become an obstacle in developing proficiency. The author identified 'convergence' as a socio-psychological factor that contributed to the development of proficiency of high proficiency students in mixed setting. The high proficiency students might have desired to attain native-live proficiency whereas the less

proficient students of this group might have diverged and used more Bangla [within their group]. On the other hand, in the homogenous group, there was no question of convergence or divergence and they used English among themselves without any inhibition. The high quantity of interaction in English among homogenous group might have led to improvement of speaking skills. Besides, mixed setting students could improve sociolinguistic competence better in comparison with homogenous group due to their exposure to multiethnic community or, due "to more socially accurate language input in the mixed group" (p. 17). The author concludes that "for improvement to lower level of proficiency by all students the *quantity* of interaction seems to be important. But for more target-like proficiency the *quality* of interaction is more important" (p. 17).

The author draws the following pedagogic implications of this research for Bangladeshi English language classroom: (a) time of interaction between students in the class should be increased; (b) tasks should be designed to encourage group work; and (c) teachers should assume the role of a supervisor in the class.

5.8.15 In her article, "Approaches to Teaching Writing", Shaila Sultana (Assistant Professor, Institute of Modern Languages, University of Dhaka) [Sultana, 2007-2008] discusses four approaches to teaching writing: product approach, process approach, genre approach, and process genre approach.

The author points out that product approach is an outcome of structural and behaviorist learning theories. In this approach, students are engaged in grammar exercise, sentence formulation or transformation of sentence. This approach involves four stages: Familiarization stage (fill in the gaps or sentence completion exercises), controlled writing stage (learning fixed pattern), guided writing (e.g. imitating a task), and free writing (e.g. writing letter, story, essay). Second, process approach deals with writing at discourse level

(this approach is students-centered). Process approach involves four stages: Prewriting, composing/drafting, revising, and editing. The author records a 'chronological order' of actions of process approach: selection of topic, prewriting, composing, responses [of teachers or peers] to revisions, proofreading and editing, evaluation [of progress by the teacher], publishing [e.g. in the form of presentation in the class or in the notice board], and follow-up tasks [i.e. to eliminate weakness]. Besides, teacher-student conference, group work, pair work are integral part of process approach. Third, genre approach involves three stages: modeling a genre, construction of a task, and independent construction [i.e. writing]. This approach emphasizes on audience and rhetorical organization of a task. Teachers introduce different types of genre (e.g. letters, research articles, report) to students. This approach is appropriate for teaching academic writing. The author identifies the following limitations of these three approaches. Product approach emphasizes on teaching mainly decontextualized sentences and patterns. Process a approach chiefly deals with 'personal writing' (e.g. narrative essay), excluding argumentative or expository writing. Genre approach is prescriptive and overlooks individual learner differences. The author explains a fourth approach (i.e. process genre approach) which is a synthesis of product, process and genre approach. This approach concentrates on developing knowledge about language (a component of product approach), knowledge about context and purpose (a component of genre approach), and techniques of using language (a component of process approach).

Finally, the author draws the following pedagogic implications of these approaches in the context of Bangladesh. First, product approach should not be ignored to develop grammatical accuracy of the students. Second, teachers may provide feedback on context and organization of students' writing. Third, students may be engaged in the following activities in the class: brainstorming, clustering, outlining, rewriting, revising etc. Fourth, students may be assigned reading activity to raise awareness about organization of text.

5.8.16 In her article, "Responding to Students' Writing in the TESOL Environment: Some Feedback Options", Rubina Khan (Associate Professor, Department of English, University of Dhaka) [Khan, 2002] discusses the following feedback strategies on students' writing: error correction, peer correction, conferences, reformulation, taped commentary, text approximation, written comments, and grades and numbers.

'Error correction' is a strategy in which a teacher detects or corrects students' errors. In this case, teachers may use correcting codes—abbreviated symbols indicating a particular error (e.g. vt: verb tense, Wc: word class, p: punctuation etc.). 'Peer feedback' is a technique in which students read each other's writing, make comments, and correct errors under the supervision of their teachers in the classroom. To ascertain success of peer feedback, students should be trained to give feedback on both 'lower order concerns' (LoCs) (e.g. grammatical mistakes) and 'higher order concerns' (HoCs) (e.g. rhetorical organization, development of ideas). Citing Raimes (1992), the author records a guideline that can be given to students before arranging peer feedback sessions. Students may be asked to identify irrelevant ideas, absence of specific details or explanations on their peers' writing. 'Conferences' means interaction between teachers and students intended to derive feedback on writing. Conference can be organized to provide feedback to individual students (one to one) or to groups. Conference can take place at pre-writing stage, in process phase, or in post-production phase. Citing Reid (1993), the author records a sample of "a revision planning conference worksheet" (p. 8). In this worksheet, students are required to writing strengths and weaknesses identified by their teachers. In addition, students are asked to write specific steps that they would take to improve paragraphs of their writing. 'Written comments' is a form of feedback in which teachers write remarks on students' writing. The author points out that written feedback should be specific, clear and detailed (e.g. "The argument needs to be developed"; "More analysis of the point is necessary").

'Reformulation' is a technique of feedback in which a teacher rewrites students' text. Citing Hedge (1988), the author notes a process of reformulation. First, the teacher may rewrite students' essay. Second, the teacher may distribute students' original essay and reformulated essay in the class. Third, the whole class may compare the two essays and discuss causes of reformulation. Fourth, on the basis of reformulation, students may revise their writing. 'Text approximation' is a strategy in which [teachers provide feedback according to the convention of a particular genre]. 'Taped commentary' is a form of feedback in which teachers record their comments on students' writing and supply it to students. 'Grades/Numbers' means assigning grades (e.g. A, B, C) or numbers (6/10, 5/10) to evaluate a piece of writing.

Finally, the author suggests that teachers should provide constructive criticism. Second, teachers may use pencil to write comments which represents less authoritativeness. Third, teachers may write remarks of appreciation (e.g. 'good', 'well expressed') to motivate students.

5.8.17 In his essay, "Teaching Writing English at the Secondary Level in Bangladesh", Syed Md. Golam Faruk (Lecturer in English, Chittagong City College) [Faruk, 2000-2001] describes some techniques of teaching writing.

Citing Raimes (1989), the author notes five techniques of teaching controlled writing: Controlled composition, question and answer, guided composition, parallel writing and sentence combining. In controlled composition practice, students are required to rewrite a text by changing tense (e.g. from present to past) or speech (from direct speech to reported speech). In question and answer model, teachers elicit answer from students by showing pictures and by asking questions on pictures. Next, students jointly (group work) write a story based on the pictures. Apart from this, students may be asked to write a short story from a series of pictures. After writing the first draft, students may get feedback from their

peers, and then they might compose the second draft. In the guided composition practice, students are provided with information to be included in their writing. Students may be supplied with first and last sentence of a composition; or information may be given in the form of a picture. In the parallel writing practice, students are given a model paragraph and are required to imitate that [to write a new paragraph with new information]. In the 'sentence combining activities', teachers provide students with a set of simple sentences and ask them to construct complex sentences by joining the simple sentences. In the section entitled "other activities", the author explains two activities: sentence insertion and Mad ads. In sentence insertion activities, students are given a text and some [isolated sentence]. The students are required to insert [isolated] 'extra sentences' into the right space of the text by taking syntactic, grammatical, semantic or discourse appropriacy into consideration. In 'Mad ads' activity, students may be asked to write 'ridiculous' advertisement. Students may rewrite ads of washing powder, soft drinks, or tooth paste "to make them as unattractive as possible" (p. 32). In the section entitled "Essay format", the author points out that an essay should contain introduction, body and conclusion. In the section entitled "product and process models", citing Scrivener (1994), the author records that pre-writing stage of creative writing involves group discussion, group brainstorming, "selection and rejection of ideas" (p. 35), note taking, paying conscious attention to "language models" [syntax] (p. 35) in sample texts.

Finally, in the section entitled "Correcting", the author suggests that teachers should give positive feedback on students' writing. Besides, teachers should give feedback on content or ideas of students' writing. In addition, teachers should also give feedback on mechanical aspects such as syntax, punctuation, spelling etc.

5.8.18 In her article, "Culture and L2 Writing Development: A Search for Tuning", Nasreen Rahman (Lecturer, Department of English, North South University, Dhaka) [Rahman, 2007-08] explores the link between culture and second language writing.

The participants of this study include 15 English language educators [teachers] from 6 private universities of Dhaka city. The author used closed-ended questionnaire to elicit data.

In response to the first question, 80% respondents reported that shyness affects students' writing [quality] whereas 20% respondents answered that fear of interacting with teachers about writing affects the development of writing. In response to the second question, 70% respondents answered that students remain absent in the writing class due to personal problems whereas 30% answered that students tend to miss classes due to family related problems. In response to the third question, 60% teachers reported that students are lazy in the writing class because teachers give lectures; 20% respondents identified controlled writing activities as the reason of students' laziness; 20% respondents reported that absence of group discussion in the class is the cause of students' laziness. In response to the fourth question, 60% teachers favored introducing cross-cultural topics whereas 40% teachers favored the use of local topics only in teaching writing. [In response to the fifth question, 100% teachers opined that writing samples of other cultures with adaptations might be helpful in teaching writing to students]. In response to the sixth question, 70% teachers "agree"[d] that it is essential for teachers to receive training on cross-cultural understanding [communication]. In response to the seventh question, 100% respondents reported that media (TV, newspapers, magazines, internet) can be used to generate topics for writing. In response to the eighth question, 75% respondents opined that male and female students can be put in the same group or male and female students can be placed in different groups. In response to the ninth question regarding cultural awareness in the writing class, 20% respondents opted

for the option "show pictures"; 25% selected the option "tell stories"; 10% chose the option "browse websites"; and 45% selected the option "display material objects" [i.e. realia].

Finally, the author makes some suggestions to teach writing skills. First, teachers may encourage shy students to express themselves in the classroom; teachers may personally talk to shy students; or teachers may praise shy students to build up confidence of the shy students. Second, teachers may explain importance of learning to write in English to motivate students. Third, role-play can be arranged in the classroom to familiarize students with the communicative convention of target culture. Besides, students can write about culturally appropriate behavior. Fourth, 'greeting cards' and 'realia' can be used to create cross-cultural awareness. Besides, cross-cultural writing topics such as 'snowfall' or 'wedding festival' can be used in the classroom.

5.8.19 In her article, "The Contribution of the Communicative Language Teaching Approach to Teaching Writing in the English Classroom", Shaheen Ara (Lecturer, Department of Center for Languages at BRAC University) [Ara, 2008-09] explores methodology used in English language classroom and students' proficiency of writing in English.

The author elicited data through class observation, interview and proficiency test. The setting of this study includes two schools: Banani Biddya Niketan and T&T Girls' High School. The author observed (class IX and X in 2005) 4 English language classes of Banani Biddya Niketan and 3 classes of T&T Girls' High School. 4 teachers and 145 students from Banani Biddya Niketan and 3 teachers and 75 students from T&T Girls' High School participated in this study. Students were given a composition test and teachers were interviewed.

Analysis of classroom observation data reveals that teachers did not engage students in group work or pair work. Lecture was the dominant mode of teaching in most cases.

Precisely, teachers spent "very little time…on writing practice compared to the total time allotted for English classes" (p. 20). In other words, most of the teachers appeared to ignore teaching writing. The author also observed decontextualized teaching of grammar. In one composition class, students were not involved in writing. Besides, no teacher tried to teach four skills in an integrated way. The author observes that even the ELTIP trained teacher "did not follow the communicative language teaching approach for teaching writing in the classroom" (p. 20).

Interview data suggests that most of the teachers believe that it is difficult to follow CLT approach due to large class size, low proficiency of the students, and lack of logistic support. Second, most of the teachers believe that CLT is not an effective approach since it does not emphasize on teaching of grammar. Third, teachers reported that they cannot spend much time to teach writing since there is a pressure to complete syllabus. Fourth, [when asked about methodology of teaching writing], teachers reported that they emphasize on sentence structure, guided writing; or they ask students to memorize essays. The author remarks: "No particular methodology or guide was followed by the English language teachers" (p. 21). Fifth, most of the teachers did not receive any training on CLT. Sixth, most of the teachers opined that absence of grammar in the textbook is responsible for students' low competence in writing.

Analysis of students' errors reveals the following mistakes: missing words/wrong words (38), sentence structure (35), Number (singular-plural) (29), prepositions (17), spelling (15), tense (13), word order (12), and articles (6). The author selected 100 wrong sentences form 100 randomly selected scripts out of 220 scripts. The students (220 students) were asked to write a composition on "[your] favorite T.V programme".

The author concludes that students' writing competence is low and teachers do not follow CLT approach in the classroom. Finally, the author recommends that teachers should

be trained to use CLT approach. In addition, examination system should discourage rote memorization.

5.8.20 In her article, "Ways of Responding to Students' Writing: Providing Meaningful, Appropriate and Effective Feedback", Tazin Aziz Chaudhury (Lecturer, Department of English, University of Dhaka) [Chaudhury, 2001] discusses techniques of providing feedback on students writing.

In the section entitled "Writing and the writing process", the author points out that there are mainly two approaches to writing: product approach and process approach. The product approach concentrates on evaluating the final product or text. On the other hand, process approach involves three stages: Pre-writing, writing, and rewriting (multidrafting and revising).

In the section entitled "How the teacher should respond to students writing in this changed context" [i.e. in the context of shift of focus from product to process approach] the author explains six techniques of providing feedback on writing. First, Students should be trained to self-monitor their writing process. In other words, students should be encouraged to self-correct. Second, teachers can use the technique of 'peer feedback' in which students make comments on each other's writing. The process of peen feedback benefits students by offering a large number of audiences. Third, face to face communication between individual students/groups and teacher is called 'conference'. In conference, the teacher plays the role of a participant rather than an evaluator. Fourth, teachers may write comments on students' scripts. The author points out some general drawbacks of teachers' comments. For instance, teachers may misunderstand/miscomprehend students' text; teacher may offer unclear suggestions; and teachers sometimes avoid indicating specific techniques for revision. However, citing White & Arndt (1991) the author suggests that teachers should comment on

contents and respond to students' writing "not as a judge and critic" (p. 56), but "as a genuine interested reader" (p. 56). Fifth, "error correction" is a technique of providing feedback on writing. However, the author maintains that teachers should concentrate on correcting global errors (i.e. errors that leads to miscommunication of ideas) rather than local errors (e.g. spelling, punctuation). Sixth, "evaluation of students' writing" is a form of feedback in which teachers grade/mark on students writing. Citing Hughey et. al. (1983), the author notes that teachers should use banded marking scheme to assess students' writing. The author proposes the following categories and marks to evaluate students' writing: Content—13-30%; organization—7-20%; vocabulary—7-20%; language use—5-25%; and mechanics—2-5%. Finally, the author recommends that teachers should provide immediate and frequent feedback on students' writing. In addition, they should play the role of a consultant to cooperate students in the process of constructing a text.

5.8.21 In her article, "Developing Writing Skill for Bangladeshi Tertiary Level Learners", Begum Shahnaz Sinha (Associate Professor, Department of English, University of Dhaka) [Sinha, 2011-2012] describes some techniques of teaching writhing skills.

The author retrospects on her experience of learning writing [at primary and secondary level]. The author notes that writing activities in the class involved writing paragraphs, essays, letters, and answer to questions. The teacher used to select topics for the students. The students memorized texts from books or teachers' handout. Teachers did not teach students the process of writing or rhetorical organization of the essay. Teachers rarely motivated them to write any original text. Teachers predominantly focused on grammatical correctness. The author notes that she did not enjoy her writing classes.

Citing Raimes (1983), the author discusses five types of writing approach. First, the controlled writing approach intends to improve grammatical accuracy in writing. Second,

'the free writing approach' emphasizes on fluency of writing and ignores errors. Third, 'the communicative approach' trains students to write for specific audiences. Fourth, 'the paragraph pattern approach' engages students in imitating a model paragraph. Fifth , 'the process approach' involves writing multiple drafts [and revising texts] on the basis of teachers' feedback. The author remarks that in Bangladesh teachers adopt 'controlled approach' or 'paragraph pattern approach' to teach writing.

Citing Pincas (1982), Harmer (2003), and Ur (2003), the author records the following writing activities: (a) writing response to poem, film or story, (b) narrating incidents (pictures may be used in this activity), (c) writing personal stories, (d) describing people and places, (e) answering letters, (f) summarizing or paraphrasing, (g) writing poems or stories, (h) diary writing, (i) parallel writing (i.e. imitating a model text), and (j) ordering (i.e. rearranging sentences).

The author mentions there stages of writing. In the pre-writing stage, students are engaged in brainstorming on a particular topic to generate ideas. In the while-writing stage, teachers cooperate students to organize and extend ideas. In the post-writing stage, teachers/peers provide feedback on students' writing. On the basis of feedback, students revise their texts. Apart from this, the author describes the process of teaching "writing a job application letter". In the pre-session, the teacher may assign student to select job advertisements from newspapers. In the while-session, students may be engaged in analyzing a model job application. In the post-session, the teacher may provide feedback on students' drafts.

Finally, the author suggests that teachers may design guided writing activities for weak students . Second, students may be engaged in group work or pair work. Third, teachers "need to support the learning when they are writing instead of criticizing their works" (p. 87).

5.8.22 In his article, "A Journey From the Paragraph to the Essay", Zainul Abedin Chowdhury (Professor in English Literature, presently working as the Director, Administration & Finance Division, NAEM) [Chowdhury, 2006] describes techniques of composing paragraph and essay.

The author suggests that it is necessary to create an outline before writing a paragraph. In an outline, a writer may plan about specific details, organization of the paragraph (e.g. chronological), and central focus. An outline should contain the thesis statement and supporting details. A paragraph may be developed using the outline. Every paragraph should contain a topic sentence which may be placed in the beginning or in the end of the paragraph. The author remarks that a paragraph should not contain more than one topic sentence.

The author discusses three features of a 'well-designed paragraph': Unity, coherence, and completeness. Unity of a paragraph depends on the connection of the central idea with its sentences. Coherence refers to the relations of sentences between each other. The author notes that coherence in a paragraph may be created by using transitional words and phrases (e.g. in addition, as a consequence, however, in contrast), pronoun reference, repeated key terms, and use of parallelism. Completeness of a paragraph is contingent on providing ample evidence to substantiate the claim made in the topic sentence.

The author explains seven types of paragraph. First 'classification paragraph' categorizes things or ideas. The following words/phrases are useful in composing classification paragraph: 'Is a kind of', 'can be divided into', 'is grouped with' etc. Second, 'description paragraph' describes place, person or thing. Description paragraph may require portrayal of properties (i.e. size, color, shape) and measurement (i.e. length, width, weight). Third, 'compare and contrast paragraph' shows similitude and dissimilitude between objects. Helpful phrases/words in composing 'compare & contrast' paragraph include: 'Is similar to',

'both', 'as well' etc. (to show similarities) and 'on the other hand', 'in contrast to', 'differs from' (to show differences). Fourth, 'sequence paragraph' involves description of sequence of an incident/phenomenon or a process. Useful words/phrases for writing 'sequence paragraph' include: 'In the beginning', 'before', 'then', 'previously', 'afterwards' etc. Fifth, 'choice paragraph' exhibits preferences for a particular objects or an action. Useful phrases/words to compose 'choice paragraph' involve: 'In my opinion', 'I think that', 'I believe', 'like/dislike' etc. Sixth, 'explanation paragraph' explains cause & effect. Useful phrases/words to explain causes include 'because' 'since', 'as a result'; and to explain effect include: 'Therefore', 'hence', 'it follows that' etc. Seventh, 'evaluation paragraph' presents judgment about objects. Useful words/phrases to compose evaluation paragraph include: 'good/bad', 'correct/incorrect', 'important/trivial' etc.

The author indicates that several paragraph can be put together to create an essay. The author suggests that the opening paragraph of an essay should be designed to "capture the attention of readers" (p. 38). The author mentions that the opening paragraph may contain a question, a quotation, a narrative, or a problem [statement]. Besides, words such as 'first', 'second', 'third' may be used to link different paragraphs of an essay. Finally, the author suggests that thesis or central arguments may be restated in the concluding paragraph.

5.8.23 In their article, "Classroom Experience of Teaching-Writing to Undergraduate Students: Bangladesh Context", Sureya Huda (Assistant Professor, Department of English, Eastern University) and Nafisa Kamal (Senior Lecturer, Department of Applied Linguistics and ELT, Eastern University) [Huda, & Kamal, 2011] describe their experience of teaching writing to undergraduate level students.

The participants of this study include undergraduate level students of Arts Faculty (English Discipline), Business Administration discipline, and Law discipline. The author

taught a writing course titled 'Eng 111' (42% students in this course came from rural areas whereas 58% students came from urban areas. Besides, 99% students came with Bangla medium background whereas 1% students came with English medium background). This course is offered to the 2nd semester students of undergraduate level. The period of data collection spread over 3 semesters i.e. the authors generated data from their experience of teaching 3 semesters).

The author followed the following stages [process approach] in teaching writing: Prewriting, drafting, revising, editing, and publishing (e.g. submission to the instructor). The authors derived a '3 tier writing process' to teach writing to students. The '3 tier writing process' includes the following phases: Pre-writing, while-writing (drafting, revising, editing), post-writing (i.e. submitting to the instructor). Pre-writing phase involved brainstorming, generating ideas, outlining, semantic mapping etc. While-writing phase involved composing the first draft. In this phase, peer discussion occurred to revise and edit the draft. In the post-writing phase, peers and teachers evaluated the writing. The objective of this course was to teach descriptive paragraph, narrative paragraph, dialog writing, letter writing (personal, official), story writing, summary writing etc.

The author described the process of teaching writing descriptive paragraph. In the first stage, students were engaged in a discussion in which they revisited some vocabulary to describe appearance and character of people that they learned in the previous semester [course]. In the second stage, students supplied new vocabulary (e.g. face—thin, round; personality—serious, helpful). In the third phase, students were shown a descriptive paragraph. Students were involved in locating vocabulary from the paragraph that are used to describe people. Students also studied [rhetorical] organization of the paragraph and linking words. In the fourth phases, students were engaged in brainstorming. In particular, students were asked to fill in a chart containing two columns: 'Look' and 'personality'. In the fifth

stage, students studied present simple tense and the use of third person singular number. In the sixth stage, students composed their first draft. In the seventh stage, students were asked to read aloud their drafts in front of the class. Peer editing occurred in this stage. In the eighth stage, students received feedback from their teacher. In the ninth stage, students revised their work and wrote the second draft.

The authors analyzed students' performance [of one semester]. Analysis of data shows that 65% students submitted their writing (assignment) on due time and managed to improve their writing. These students appreciated the teaching process. However, 25% students delayed the submission of their writing, 8% students submitted incomplete writing, and 2% students did not submit their writing (assignment).

The authors conducted a questionnaire survey before introducing process approach to teaching writing. In response to the survey questionnaire, 65% students expressed their unwillingness to maintain portfolio. However, in the end of the semester, maintenance of portfolio improved their writing skills. [Teachers evaluated the portfolio and assigned a grade].

The authors mentioned that they provided comprehensible input to the students. The authors determined comprehensible input by examining student's background, linguistic proficiency, and pre-requisite courses that the students attended. Besides, the authors used the principles of 'co-operative learning' in teaching writing. [Note: The name of the course was: Eng 111 (Writing). The authors collected data from [Spring, Summer and Fall semester of 2009]. The course was taught in a private university of Dhaka city].

5.8.24 In her article, "A Study of the Writing Behaviors of Low Proficiency English Learners in Bangladesh", Iffat A. N. Majid (Associate Professor, IML, Dhaka University) [Majid, 2011] explores how low proficiency L2 students deal with writing tasks in L1 and L2.

The participants of this study include 7 adult L2 (English) students of Dhaka University. The author designated the students as: A, B, C, D, E, F and G. The author identified the participants' [English] proficiency (i.e. low proficiency) through a proficiency test. These students received formal instruction in Bangla and English language [English as a separate subject] for 12 years. The objective of this study was to compare students' writing skills in Bangla (L1) and English (L2) language. In this context, the author, citing Derwing et.al. (2009), notes two views pertaining to language fluency: Trait view and state view. Trait view assumes that there is a correlation between linguistic proficiency in L1 and L2. On the contrary, state view indicates that there is no correlation between linguistic skills in L1 and L1. The participants of this study were asked to read a story written in English language containing 200 words. Next students were asked to reproduce the story—first in English language, and then in Bangla language.

Analysis of students' writing reveals that: (a) students who produced organized text in Bangla could produce [rhetorically] organized text in English as well. It indicates that students' writing skill in L1 correlates with their writing skill in L2; (b) students who succeeded in writing correct complex sentences in Bangla tried to write complex sentences in English [students could not produce correct complex sentences in English in all instances]; (c) students B, F, and G failed to use tense markers accurately in both Bangla and English text; (d) students F and G demonstrated lack of proficiency in using linking words in their Bangla and English writing; (e) students E and G seemed to be "careless writers in Bengali" (p. 129). Specifically, student G displayed lack of proficiency in both Bangla and English writing. The author remarks that the case of G indicates a 'trait factor' [i.e. there is a correlation between linguistic proficiency between L1 and L2].

The author draws the following pedagogic implications of this study. First, while dealing with narrative genre, teachers should detect trait or state deficiencies of the students.

If students demonstrate deficiency in L2 only teachers may judiciously use students' L1 [to improve students' writing. On the other hand, if students demonstrate lack of proficiency in both L1 and L2, teachers "need to work at the conceptual level" (p. 129). [Note: This study deals with narrative genre only].

5.8.25 In her article, "Discourse Analysis: Implications for Teaching Effective Writing", Shayla Nahar Ahmad [Ahmad, 2005] discusses the relevance of discourse analysis in teaching writing.

Citing Stubbs (1983), the author notes that "discourse analysis is the study of linguistic units above the sentence or clause, such as spoken discourse or written text" (p. 92). The author mentions that discourse analysis investigates the connection between language and context.

The author discusses two components of discourse analysis which are relevant to teaching writing: cohesion and text pattern. The author defines cohesion as "the relation of meaning within a text" (p. 94). Cohesive devices establish connection between ideas in a text. The author notes two types of cohesive devices: grammatical cohesive ties and lexical cohesion. The author discusses the following cohesive ties: reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction. Reference means words which indexes toward other words in a text. There are two types of reference: exophoric and anaphoric. Exophoric reference activates knowledge of the world (e.g. US). On the contrary, anaphoric reference indicates the identity of a previously mentioned entity (e.g. he, she, it). Substitution, a second type of cohesive tie, means replacement of one word by another. Ellipsis, a third type of cohesive tie, refers to the process of deletion of components which are obvious from the context. Conjunction, a fourth type of cohesive, indicates logical-semantic link between texts. The author mentions the following types of conjunction: additives (e.g. 'and', 'similarly'), adversatives (e.g.

'however', 'on the contrary'), causal conjunction (e.g. 'therefore', 'consequently'), and temporal conjunction ('next', 'afterwards'). The author points out that 'reference' and 'substitution' help to avoid tedious repetition in a text; ellipsis establishes a close relationship between reader and writer, and conjunction helps to connect ideas. The second type of cohesive device is lexical cohesion. Lexical cohesion involves selection of lexical items to express a recurrent idea. Lexical cohesion can be established by using synonyms, antonyms, hyponyms, metonymy etc. Lexical cohesion is a useful device in writing. Teachers can use lexical cohesion to teach vocabulary to students. In addition, lexical cohesive device is an essential tool to paraphrase ideas.

Text pattern, the second component of discourse analysis, refers to organizational regularity of a text. The author discusses the followings types of text pattern: problem-solution, hypothetical-real, gap in knowledge filling pattern, goal achievement pattern, opportunity taking pattern, and desire arousal pattern. Problem-solution pattern contains the following sequence: situation, problem, evaluation, positive result. The lexical signal in problem-solution pattern include 'unfortunately', 'unable', 'terrible' etc. Hypothetical-real pattern presents a hypothesis and investigates the reality. The lexical signals in hypothetical-real pattern include: suppose, think, proposition etc. (hypothesis) and contradict, correct, fact (reality). Gap in knowledge filling pattern raises a question (a gap in knowledge) and answers it. The lexical signals in this pattern include question, puzzle, theory, solve etc. Goal achievement pattern discusses a specific goal and shows a positive/negative outcome. The lexical signals in this pattern include objective, strategy etc. Opportunity taking pattern may contain an offer. Desire arousal pattern exhibits the following sequence: situation-object of desire-fulfillment of desire-positive/negative result.

Finally, the author maintains that problem-solution pattern, hypothetical-real pattern, and goal achievement pattern can help to learn/teach academic writing. Besides, opportunity taking pattern and goal-achievement pattern can helpful in teaching business writing.

5.8.26 In his article, "Providing Feedback of EFL Students' Written Assignments: Nature and Implications", Bijoy Lal Basu [Basu, 2006] discusses types of feedback, and effectiveness of feedback on students' writing.

The author notes that there are two categories of feedback: 'feedback on form' and 'feedback on content'. Feedback on form refers to the feedback on grammatical error. The author engages the debate between Truscott and Ferris (from 1996-2004) to explain whether error correction is effective or not. In particular, Professor John Truscott holds that error correction is ineffective and harmful. On the other hand, Ferris contends that error correction is useful, because researches on error feedback do not confirm that error correction is useless, and because students prefer error connection. However, the author suggests that traditional methods of grammar correction contain some problems. First, the author cites Fregeau (1999) who indicates that traditional methods of grammar correction overemphasize on the negative characteristics of students' writing. Second, traditional methods of error correction engage students in passively copying teachers' correction. Eventually, the students tend to forget the feedback. The author refers to Fathman and Walley (1990) and Frodesen (2001) who suggest that feedback indicating place of error (rather than type) is effective.

The author suggests that feedback on content refers to the feedback on ideas and organization. The author compares the effectiveness of teacher feedback and peer feedback. According to Muncie (2000), as the author notes, peer feedback is more effective than teacher feedback. Precisely, students can critically choose from peer feedback; on the contrary, students cannot exercise choice when feedback comes from teachers since teachers' feedback

carries authoritative tones. Therefore, Muncie favors mid-draft feedback from peers and final feedback from teachers. However, the author maintains that teachers should provide mid-draft feedback on grammar and mechanics. The author records that feedback on content should include feedback on the following areas: organization (i.e. logical development of ideas and effectiveness of introduction and conclusion) and content (i.e. thesis statement, focus, use of facts and experience, and consistency of explanations).

The author explains the following three types of feedback: written feedback, elaborated feedback/conferencing, and peer feedback. Written feedback refers to written comments on students' writing. The author refers to Page who found that individualized and specific remarks on students' writing were more effective than letter grades. However, the author points out that unclear written feedback may be ineffective. The author suggests that written feedback should contain positive remarks and corrective feedback. Elaborated feedback/conferencing refers to in-depth oral feedback to students. One-to-one conference, a method of elaborated feedback (between teacher and students), identifies strengths and weaknesses of students' writing. Peer feedback refers to the constructive criticism of students on their peers' work. The author refers to Berg (1999) who suggests that trained peer response improves students' writing. Therefore, the author maintains that teachers should train students in providing constructive and specific feedback. The author documents a checklist that may be used to guide students (i.e. "what is the thesis?"; "Is the argument clear and convincing? why or why not?"; "what do you like best about this draft?" etc.).

Finally, the author records a guideline for providing feedback (adapted from "Teaching with writing"). First, feedback should contain "some specific praise" (p. 176). Second, teachers should use informational remarks while providing feedback (e.g. "what do you mean by the term?"). Third, teachers may use different types of feedback (e.g. written comments, oral conferences, peer response workshops etc.). Fourth, teachers may save time

by discovering patterns of errors in students' writing. Fifth, teachers may create Peer

Response Groups. Sixth, teachers may use standardized symbols to indicate errors of the

students. Seventh, teachers should explicitly identify assessment criteria. Eighth, students

may be required to complete a 'self-evaluation form'. The form may contain the following

instructions: "Describe or list the things that were most difficult about the assignment";

"Describe what you consider the successful parts of your paper" etc.

5.8.27 In his article, "The Effects of Written Corrective Feedback on L2 Students' Writing",

Shahidul I. Khan [Khan, 2013] offers a comprehensive discussion on corrective feedback.

Precisely, the author deals with the following two hypotheses: (a) Does CF [corrective

feedback] help improve L2 students' grammatical accuracy in writing?" and (b) "Among the

different types of CF given to the learners, which ones are found helpful and which are not?"

In order to address the first research question, the author records the Ferris-Truscott

debate on CF. In 1996, citing evidence from Robb, Ross, and Shortreed (1986), Kepner

(1991), Semke (1984), and Sheppard (1992), John Truscott claimed that corrective feedback

is ineffective. In addition, Truscott argued that CF is harmful. Truscott provided both

theoretical and practical evidence to support his claim. Truscott supplied the following two

theoretical evidences: (a) corrective feedback assumes that language learning means a

transfer of [grammatical] knowledge; and (b) there is a mismatch between the sequence of

instruction and the sequence of L2 acquisition. Truscott supplied the following practical

evidence. According to Truscott, teachers and students must follow a number of steps to

yield benefit from error correction. Teachers responsibilities include identification of error,

understanding the category of error, identification of the causes of error, and presentation of

an explanation of [grammatical] rules. Likewise, students' responsibilities include

understanding the errors, understanding the rules and explanation of the errors, remembering

the corrections, and using the correct forms in their next writing. In 1993, Ferris tried to dispel Truscott's argument. Ferris classified grammatical errors into two catatonics: treatable and untreatable. Treatable errors include subject-verb agreements, run-ons, comma splices, missing articles, and verb forms errors. On the other hand, untreatable errors include lexical error, syntax errors, missing words, unnecessary words, and word order problems. Ferris argued that Truscott did not understand the distinction between "bad corrections" and "effective corrections".

The author documents Ellis's (2008) typology of written CF. In his taxonomy of written CF, Ellis describes the following types of written CF: direct CF (i.e. providing correct forms), indirect CF (i.e. indicating that there is an error), metalinguistic CF (i.e. selective CF), unfocused CF (i.e. providing feedback on all types of errors), electronic feedback, and reformulation (i.e. reconstruction of a text by a native speaker).

In his discussion of the effectiveness of different types of feedback, the author compares (citing research evidence) different types of CF. First, Lalande (1982), Robb, Ross and Shortreed (1986), and Bitchener, East and Carter (2010) compared the effectiveness of direct CF and metalinguistic CF. Lalande discovered the superiority of systematic error codes (i.e. metalinguistic CF) over traditional grammar feedback (i.e. direct CF). Robb et. al. did not find any difference between direct CF and metalinguistic CF. However, Bitchener et. al. found that coded metalinguistic feedback is more effective than direct CF. Second, Bitchener and knoch (2010) discovered that metalinguistic feedback is more effective than indirect CF. This study dealt with English article system. Third, Ellis, Loewen, and Erlam (2006) found that explicit feedback is more effective than implicit feedback. In another study, Bitchener, Young and Cameron (2005) discovered that direct-explicit written and oral feedback is effective in case of past simple and article, but ineffective in case of prepositions. In this context, the author remarks: "It is generally believed that the use of preposition is

much more difficult and complex than articles and tenses. So the study probably indicates that error corrections may be helpful for simple grammatical problems, but might be ineffective for more complex grammar issues" (p. 218). Fourth, Ellis, Sheen, Murakami and Takashima (2008) (dealt with the use of articles) did not find any difference between the effectiveness of focused and unfocused CF. In particular, they found that both focused and unfocused CF equally effective. However, the study of Sheen, Wright and Moldawa (2009) revealed that focused CF is more effective than unfocused CF. Fifth, Fathman and Whalley (1990) compared the effectiveness of grammar feedback and content feedback. This study discovered that both grammar and content feedback improve students' writing. This study also supplies evidence for the effectiveness of feedback. Precisely, in this study "students were found to progress more quickly when feedback was given than when it was not" (p. 220). However, Sheppard (1992) compared the effectiveness of grammar and content feedback on the accuracy of writing. This study showed that content feedback is more effective than grammar feedback. In addition, this study indicates that extreme corrective attention on grammar is harmful for the students, because the students (in this study) who received grammar feedback avoided writing complex sentence. Kepner (1991) also found that grammar feedback is not superior to content feedback. Precisely, Kepner's study shows that content feedback improves the content of students writing. Sixth, Sachs and Polio (2007) found that traditional CF is more effective than reformulation (of a native speaker).

Finally, the author points out that research on error feedback covers a small are (e.g. articles, past simple, tense and prepositions). In addition, there is no consensus regarding the effectiveness of error feedback. However, the author quotes Ellis who contends that error correction may help students: "At the moment, perhaps all we can say is that CF can assist learners to develop greater control over grammatical features which are amenable to rules of

thumb. Truscott may still be partially right—written CF may prove to be ineffective against more complex grammatical features" (p. 222).

5.8.28 In his article, "Assessing "Communicative" Writing Skills: An Evaluation of the SSC English Examination", Md. Zulfeqar Haider (Teacher Trainer, English Language Teaching Improvement Project (ELTIP)) [Haider, 2008] critically examines the writing section of SSC English test.

The author notes that there are two types of writing tasks in SSC test: guided writing and free writing. The guided writing (Paper 1) tasks involve rearranging sentences, writing paragraphs following prompts, writing letters, writing application etc. On the other hand, free writing tasks involve writing paragraphs following key words, writing essays etc. (Paper 2). The author argues that guided writing tasks "have little communicative value" (p. 55). On the other hand, the author mentions two problems of free writing tasks: first, free writing tasks are decontextualized (i.e. these tasks do not mention purpose and audience); second, the topics of paragraphs/essays are predictable. This apart, the author examines the marking criteria of SSC English (Writing Section) examination. Citing *Instruction for Markers of SSC English Paper 2003, BISE, Dhaka*, the author points out that instructions for markers are not self-explanatory and analytic. For instance, the expressions "correct and standard", "quality answers" in instructions are not self-explanatory.

The author conducted a questionnaire survey to investigate (secondary English) teachers' perceptions of SSC English test. The teachers reported that SSC English test "partially" or "to some extent" assesses students' communicative skills. In addition, the teachers opined that education board should devise a "standardized marking scale". Further, some teachers opined that both summative and formative assessment system should be

introduced at SSC level. This apart, some teachers reported that there is a discrepancy between the sample question of *Teachers' Guide* (TG) and the questions of SSC examination.

The author interviewed two Australian language testing experts. The experts opined that SSC English test is not valid and reliable. The test is not valid because it contains items (e.g. MCQ, close test) which do not test communicative ability of the students [which it tries to test]. The test is unreliable because: (a) it does not have any specific assessment criteria; and (b) it does not define acceptable responses. The experts also pointed out that the test does not define the purpose of writing tasks. In addition, the test requires students to write some decontextualized essays (e.g. 'The Rainy Season', 'The Postman').

Finally, the author recommends that the test should define context, purpose, and audience of the writing tasks. Second, students should be informed about the assessment criteria. Third, the discrepancy between the sample questions of *Teachers' Guide* and SSC questions should be eradicated.

5.9.0 Testing and Evaluation

5.9.1 In his case study, "Backwash Effects of Examinations Upon Teaching and Learning of English", Mohammed Humayun Kabir (Associate Professor, Department of English Language and Literature, IIUC) [Kabir, 2011] examines backwash effect (i.e. impact of test on teaching and learning) in a private university of Bangladesh. The author deals with three research questions. The first research question investigates whether there is any effect of testing on teaching and learning. The second research question makes an attempt to explore whether the washback effect is positive or negative. The third research question seeks to identify the cause (person or authority) of backwash effect.

The participants of this study were instructors and students of "Advanced English" course at IIUC and director of Centre for University Requirement Course (CENURC). The

authors interviewed students and the director to collect data about testing, teaching and learning. Besides, he administered a questionnaire survey to elicit data from course teachers. The questionnaire for teachers contains 9 questions. In response to the first 3 questions the teachers inform that individual course teachers set questions, learning or improvement of students is not monitored properly, and teachers do not set any question that is not taught in the class. In response to the fourth question, all teachers maintain that there is an effect of testing on teaching. In response to the fifth question, all the teachers responded that they cannot complete 'reading part' due to time limitation which is also confirmed by the CENURC director. The sixth and seventh question asked whether the practice of 'partial teaching' (i.e. not completing the syllabus) limits 'teaching' and 'learning' respectively. All the teachers answered positively. In reply to the eighth question, all the teachers inform that the format of the format of question affect classroom teaching. However one teacher maintain that despite the question format [predictable question pattern] teachers can effectively teach four skills by employing appropriate methodology. In the ninth question, teachers were asked about their "worry" or concern about students' grade or result. Some teachers do not appear to be concerned with students' grade whereas others seemed to be serious about it since academic result is important in professional life. Apart from teacher, the author interviewed 20 ex-students and 25 current students of "Advanced English" course. Interview data suggest that most of the students expect good grades and they are not serious about completing the syllabus. They expect their teachers to teach only probable test items in the class. In addition, according to students, the course is not significant. The author argue that test items in grammar section, reading section and writing section cause negative backwash effect. In particular, grammar items are very easy and simple; questions of reading section (MCQ, short questions etc.) are predictable or copied from previous test papers; writing section involves limited and mechanical task types (e.g. letter and dialog writing

only). In addition, repetition of test items is a common practice of this course. For instance writing task on "Price hike" appeared four times, "Load shedding" three times, "Describe your home" three times, and "Political system of Bangladesh three times".

On the basis of these findings, the author concludes that testing of "Advanced English" Course has a negative impact on students. He recommends that emphasis should be put on teacher training on writing test, and monitoring of students' progress.

5.9.2 In his article, "Necessity of Initiating Rating Scale for More Reliable Assessment of Writing Skill at HSC Level: A Case Study", Mohammed Humayun Kabir (Assistant Professor, Department of English Language and Literature, IIUC) [Kabir, 2010] proposes a set of evaluative criteria to assess students' writing at HSC level.

In this article the author defines 'rating scale' as descriptions of performance to judge proficiency of test takers. He mentions two types rating scale: holistic/global and analytic. In holistic rating system, a single score is assigned to a piece of writing (e.g. TOEFL). On the other hand, in analytic rating scale, scores are assigned for different types of performance [e.g. grammar, vocabulary, cohesion, organization etc.] on a single piece of writing. For instance, FCE [Cambridge First Certificate in English] and TEEP (Test in English for Educational Purposes) use analytic rating scale. The author remarks that TOEFL, FCE and TEEP are "world class" rating scales. In comparison with the rating system of these three tests, rating procedure of HSC English appears to be less reliable.

Test items of English First Paper involve three types of tasks in a section entitled "guided writing" (40 marks): (a) sentence construction from substitution table, (b) re-ordering sentences, and (c) answering questions in a paragraph. English second paper also allocates 40 marks for "writing skills" in which students are required to write paragraph, letter, story or passage. The author remarks that assessment criteria for "writing skills" are not specific.

Besides, students and teachers are not informed about rating criteria. For instance, in evaluating English First Paper, teachers are instructed "not [to] give more than 75% marks (for Q11, Q12) if any student write (paragraph/composition) without a title" (p. 47). But this information is not mentioned in T.G. [Teachers' Guide] or in HSC textbook. Therefore, the reliability of assessment can be questioned. Apart from this, 'instruction 6' for English Second Paper suggests teachers to give 'due credit' to 'any sensible answer' (p. 47) 'irrespective of [official] instructions'. The author remarks that "the marking guide is problematic as the instructions are puzzling and insufficient and it is not enough to safeguard reliable marking" (p. 47). The author points out the limitations of writing tasks at HSC level. Students are required to produce non-creative tasks such as rearranging sentences and short composition which are inadequate to assess students' proficiency. The author proposes to adopt rating scales of TOEFL and FCE for HSC writing assessment. These rating scales involve specific 'criteria' or 'descriptors' to evaluate a piece of writing. For instance, the highest marks, i.e. 8-9 out of 10 may be awarded for well organized, well developed, consistent, original (not memorized) essays with small number of errors. The lowest marks, i.e. 0-3 out of 10 may be attributed to disorganized, underdeveloped, frequent grammatical errors and crammed answers. The author recommends that students should be required to write lengthy paragraphs so that their linguistic competence can be judged properly.

5.9.3 In her survey, "Students' Assessment: Its Judgmental and Developmental Purposes", Sabina Mohsin (Lecturer in English, Stamford University Bangladesh) [Mohsin, 2006] investigates teachers' and students' perception and attitudes towards assessment criteria used to evaluate writing at university level.

The participants of this study were 15 [university] teachers and 15[university] students. The author used a structured questionnaire to elicit data.

In question number 1, teachers were asked whether there were any centrally determined assessment criteria in assessing language skill in their university when they began to teach. 66.66% answered negatively (i.e. there was no fixed criteria) whereas 33.33% answered positively. In response to second question, 66.66% teachers opined that they should be allowed to determine their own criteria; 20% think that they should not be given the freedom in choosing criteria; and 13.33% feel that there can be limited freedom. In question number 3, teachers were asked about marks that they would like to assign for 'content', 'organization', 'structure', 'spelling', 'punctuation' and 'vocabulary' in a piece of writing. Teachers' responses vary in this regard. For instance, marks assigned for content range from 2 to 5. In response to question 4, 100% teachers replied that assessment criteria depend on the type of test. In response to question 5, 73.33% teachers reported that students are informed about marking criteria for a particular test whereas 20% teachers replied that students do not know about marking criteria. However, 6.66% teachers think that students are sometimes informed about assessment criteria. In response to question number 6, 100% teachers opined that student should be informed about assessment criteria to improve their performance. In response to question 7, teachers identified some benefits of peer assessment of writing. For instance, peer checking makes students conscious about their own mistakes and they can learn from each other; the process peer checking develops a sense of competition; and students learn how to edit their own writing. Apart from teachers, students were asked whether have any idea about marking criteria that are used to judge their language skills. 80% students reported that they do not know about assessment criteria whereas 20% reported that they know the marking criteria (question 1). In response to question number 2, 86.66% students reported that they do not know about marks allocated for each criterion when they take a particular test whereas 13.33% reported that they are informed about criteria. However, in response to the third question, 100% students opined that knowledge

about marking criteria would improve their performance in tests. The author identifies a gap between teachers' and students perception about awareness of assessment criteria. In particular, 73.33% teachers think that students are informed about marking criteria whereas 86.66% students reported that they are uninformed about assessment criteria.

Finally, the author recommends that the objective of evaluation should be both judgmental and developmental. In addition, learners should be engaged with the process of evaluation [i.e. learners should be given the opportunity to assess their own work or their peer's work according to the established criteria which might help develop their performance].

5.9.4 In his essay, "The Alternative Modes of Assessing Students at Tertiary Level: The ELT Perspective", Sanyat Sattar (Lecturer in English, Jahangirnagar University) [Sattar, 2006] discusses some alternative system of assessing students.

The first alternative mode of assessment that the author discusses is self-assessment. In the process of self-assessment, learners assess themselves on the basis of pre-determined criteria. The criteria or checklist may be designed using yes-no format (e.g. verb-tense-consistent throughout [writing]: yes-no) or open-ended format. Through self assessment, learner can monitor their progress. In addition, this mode of assessment is motivating and stress-free.

The second mode of alternative assessment is peer-assessment. The author defines peer-assessment as a process where learners judge each others' performance. Learners may respond to each others' work through spoken word, checklist, numerical scale etc. This mode of assessment makes learners reflective and co-operative. A third form of assessment is dialogue journal. Dialogue Journal is a medium of personalized interaction between teachers and students. Dialogue Journals improve writing skills since students use language in

authentic communication in the process. Teachers make supportive and non-judgmental comments on dialog journals. A fourth mode of alternative assessment is interview where teacher' informally assess students' progress. In interview sessions, teachers may collect information about students' strengths and weaknesses. A similar type of method of student assessment is teacher-student conference. In a conference (one-to-one), teachers can explore students' emotion, attitude, social life, language skills which may provide a base for constructing instructional materials. Both interview and student -teacher conference are non-threatening [and stress-free] system of assessment. A fifth mode alternative assessment is informal observation. Teachers' may observe students' response to instructional materials and their activities in group work. Through observation, teachers may keep track of students' progress and achievement. An observation checklist about students' performance and understanding may be generated for this purpose. A sixth mode of alternative assessment is "student portfolio" which refers to a compilation of students' work that reflects their effort, achievement, success or failure, progress. A portfolio may contain writing samples, book reports, self-assessment checklist, audio-recordings of spoken English etc. Portfolio enhances critical thinning and reflective thinking ability. In addition, it displays a holistic picture of learners' abilities.

The author indicates that alternative assessment modes are formative, developmental, learner-centered and comprehensive whereas traditional system of assessment is judgmental (i.e. judgment about success or failure), fragmented (i.e. assess a fraction of students' ability), teacher-centered, anxiety-generating and de-motivating. However, the author argues that alternative assessment modes (process) may be used along with traditional system at tertiary level because conventional system is also important to collect information about students' skills.

5.9.5 In her descriptive-exploratory study, "Speaking Assessment at Secondary and Higher Secondary Levels and Students' Deficiency in Speaking Skills: A Study to Find Interdependence", Zakia Noor Matin (Senior Lecturer, Department of English, Stamford University Bangladesh) [Matin, 2012] investigates pedagogy of speaking at SSC and HSC level.

The participants of this study include 100 randomly selected students of 3 purposively selected private universities of Dhaka city. The author used structured questionnaire containing both open-ended and closed-ended questions to elicit data. The author used SPSS 17 to analyze data.

Analysis of data indicates that class lecture at secondary and higher secondary level is not delivered in English. In particular, 62 % students reported that their teachers delivered lecture in Bangla; 32% reported that there was a combination of Bangla and English in lecture; 6% reported that they used English in the class. Besides, 85% students reported that they did not get any opportunity to practice speaking and listening skills at secondary and higher secondary level. 15% students reported that they took oral test and 7% reported that they made presentation [in the class]. 32.1% students (at university level) reported that they fail to understand teachers' lecture in English due to "pronunciation problem" [failure in recognizing sound] and "teachers' fast delivery" of speech. This apart, 60.9% students face difficulty in viva at tertiary level due to nervousness; 20.3% due to lack of proficiency in English; and 11.6% due to hesitation. With regard to the source of skill development, only 18% students reported that their school contributed to develop fluency in English; 32% assigned credit to coaching center. In addition, 14% reported that article reading in newspaper contributed to improving their skill, and 15% reported that move watching contributed to improving their skill. Further, 12% gave credit to internet, and 9% gave credit to private tutor. The author mentions that speaking skill is not tested at SSC and HSC exam.

Besides, students are reluctant to improve their speaking skill because classroom environment is not encouraging [at SSC and HSC level], and because speaking skill is not formally tested. The author remarks that since speaking skill is not addressed at SSC and HSC level, students encounter difficulty at tertiary level in understanding class lecture and in taking oral test. The author recommends that speaking skill should be tested at SSC and HSC level. In addition, teachers should be trained, and they should be encouraged to deliver lecture in English.

5.9.6 In his study, "How Much Reliable are Our Language Tests? A Case Study", Mohammad Humayun Kabir (Assistant Professor, Department of English Language and Literature, International Islamic University Chittagong (IIUC)) [Kabir, 2009] investigates the reliability of HSC English language test.

The author conducted a survey among 25 teachers of some higher secondary institutes under Chittagong Education Board. As an instrument of data collection, the author used structured questionnaire (containing both closed-ended and open-ended questions) which were mailed to the teachers by post. The author also examined HSC question papers and students' scripts of three colleges to analyze reliability of HSC English language test.

In the survey, 64% teachers reported that they use teachers' guide; 40% thinks that test administration system across the country is fair; 88% thinks that scorning varies from rater to rater; and 56% reported that they follow making guidelines. In response to the question about desired qualification of examiners, 10 participants (out of 25) reported that they do not know about any criteria. A close examination of the document "Instruction to examiners" [provided by the Education Board] indicates that there is no specific criteria for scoring answers of the students; teachers get insufficient time to mark scripts; and, test-takers are not informed about marking criteria. On the basis of his analysis of English First paper and Second paper questions of 2006 of Chittagong Education Board, the author suggests that

since subjective marking is applicable in most of the test items of First paper and Second paper, the reliability of the test is low. Apart from this, the author reexamined scripts of 34 students of 3 selected colleges. A close examination of students' scripts indicates a tendency of unreliable marking. For instance, teachers tend to award marks on memorized answers. Besides, they sometimes assign low scores to better answers high scores to comparatively low quality answers. Sometimes, they score whimsically, i.e. they assign same marks for low quality and high quality answers.

Finally, the author recommends that training program should be arranged for the examiners. According to author, special emphasis should be given or defining the criteria for scoring memorized answers and incomplete responses. Besides, rating criteria should be devised for poor hand writing, and brief, non-creative and simplistic answers. In addition, rating scale of TOEFL and FCE can be adopted for scoring writing section of HSC English. Further, test specifications or guidelines should be provided for test takers and test users.

5.9.7 In her article, "'Validity And Reliability'—Two Important Criteria of a Good Language Test: An Analysis of Some Test Items in Terms of Their Validity and Reliability, and Some Suggestions", Begum Shahnaz Sinha (Assistant Professor, Department of English, University of Dhaka) [Sinha, 2002] investigates validity and reliability of a language test (achievement test) designed for fresh undergraduate students of Physics department and English department.

The author examines reliability and validity of 11 test items of the language test. The author argues that 'Item No.1: objective-type questions—True-false' is reliable since it can be assessed objectively but lacks validity since students can respond correctly by guessing. 'Item no.2: Short-question answer' lacks reliability due to subjective characteristic of the question. 'Item no.3: Ordering task' contains face and content validity since it assesses

students' comprehension skills and rhetorical knowledge (coherence, organization of sentences), and it is reliable since the item can be easily marked, though teachers are not given any instruction about marking partially correct response. 'Item No.4: Vocabulary' is reliable and valid since it can be easily marked and it is a contextualized exercise. 'Item no.5: Tense-multiple-choice questions' is reliable since it can be marked easily but not valid since students may answer through guesswork. 'Item no.6: Prepositions—multiple-choice' is reliable since it can be easily addressed but lacks validity since the exercise is decontextualized and by randomly choosing a response students may get connect answer. 'Item no. 7: Completion items' lacks reliability since there might be multiple and unanticipated answers creating difficulty for marking; but it is valid since it is capable of judging students' knowledge of sentence structure. 'Item no.8: Gap filling' might not be reliable, if scorers remain uninformed about connect response; it carries low validity since it cannot assess students' ability to use grammar and vocabulary. In the writing part, 'Item no.9: Report writing' is valid since it is a communicative task with specified audience and purpose; it is also reliable, if scorers are given specific instructions about marking. 'Item no.10: Letter writing' lacks reliability due to subjective scoring; but contains validity since it assesses students' writing skills. 'Item No. 11: Essay writing' lacks reliability since it is a subjective task; it lacks validity since test questions such as "social concerns in modern literature" or "national characteristics" (p. 21) are biased toward specific disciplines. In addition, students are not asked to address any audience.

The author makes some recommendations to increase the validity and reliability of the test. First, in order to decrease the chance of accurate guessing, options such as 'not given' or 'does not say' can be included in true/false type questions. Second, authentic texts such as newspaper articles can be included in the test. Third, students may asked to create vocabulary map using synonyms or subordinate and superordinate lexis. Fourth, grammar

exercises should be contextualized. Fifth, writing task should address real audience. Sixth, scorers should be given specific criteria for marking such as "structure of the essay" (20%), "clarity of argument" (20%) etc. Seventh, there might be separate pass mark for reading, writing and grammar section to ensure holistic validity.

5.9.8 In his article, "Testing Oral Skills: Selecting Appropriate Performance Criteria", Syed Mazharul Islam (Department of English, Faculty, Independent University, Bangladesh (IUB)) [Islam, 2003] proposes a set of criteria to test speaking skills in EFL/ESL context.

By examining discussion of Underhill (1978), Weir (1988), Harris (1969), Spratt (1994), Harrison (1983), Bygate (1987), and Bachman (1990) on oral communication skill and testing criteria, the author lists the following 12 testing criteria: 'Grammatical accuracy, complexity and range', 'pronunciation', 'comprehension', 'style', 'fluency', 'content', 'cohesion', 'coherence', 'appropriateness', 'turn-taking', 'initiative', and 'communication strategies'.

In this article, the author elaborates several criteria. First, fluency should not be judged in isolation from grammatical skill. Second, intelligibility should be considered as the primary criterion to judge pronunciation. Since wrong stress, rhythm and intonation sometimes lead to incomprehensible utterance, test criteria should include stress, rhythm, and intonation. Third, style, i.e. appropriate use of language according to situation or domain should be a significant criterion in testing oral skill. Fourth, in interactional communication (i.e. short turns), range of vocabulary use may be limited whereas in transactional (long-turns) communication use of specialized vocabulary is expected. Fifth, the notion 'accuracy' in testing oral skills may be flexible; therefore, repetition, fillers, use of incomplete sentences may be accepted. Sixth, in interactional speech (i.e. short-turn), cohesion and coherence may not be expected. Seventh, in ordinary conversation, knowledge of content or subject matter

(specialized knowledge on a particular subject matter) may not be expected; but, in presentation on a particular topic, knowledge of content is significant.

The author mentions seven paralinguistic components of speaking skill: tone of the voice, facial expressions, eye contact, gestures, personal distance, appearance and clothing, and touching. The author suggests to exclude paralinguistic components from testing criteria on the ground that paralinguistic feature is contingent on culture. Finally, the author indicates that reliable and valid testing of speaking skill depend on testing oral communication skills in different tasks; therefore, testing oral communication skill in a single activity may not yield valid and reliable data on students' speaking ability.

5.10.0 Error Analysis

5.10.1 In her cross-sectional study, "Analysis of the Students' Errors in Punctuation: An Empirical Study", Kohinoor Akther (Lecturer, Department of English Language and Literature, Premier University, Chittagong) [Akhter, 2011] examines Bangla speaking EFL students' errors in the use of punctuation.

To collect data, the author used mixed-method, i.e. a combination of in-depth interview and content (students' scripts) analysis. The participants of this study include tertiary level fresh students and ELT experts from Bangladesh. In order to assess students' current proficiency level in the use of punctuation, the author assigned students to put punctuation symbols in Maupassant's unpunctuated short story ("The Umbrella") excerpt. After collecting and analyzing students' worksheets, she also interviewed tehm to understand their views about the use of punctuation.

Findings of the study can be divided into three parts: mistakes of students in punctuation, students' views about their mistakes, and teachers' views about students' mistakes. Error or mistake analysis shows that students make mistakes mostly in the region

of apostrophe (93 errors, 77% errors in comparison with errors in other punctuation symbols as found in worksheets and other samples of writing). Errors in other symbols are as follows: semicolon—89 errors (76%), comma—89 (76%), point [period]—76 (63%), colon—67 (55%), dash—52 (43%), hyphen—50 (41%), question mark—35 (29%), exclamation—33 (27%), and quotation—30 (25%). Apart from error analysis, in-depth interview with students reveal their views about the use of punctuation. The author reports that 75% students believe that semicolon is useless because comma can be used in the place of semicolon. In addition, students are not comfortable in using colon, dash, and hyphen. Further, students report that their teachers were more concerned with criticizing their writing and errors rather than teaching. In their twelve years of schooling, students were not taught punctuation. Besides, one student reports that students are familiar with only three or four punctuation marks. In an in-depth interview, an ELT expert from Bangladesh remarks that students struggle with the use of punctuation and that punctuation should be seriously taught in the classroom. Finally, the author recommends that teachers, policy makers and syllabus designers should put more emphasis on teaching punctuation.

5.10.2 In their study, "Teaching Grammar to the Undergraduate Bangladeshi EFL Learners: A Rethinking", Md. Abul Kalam Azad (Senior Lecturer, Department of English, ASA University Bangladesh) and Shamima Akter Shanta (Lecturer, Department of English, ASA University Bangladesh) [Azad & Shanta, 2012] discuss the significance of teaching grammar according to the needs of the students.

In this research, the authors analyzed grammatical errors of 43 scripts. In particular, 43 students from BBA, English, Law, and Pharmacy department of a private university were assigned to write composition on "Your best friend".

Findings of the study suggests that students made mistakes on the following areas: tense, third person singular 's,' preposition, sentence structure, use of word, article, number case, voice, degree, infinitives, and word class. The authors suggest that teachers should conduct an error analysis to identify frequent errors of the students; and explicit grammatical instruction should be designed according to the necessity of the students. The authors agree that purely communicative pedagogy might fail to develop accuracy. Therefore, there should be combination of 'focus on form' and 'focus on meaning'. The authors note two techniques of teaching grammar. First, teachers may provide formal [metalinguistic] instruction before introducing any activity. In addition, after completing communicative takes teachers may provide feedback on grammar. Second, teachers may follow the technique of consciousness-raising. There are two types of consciousness-raising: direct and indirect. In 'direct' consciousness- raising, teachers give direct explanation of grammatical points. On the contrary, in indirect consciousness-raising, learners are required to judge grammaticality of sentences. Both types of consciousness-raising activities can be conducted in the class.

The authors cite white (1987), Schmidt (1990), Thornbury (1999), Higgs and Clifford (1982), Thornbury (2001), Ellis (2002) who believe that explicit teaching of grammar accelerates the process of language learning. The authors also support the view that formal instruction on grammar is significant. However, they put forward the idea that grammar teaching should be selective, i.e. only frequent errors of the students should be addressed in an English course.

5.10.3 In his essay, "Communicative English in Bangladesh: A Feedback", S. Salahuddin Ahmed (Lecturer, Department of English, Stamford University Bangladesh) [Ahmed, 2006] analyzes errors in writing of undergraduate student of BRAC University.

The analysis of errors of students' writing indicates that students make mistakes in the use of tense, verb, degree, subject-verb agreement, wrong use of words, spelling mistakes. In addition, students tend to overuse 'so' and 'because'. The author argues that communicative language teaching approach failed in Bangladesh since it is incompatible with the socio-economic background of the country. Some other reasons for the failure of CLT involve shortage of skilled proficient English teachers and lack of infrastructural and logistic support. Therefore, the author recommends that Grammar-Translation Method should be re-introduced in Bangladesh.

5.10.4 In his article, "The Contribution of Errors Analysis to Second/Foreign Language (SL/FL) Learning and Teaching", Dr. M. Maniruzzaman (Associate Professor & Chairman, Department of English, Jahangirnagar University) [Maniruzzaman, 2003] discuses taxonomy and cause of errors, and reflects on the significance of error analysis in teaching English.

In the section entitled "classification of errors", the author documents a taxonomy of errors. Errors, as the author notes, can be primarily categorized into two groups: 'errors of competence' which results from application of wrong linguistic rules and 'errors of performance' which may occur due to stress on fatigue. Errors of competence may be classified into two groups: 'interlingual' which may occur due to L1 interference and 'intralingual' which may originate from overgeneralization of rules. Error can be further classified into 'local' (sentence/phrases) level and 'global' (which may affect interpretation of meaning).

In the section entitled "causes of errors", the author notes that the reasons of errors are: limited amount of linguistic input, L1 interference, task focus (e.g. translation tasks to be completed within limited time), and overgeneralization. In the section entitled "errors analyss", the author defines errors as a technique of identification, classification and

interpretation of 'wrong' linguistic data produced by SL/FL learners. Errors may be analyzed

by following a 'pre-selected category' approach or categories of error may be determined

after examining errors of the students. In the section entitled "significance of errors

analysis", the author identifies three importance of errors analysis with respect to language

learning. First, error analysis offers information about the effectiveness of teaching method,

technique or materials. Second, errors demonstrate the process of language

learning/acquisition. Third, errors exhibit how learners test their hypothesis about system of

target language.

Finally, the author suggests that teachers should provide positive feedback on

learners' errors. Second, grammatical explanation and structural drills may contribute to

minimize errors. Third, teachers should be tolerant towards students' errors, since errors

deteriorate learners' progress in language learning.

5.10.5 In his survey study, "The Blame Game Over Tense Errors: Curriculum Versus

Learners", S. Salahuddin Ahmed (Lecturer, department of English, Stamford University

Bangladesh) [Ahmed, 2007] investigates the causes that create difficulty for Bangla medium

students in learning tense in Bangladesh.

The author documents writing samples of undergraduate students of some private

university located in Dhaka city. The extracts of writings demonstrate errors in the use of

tense. In order to reveal the causes of these errors, the author conducts a survey study among

100 undergraduate students of different disciplines of some private universities in located

Dhaka. In a structured questionnaire, students were asked about their learning experience at

SSC and HSC level.

When asked about SSC level, 75% students reported that their teachers used textbook

in the class "regularly"; 8% students informed that their teachers encouraged them in the

class to practice tense "regularly"; 12% students reported that they "regularly" paid attention to the use of tense while discussing particular chapters; 55% students reported that their teachers never motivated them to write paragraphs on unseen topics; 66% students reported that their teachers "never" provided feedback on writing. When asked about HSC level, 69% students reported that their teachers used textbook in the class "regularly"; 8% students informed that their teachers asked them to practice the use of tense "regularly"; 9% reported that their teachers concentrated on tense "regularly" during the discussion of chapters in textbook ; 14% students reported that their teachers " regularly " motivated them to write paragraphs on unseen topics ; and, 64% students reported that their teachers " never" gave feedback on their writing. On the basics of these findings, the author generalizes that textbooks are used in the class; but the discussion of tense is not regular in the class. In addition, most of the teachers do not encourage students to practice the use of tense in class and to practice paragraphs on unseen topics. This lack of practice affects proficiency (linguistic) of the students. In other words, undergraduate student are not skilled in the use of tense, since it was not learned at SSC and HSC level.

According to the author, many chapters in the textbooks of both SSC and HSC contain discussion on tense. It is teachers' responsibility to use the text to teach tense. In SSC textbook, out of 119 lessons, 55 lessons discuss tense, and in HSC textbook 62 lessons out of 118 explicitly discuss tense.

Finally, the author recommends that teachers of schools and colleges need to be trained in CLT; second, teachers should encourage students to write paragraphs on unseen topics; and they should provide feedback on students' writing. Third, testing system should force students to read the textbook.

5.10.6 In the article, "Errors in the Free Composition of Undergraduates: A Linguistic Analysis", Shahnaz Mahmud (Asst. Prof., Dept. of English, Shahjalal University of Science and Technology, Sylhet) [Mahmud, 2009] analyzes errors in the writings of undergraduate students of Bangladesh.

The author collected writing samples from 100 second year undergraduate students of a public Science and Technology university of Bangladesh. The students were asked to write a composition on the topic 'My Future Plan" within 45 minutes.

Analysis of data reveals that students made 21% errors in the category of 'sentence construction' (i.e. phrases, clauses, complex/compound sentences etc.). The author attributes this type of errors to overgeneralization, L1 interference, and lack of proper training (i.e. induced errors). 'Word choice', the second category of error includes 20% errors. These types of errors were caused by mother tongue interference, overgeneralization and insufficient knowledge of vocabulary. 'Verb forms', the third category, constitute 15% errors which resulted from overgeneralization, overlooking rules restriction (i.e. applying rules in inappropriate context) and incomplete application of rules. 'Prepositions', the fourth category of errors, were caused by overgeneralization, overlooking rules restricution, mother tongue interference, and lack of formal training. 'Tenses', the fifth category of errors, occurred due to overgeneralization, overlooking rules restriction, lack of proper training, and lack of teaching in using tense at discourse level. 'Articles', the sixth category, involves 9% errors which were caused by overgeneralization, overlooking rules restriction, false hypothesis (i.e. misconceptualization of rules), and L1 transfer. 'Plurals', the seventh category, were caused by overgeneralization, overlooking rules restriction, and lack of proper training. 'Subject-verb agreement', the eighth category of errors, forms 7% errors which were caused by overgeneralization, overlooking rules restriction, and lack of proper training.

The author recommends that contents of the Foundation English Course [offered at the participants' university] should be designed according to the needs of the student. Second, and teaching of English should be extended to more than one semester. Third, EAP course should be introduced. Fourth, activities of writing classroom should include group work/pair work, and students should be encouraged to write on issues that interest them. Fifth, teachers should provide feedback on students' writing; in addition, peer-feedback, teacher-student conferencing, self-correction, and maintenance of error log in the class might be useful ways of giving feedback. Sixth, teachers may offer some inductive grammar lessons to students. Seventh, English language teacher should be trained in ELT.

5.10.7 In his article, "Correcting ESL Learners' Writing", Zafor Mohammad Mahmud (Lecturer, Department of English and Humanities, ULAB, Dhaka) [Mahmud, 2008] analyzes errors of undergraduate students.

The author collected writing samples of 50 first semester [undergraduate] students of ULAB. The students were assigned to write a composition on "An Eid Holiday That You Enjoyed". The author located 14 sentences from students' writing that were incomprehensible. In addition, the author documents the sentences, and provides authoritative reconstruction of them. For instance, one student wrote: "I enjoy my Eid festival very happy". The authoritative reconstruction of this sentence is: "I celebrated Eid holyday with great joy and excitement". Another student wrote: "I completed my pray". The authoritative reconstruction of this sentence is: "I said my prayer". Apart from this, in this categorization of errors, the author identifies the following types of errors: tense, wrong word order, wrong passive construction, inappropriate word, wrong article, wrong preposition, and wrong spelling.

The author explains the causes of these mistakes as well. The author argues that students cannot write correct English because they tend to directly translate [ideas] from Bangla into English. Second, students have limited number of English vocabulary in their linguistic repertoire. Third, students do not use dictionary to learn correct usage of words. Fourth, students are ignorant about the syntactic distinction between Bangla and English language. Fifth, spelling mistakes occur since students are not conscious about the lack of correspondence between English pronunciation and spelling. Sixth, prepositional errors occur since system of using preposition in Bangla and English language is different. Seventh, students prefer Grammar-Translation Method to learn English [i.e. learning through memorization]. Eighth, students are scared of making mistakes [i.e. self-consciousness of students. Ninth, reading habit of the students is not rich. Tenth, students are not competent in using idioms and phrasal verbs.

The author makes some recommendations to improve students writing skills. First, instead of correcting grammatical mistakes of the students, teachers may arrange occasional brief lessons to solve common grammatical mistakes. Second, teachers should give feedback on content and rhetorical organization (i.e. introduction, thesis statement, logical redevelopment) of writing. Third, learners should practice free writing which helps in generating ideas. Fourth, teachers should provide constructive positive feedback on students' drafts rather than commenting their final paper/assignment. Fifth, teachers may use code (e.g. WF-wrong form; WT (wrong tense) or symbols to indicate mistakes for reducing load of writing on students' papers.

5.10.8 In her article, "Learning From Learners: Constructing Evaluation and Feedback Methodology From Error Analysis", Rumana Siddique (University of Dhaka) [Siddique, 2007] explains significance of error analysis and its implication in English language teaching.

The author divides her article into two sections: theoretical background of error analysis and pedagogic implications of error analysis. In her discussion on theoretical evolution of Error Analysis (EA) the author concentrates on explaining two concepts: interlanguage and Contrastive Analysis (CA). Corder (1981) believes, as the author points out, that interlanguage should not be viewed as imperfect samples of language because it represent systematic process of language learning. Corder's notion of error analysis superseded the idea of contrastive analysis because a large number of errors cannot be explained as L1 interference. In particular, Lococo's (1975) corpus analysis shows that only 25% errors can be attributed to L1 influence. Corder (1981) conceptualizes errors as a strategy of learning a particular language which are used by both L1 and L2 learners. Thus, Corder (1967) emphasizes on the creative dimension of error which indicates circular advancement in the process of language learning. The author, however, notes some limitations of Error Analysis. First, EA can demonstrate a fragmented picture of learners' errors. Second, since most EA study tends to be cross-sectional, errors identified through the study represent one specific temporal location. Third, learners' avoidance of particular linguistic item [in speaking on writing] makes it difficult to detect all categories of errors. Fourth, EA tends to trace psycholinguistic cause of errors, leaving sociolinguistic on epistemic causes unattended.

In her discussion on the pedagogic significance of error analysis, the author makes the following recommendation. First, teachers should maintain error los of students. Second, teachers should attentively examine students' language to identify covert errors. Third, global errors should be immediately/instantly corrected and local errors may be corrected later. Fourth, different mode of correction such as self-connection, script correction, written comments, and class explanation may be selected according to the needs of the individual students. Fifth, teachers should provide positive feedback on errors.

5.10.9 In her essay, "Error Correction and Speakers of English as a Foreign Language", Farhana Ahmed (Lecturer, Department of English, University of Dhaka) [Ahmed, 2004] discusses techniques of error correction in teaching speaking skills.

In the section entitled "What is the role of error correction in EFL ?" the author notes that error correction resists fossilization. In the section entitled "What do we (teachers) correct and to what extent do we correct?" the author discusses Mendelsohn's (1990) three criteria of error correction: selective correction, constructive correction, and choosing productive items [to correct] (i.e. choosing items that would be frequently used by the students). In the section entitled "How do we correct?" the author explains five techniques of error correction. First, both teachers and peers can use feedback sheets to provide corrective feedback on linguistic and sociolinguistic components of spoken language. Second, audio and video recorders can be used to record and analyze errors. Students can reflect on their video-recorded performance (e.g. eye context, gestures, body movement etc.). The author recommends to install a built in camera in the classroom to remove uneasiness of the students. Third, teachers can correct errors and provide constructive suggestion through one-on-one tutoring. One-on-one tutoring is a "non-threatening" (i.e. anxiety-free) technique of error correction. Fourth, learners can be encouraged to correct their own errors. In other words, learners can be trained to act autonomously. Learner training can be focus on self-awareness, language awareness, risk taking, self-assessment etc. (cited from Sawkins (1987)). Fifth, teachers should be trained so that they can effectively provide corrective feedback.

Finally, the author suggests that there is no best technique for providing corrective feedback. Frequent correction of errors of spoken language might reduce students' confidence. Therefore, teachers should adopt "middle-path strategy" i.e. too much or too less correction should be avoided.

5.10.10 In their article, "Investigation Into Errors Committed by the Secondary Students (Grade-VIII) in Writing English", Fahima Huq (Research Assistant FREPD, Dhaka) and Md. Nazim Mahmud (Freelance Researcher) [Huq & Mahmud, 2010] examine grammatical errors of secondary level students of Bangladesh.

The authors collected writing samples (purposive sampling) of 120 students of Grade VIII from 12 non-government high schools of Dhaka city. Precisely, 10 students with different English language proficiency (high-average-low) from each school participated in this study. The author assigned students to write an essay (length: 150-300) on 'My Family' within 30 minutes. Thus, the sample of this study was 120 essays written by the students.

The authors detected 7 categories of errors in students' writing. The following percentage of errors has been found in each category (total number of errors was 225): Tense—37.78%, spelling—16.44%, article—14.22%, subject-verb agreement—10.67, word choice (vocabulary)—8.44%, preposition—6.67%, and miscellaneous errors—4.89%. The authors subsumed errors of punctuation, capitalization and conjunction under the category of miscellaneous errors.

The authors also conducted Focus Group Discussion in the schools to identify causes of errors. The authors point out that students are informed about the rules of tense; nevertheless, they cannot apply the rules in writing. In addition, students make mistakes in using tense when they try to translate [ideas] from Bangla into English. In particular, students struggle to decide whether they would use present or past tense while writing sentences. Spelling mistakes occur in students' writing because they tend to spell a word following its pronunciation. In addition, students appear to be careless regarding correct spelling. The students commit errors in using article, because they are uninformed about different rules (i.e. exceptional rules) of using article [irregular rules: e.g. 'an' should be used before the word 'hour']. The authors mention that students learn articles from grammar

books [limited rules of using article] only to write answer in the examination. Student cannot use appropriate words in their writing because their knowledge of vocabulary is limited.

5.10.11 In their article, "Errors and Mistakes in EFL Learners' Written Work: A Case Study", Bijoy Lal Basu (Lecturer, Department of English, University of Dhaka) and Subrata Kumar Bhowmik (Lecturer, Department of English, East west University) [Basu & Bhowmik, 2006] detected and analyzed students' errors in writing.

The authors collected writing samples from 100 undergraduate students (whom they taught in an English composition course in 2004). The students were required to write a composition on "Your Past, Present and Future" within 40 minutes. The authors also interviewed 48 randomly selected students (out of 100) to explore causes of errors.

The authors identified the following types of errors in students scripts: spelling (e.g. 'studing' for 'studying', 'lonly' for 'lonely'), tense (e.g. "I start this course last week"), agreement (e.g. "Everyone love me very much"; "I have many responsibility"), article (e.g. "I am a introvert type of girl"), verbs ("My father told me to built my carrer in economics"; "I'll always try to done what is my father's dream"), parallelism (e.g. "I want to make my parents happy and going abroad for higher study"), active/passive ("We (*) born as a child"), preposition (e.g. "I want to earn in a better means for my farther"), and lexical and others (e.g. "Life is a flowing process"; We kept busy our classroom when our teacher absented"). Precisely, the author detected 36% spelling errors and 47% grammatical errors. The authors fried to identify the causes of errors. According to the authors, spelling errors occurred because students failed to conceptualize the connection between sound and spelling in English language. The authors maintain that grammatical errors are the product of inadequate knowledge of [English] syntax. In particular, overgeneralization of rules and

[negative] L1 interference caused grammatical errors. This apart, the authors point out that errors in tense are the outcome of decontextualzed teaching of tense.

In the interview, students expressed their views regarding errors. The author generalized the following responses of the students. First, students never evaluate their own writing. Second, students are not informed about the distinction between errors and mistakes, and they never tried to analyze their own mistakes in writing. Third, students admitted that lack of concentration causes errors. Fourth, students did not develop any checklist of their errors, and they are not conscious about their frequent errors. Fifth, students pointed out that their teachers (at secondary and higher secondary level) did not provide any corrective feedback. In addition, peer review was not a regular practice in the class. Sixth, students responded in favor of identification of errors by teachers. Nevertheless, they opined that self-correction might make them conscious about their weaknesses. Seventh, students informed the authors that they had "funny" and "interesting" experience of error correction. However, students responded in favor of analyzing and correcting errors of their peers. Eighth, students opined that they can avoid silly mistakes if they become more careful. Ninth, students informed that they deploy their knowledge of Bangla while speaking or writing in English. Tenth, when asked regarding the role of teachers, students opined that teachers should be sympathetic and flexible, and they should teach "grammatical rules" and "structures" before assigning then to write correct English.

Based on their findings, the authors make the following recommendations. First, level of motivation of the students should be increased. Second, necessary grammar items should be included in the existing communicative syllabus. Third, students should be familiarized with sound patterns of English [to reduce spelling errors]. Fourth, contrastive analysis of Bangla and English syntax may be conducted to reduce L1 interference. Fifth, students may be engaged in peer correction. Sixth, students may be encouraged to develop a

checklist of their frequent errors. Seventh, teachers may arrange conferences to provide feedback on students' errors.

5.11.0 Curriculum/Syllabus and Material Design

5.11.1 In his article, "ELT Issues at Tertiary Level: CU Perspective", Ibrahim Hossain (Lecturer in English, Faculty of Arts, University of Chittagong) [Hossain, 2003] evaluates the effectiveness of "Compulsory English Course" by examining the syllabus and linguistic proficiency of the students who attended the course.

The author maintains that the syllabus of Compulsory English Course failed to take students' needs into account. In addition, the course is designed according to the principles of Grammar-Translation Method. In particular, the syllabus of the course is constituted of a grammar section, Reading Section, and writing section which indicates the exclusion of speaking and listening skills. Apart from the content of the syllabus, the author examines the materials used in the course. A close scrutiny of the teaching materials indicates that all the texts (except one: titled "Rainbow over Padma") are culturally inappropriate for Bangla speaking EFL learners, i.e. texts are taken from Euro-American contexts. In addition, texts selected for the course are beyond the level of the students. The author also identifies some obstacles that teachers encounter in this course. The course teachers are deprived of the opportunity to receive any cooperation from senior teachers; class schedule is not conducive to language learning since students come to the class after being exhausted with [all] disciplinary courses; class size is large; logistic support such as photocopier, overhead projector, TV/videos are not available for the course. The author also reports that students' attitude towards the course is also negative, i.e. they are reluctant to attend any class of the course.

Besides, Result of a proficiency test designed to elicit data for this research indicates that students who already completed Compulsory English Course failed to achieve expected mastery over four skills. On the basis of these findings, the author concludes that this course is not useful for the students.

5.11.2 In his study, "Revisiting English Language Teaching (ELT) Curriculum Design: How Appropriate is Bangladesh Higher Secondary Level National ELT Curriculum as a Learner-Centered One?", Md. Maksud Ali (Lecturer, Adjunct Faculty, Department of English Language & Literature, IIUC) [Ali, 2010] examines cultural appropriacy of HSE (Higher Secondary English) textbook and investigates whether HSE curriculum is learner-centered. This study posits two research questions: The first research question makes an attempt to explore issues of Bangladeshi socio-cultural identity in HSE curriculum/textbook. The second research question seeks to identify the needs/purposes that HSE curriculum serves.

In this study, the author adopts 'case study' approach and 'interpretive paradigm' to collect and analyze data. The researcher extracts data from HSE curriculum documents, HSE ELT teachers' Guide and textbook, Bangladesh Ministry of Education (MoE) website, National Curriculum and Textbook Board Bangladesh (NCTB) website etc. The author claims that he followed 'grounded theory' approach in his study.

Findings of the study suggest that the answer to the first research question is positive. In other words, HSE textbook promotes national integrity, solidarity, cultural heritage, sovereignty etc. Besides, English first paper textbook accommodates local beliefs, traditions and values. It also emphasizes on intercultural communication by including topics on international culture. In addition, the textbook introduces students with global changes through topics such as climate changes, pollution, green house effect, international celebrities etc. Thus, the textbook blends local and global culture. On the contrary, the answer to the

second research question appears to be negative. In particular, HSE curriculum is not learner-centered, i.e. HSE curriculum does not take students' needs and purposes into account. The process of curriculum design seems to be top-down and non-collaborative. The NCTB curriculum specialists design curriculum without any consultation with the stakeholders (e.g. students, teachers). Though the textbook claims to adopt 'progressive' or 'learner-centered' approach, the curriculum [syllabus and content] reflects reconstructionism—a product-oriented and one-size-fits-all philosophy. Besides, HSE curriculum does not have any program evaluation phase—which is another drawback of ELT curriculum.

Finally, on the basis of the findings, the author recommends that bottom-up and collaborative approach should be followed in curriculum design to ensure implementation of progressive or learner-centered philosophy of education. In other words, curriculum designers, learners and teachers should work collaboratively to design learner-centered curriculum.

5.11.3 In his essay, "Lesson Plan and its Importance in English Language Classroom", Sohel Ahmed Chowdhury (Assistant professor of English, Institute of Modern Languages, University of Chittagong) [Chowdhury, 2006] discusses significance and constituents of lesson plan. In addition, he identifies some problems in implementing lesson plan in the context of Bangladesh.

The author defines lesson plan as a detailed statement of activities in a classroom, while preparing a lesson plan, the following issues needs to be taken into consideration: level of students, educational-cultural background of students, motivation and learning styles of the students. According to the author, a lesson plan is important for effective teaching and learning. The author argues that there are four major components of a lesson plan: language,

activities, skills and content. In deciding about 'language', a teacher needs to determine presentation of a particular linguistic point [e.g. grammatical point]. 'Activities' in a lesson plan refers to a series of logical or linked tasks in which students may be engaged in group, pair on individual work. With regard to skills [speaking/listening etc.], a teacher may decide to concentrate on one or more skills or sub-skills. A fourth component of a lesson plan is that lesson plan has to be through provoking, interesting and amusing.

However, the content has to serve the needs of the students. According to the author, a lesson plan should contain lesson information (level of the class, time, number of students etc.), purpose or aim of the lesson, academic skills (e.g. reading) social skills (e.g. discipline), procedure (i.e. stages of activities), time frame, list of resources/materials and process of evaluating understanding of the students. The author mentions three strategies that may be considered in planning a lesson: a) PPP (presentation, practice, production); b) ARC (Authentic use, i.e. using authentic tasks and materials, Restricted use i.e. using newly learned linguistic items in authentic situation, and Clarification and focus i.e. drawing attention to errors and mistakes; c) 'test-teach-test' which is a modified version of ARC which starts with Restricted use.

Finally, the author identifies some difficulties/obstacles in using lesson plan in Bangladeshi EFL classroom. Some of the problems include lack of teachers trained in CLT approach, load of courses/classes on teachers (5-6 classes everyday), teachers tendency to talk more in the class, large size of classrooms (80-100 students), immovable furniture in the classrooms, lack of modern technological support (e.g. OHP, projector etc.). To solve these problems, the author argues that teachers should be trained in CLT (because lesson plan is an integral part of CLT approach) number of teachers should be increased, class size needs to be reduced (not more than 30 students), and modern technological support needs to be provided by the government.

5.11.4 In their survey study, "English Language Courses of Private Universities in Bangladesh: Primary Observations", Golam Gaus Al-Quaderi (Lecturer, Department of English, Dhaka University), Bushra Khanum (Lecturer, Department of English, United International University [Bangladesh], and SK. Nahid Neazy (Lecturer, Department of English, Stamford University Bangladesh) [Quaderi, Khanum, & Neazy, 2004-2005] explore perceptions of teachers and students about language course offered in private universities.

The participants of this study were 24 teachers and 76 students (randomly selected) from 6 private Universities of Bangladesh. The author used structured questionnaire to elicit data from the respondents.

Findings of the study suggest that most of the universities (among the selected universities) offer language courses according to the level of students. Second, most of the teachers believe that languages courses offered at their universities meet the needs of the students. Third, when asked about the weakness of the students with regard to discrete skills, most of the teachers identified grammar and vocabulary as weakest points. When asked about suggestions for improving courses, majority of the teachers suggest to follow integrated approach [four skills] in these courses. Other teachers suggest that learners-centered class, language workshop, updated syllabus, logistic support are required to improve the courses. When asked about the necessity uniformity of language courses offered at different private universities, most of the teachers (13 teachers) agreed with the idea, though 7 teachers did not agree with the idea. Apart from teacher, students were asked whether there is any difference between HSC level English and University English. Most of the students answered positively. When asked about use of English in the classroom, 56 Students replied that [only] English should be used in the classroom whereas 16 students opined that Bangla should also be used along with English. Students were also asked whether there should be any pre-requisite English for weak students. In response to this question, 71 students answered

positively. When asked about significance of discrete skills, most of the students identified

grammar, speaking and vocabulary as the most important skills. Besides, 57 students think

that the language courses of their universities are effective to improve English. In addition,

most of the students suggest that language courses should focus on teaching from skill.

On the basis of research findings, the authors suggest that there should be a placement

test to place students in different sections according to their level; classes should be

interactive and student-centered; there should be teachers with ELT degrees; and in-house

conference and workshops may be organized to evaluate from [outcome] of the courses.

5.11.5 In his essay, "English Across the Curriculum at the Tertiary Level: Some Reflections",

Md. Obaidul Hamid [Hamid, 2005] examines the effectiveness of English Foundation course

(FC-2) offered at Dhaka University. In particular, the author discusses the level of

motivation of the students in this course.

The author notes that FC-2 is a compulsory course for the students of undergraduate

level at Dhaka University. He observes that the course failed to improve linguistic

proficiency of the students. He identifies some reasons that appear to be responsible for the

failure of FC-2 in improving linguistic proficiency of the learners. First, motivation of the

learners in this course is low. Students are mainly concerned with getting good marks rather

than learning. Besides, some students simply study to pass the examination. The second

reason for the failure of the course is associated with an administrative decision on testing

and evaluation system. Students can add only ten marks from this course to their 'honours'

on 'pass' (disciplinary) result. In other words, if students obtain marks above 33, upto 10

marks above 33 is counted. This 'ridiculous' system demotivates students with low

proficiency. The author remarks that only good students take the opportunity to add some

marks to their disciplinary result. A third reason for the failure of the course is that the

course was a top-down imposition. Particularly, State did not consult with experts before imposing this course at university level. The author documents some expert opinions about the introduction of compulsory English course at University level. For instance, Amin (1986) and Rahman (1986) oppose the idea of introducing compulsory English at tertiary level because students are not motivated to learn English. Finally, the author argues that the Foundation English course does not have any positive impact upon students because students are not motivated and the course was imposed without any consultation with experts, and without improving infrastructure and necessary resources.

5.11.6 In her essay, "Teaching Fundamental English Course for Undergrad Students: A Sample Course Design and its Practice", Sayma Arju (Lecturer, Department of English, Stamford University Bangladesh) [Arju, 2005] discusses contents and activities of a language course.

The author notes that in teaching grammar teachers should address the common mistakes of the students. For instance, contents of a grammar lesson may include sentence structure, phrase, clause, number, verb, subject-verb agreement, use of conditionals, articles, prepositions etc. According to the author, teachers should explain grammatical rules and provide examples to demonstrate the function of a grammatical structure. Activities of a language course, as the author notes, may involve puzzles, information-gap activity, guided writing, guessing meaning of words, note taking from listening and reading text, making outlines of a text, picture description etc. Test item of a language course may include open-ended question, multiple choice questions, guided writing, grammar, note taking, outlining, activities based on pictures etc.

Finally, the author argues that teachers should evaluate their own teaching. In addition, teachers should incorporate different types of activities in the class in accordance with the

objective of the course. Further, the author proposes a sequence of teaching grammar: (a) verb, (b) clause, (c) separating sentence (d) [joining] sentence, (e) punctuation, (f) fragment, run-ons.

5.11.7 In her article, "Development of Materials Evaluation Checklist", Diana Alaghbari (Teacher, Taiz University, Yemen) [Alaghbari, 2009-10] discusses the process of generating evaluation checklist to judge language teaching materials/books.

The author reviews propositions of McGrath (2002), Cunningsworth (1995), and Grant (1987) about material evaluation. McGrath's evaluation process involves three types of evaluation: Trialing, feedback from other users, and armchair evaluation (to identify obvious suitability). Cunningsworth explains three stages of material evaluation: Pre-use evaluation, in-use evaluation, and post-use evaluation. Grant suggests three parameter for material evaluation: whether the material suits learners' needs, interests, and level of proficiency; whether the material suits the teacher; whether the is synchronic with the demand of the syllabus and examination of an institution. The author borrows Grant's criterion "does it [the textbook] suit your students?" to develop her own criteria. She modifies Grant's criterion to "how well would it suit your students?" and generates four categories under this criterion: Practical considerations (i.e., physical features of the book), design (layout and presentation), language content, (skill, functions and linguistic item), subject matter (topics). The second criterion of the author is: "How well does it suit you, (i.e. the teacher)?". In her design of evaluation checklist, the author used 'yes-no-comment' pattern to elicit response (e.g. "is the language used in the textbook authentic?: Yes-no-comment). The author reports that she evaluated *New Headway* and *Language to go* using her checklist and it worked well. However, a trialing of the checklist revealed that a teacher could not understand the following question of the checklist: "Is it culturally appropriate in terms of topics and visual material?"

Therefore, the author changed this question into: "Is it free from any topics or images that would be considered a taboo?" Another limitation of the author's checklist was (as she identified on the basis of feedback of teachers) that it did not include any statement on exercise and questions in a material or textbook.

5.11.8 In her study, "The Effectiveness of the ELT Component at the B. Ed. Programme in Bangladesh: A Critical Perspective", Nasreen Sultana (Lecturer in English, University of Liberal Arts Bangladesh (ULAB)) [Sultana, 2011] examines B. Ed. syllabus and presents findings of a survey among pre -service and in-service B. Ed. students.

The author closely examines the contents of B. Ed. syllabus. Findings suggest that there is a synchronic connection between the objective and contents of the course. Second, the syllabus contains discussion of modern methods such as GTM, CLT, Audio-Lingual Method etc. Third, the syllabus includes four skills and grammar. However, guidelines about materials and teaching these skills are absent in the syllabus. Fourth, the syllabus provides opportunities for peer-teaching and microteaching. Fifth, the syllabus does not train trainee-teachers about the use of teaching aids such as OHP or PowerPoint. In addition, it does not teacher the process of material production. Sixth, the syllabus lacks a comprehensive discussion on language testing system.

The author conducted a survey among B. Ed. students to identify their perception and experience of B. Ed. course. The participants of this study involve 35 randomly selected pre-service trainees from Dhaka, Mymensingh and Comilla, and 35 randomly selected in-service (high school level) trained teachers from 6 schools of Dhaka , Mymensingh and Comilla. The author used structured questionnaire to elicit data from the participants.

Findings of the survey study indicate that participants hold positive attitudes towards B. Ed. Program. However, some [in-service] teachers remarked that methodology of

teaching four skills and grammar [taught in B.Ed. course] is not effective in real classroom. Many pre-service teachers opined that B. Ed. program maintains a balance between theory and practice. However, respondents of this study indicated that B. Ed. classroom is teacher-centered and mechanical. Modern technological supports such as OHP, films, PowerPoint are minimally used. Instructors use handouts and posters. With regard to opportunities for practice teaching [microteaching], pre-service trainees expressed their dissatisfaction whereas in-service trained teachers indicated that they are satisfied. Besides, the respondents reported that reflective and self-evaluative teaching is encouraged in the B. Ed. course.

The author recommends that modern technological support system should be established. Second, length of B. Ed. program should be extended from 12 months to 18 months. Third, training institutes should regularly organize ELT seminars and workshops. Fourth, internship system may be introduced for B. Ed. students. Fifth, B.Ed. syllabus should include discussion on material production. Sixth, contents on testing system should be revised to introduce a comprehensive training on language testing. Seventh, government should increase budget for teacher training institutes.

5.11.9 In her article, "Teaching Speaking Through Public Speaking Course", Shampa Iftakhar (Senior Lecturer, Department of English, Stamford University Bangladesh) [Iftakhar, 2012] evaluates 'public speaking' course offered at Stamford University Bangladesh, and explores teachers' and students' opinions about the course.

The process of data collection spans over 5 months (from March 2012-July 2012). The participants of this study involve 35 students from Law discipline and Journalism discipline, and 6 [English language] teachers of Stamford University Bangladesh. The author elicited data through structured questionnaire and interview. In addition, the author observed

36 [public speaking] classes, and examined documents such as course outline and exam question.

Analysis of teachers' data indicates that public speaking class is teacher-centered; students are shy and their level of confidence is low; class size is large (30-35 students). Analysis of students' presentations reveals the following problems in speech: grammar, pronunciation, fluency, vocabulary, logical development of ideas, and posture. Apart from this, logistic supports such as OHP, multimedia, speaker etc. are not always available. Besides, duration of class (1 hour 15 minutes) and number of classes (22 classes) are inadequate to improve speaking skills of students. However, teachers opined that this course is useful for students in improving oral communication skill. They encourage their students to watch English programs on television. One teacher pointed out that the title 'Public Speaking' indicates that the course should deal with formal speech—which is challenging for the students. According to this teacher, students need to acquire proficiency in informal communication in English [rather than formal communication skill].

Analysis of students' data indicates that nervousness during speaking in English is a common problem. In addition, students' knowledge of vocabulary and grammar is poor. Students remark that one semester is inadequate to improve speaking skills. They also reported that noise outside the university building and power failure interrupt classroom activities; and logistic support such as microphone is not available in their university. In addition, students mentioned that their classmates are not supportive and attentive audience. However, students identified some positive aspects of the course. For instance, course teachers motivate students and provide construction feedback.

Finally, the author suggests that teachers should motivate learners in speaking class. In addition, students' errors should be viewed positively. Further, no employee of the

university should be allowed to speak Bangla [i.e. L1] in the university premise to ensure English speaking environment.

5.11.10 In their survey study, "Teaching Reading Under Foundation English Course to Business Students: A Study of Relevance and Effectiveness", Md. Shayeekh-Us-Saleheen (Senior Lecturer, Department of English, Northern University Bangladesh) and Muhammad Fazle Ramzan Khan (Lecturer, Department of English, ASA University Bangladesh) [Saleheen & Khan, 2007] investigate relevance of Foundation English course to Business students, and language teachers' familiarity with business texts.

The participants of this study include 70 students and 25 teachers from 12 private universities of Bangladesh. The authors collected data through structured questionnaire, interview, and observation.

Analysis of students' response reveals that 67.45% students reported that reading section of Foundation English course covers "a little" text on business context [very small portion]. 62.23% students responded that the course materials rarely ("a little") benefit them. 68.34% students reported that teachers' lectures do not include any word/expression from the discourse of Business Studies. 61.11% students responded that they do not learn any word/expression related to Business Studies from the reading section of the course. 59.76% students reported that Foundation English Reading helps "a little" to read texts/books on Business Studies. 62.50% students reported that they do not find any difference between the vocabulary taught in [Foundation English Course] and the vocabulary items they were taught in school and college.

Analysis of teachers' data indicates that 92% teachers did not study any Business text in their BA and MA program. 80% teachers reported that they are not familiar with [the techniques of] teaching Business reading. 100% teachers reported that contents of

Foundation English course are not relevant to Business reading and the course does not help students learning to read books on Business Studies. 100% teachers reported that the texts that they teach do not contain Business word/expressions. However, 64% teachers occasionally use Business jargons to give practical examples in the class. In addition, 96% teachers opined that content of Foundation English course should be modified. Finally, the authors recommend that Foundation English course for Business students should incorporate reading texts from Business discourse.

5.11.11 In her article, "The Effectiveness of the B.Ed. English Syllabus: A Textual Analysis of the Syllabus From a Critical Point of View", Nasreen Sultana (Lecturer, Department of English and Humanities, University of Liberal Arts Bangladesh) [Sultana, 2010-2011] evaluates contents of B.Ed. English syllabus.

The author sets the following criteria to examine B.Ed. English syllabus: Course content, skills, methodology, instructional aids and material production, and language testing. Analysis reveals that objectives of the syllabus are reflected in its contents. In particular, the objectives of the syllabus involve imparting pedagogic knowledge, methodological/technical knowledge, and reflective practice. In line with these objectives, course contents include comprehensive discussion on ELT curriculum in Bangladesh, teaching of four skills and practice of self-reflection. Second, the syllabus contains discussion on ELT methodologies including GTM, Direct method, Situational Method, Audio-Lingual method, CLT, and Eclectic Method. Third, the syllabus involves training on teaching four skills, grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation. In addition, use of role-play, group work/pair work is encouraged in teaching four skills. Fourth, syllabus suggests the use of blackboard as teaching aids. Fifth, the syllabus includes a brief discussion on language testing.

The author points out the following limitations of the syllabus. First, possibilities of such teaching aids as Power Point, OHP are not recognized in the syllabus; second, the syllabus does not train trainee-teachers to design language teaching materials. Third, discussion on language testing is not comprehensive.

The author recommends that B.Ed. syllabus should encourage the use of modern teaching aids such as OHP or Power Point; second, the syllabus should include teaching of designing language test. However, the author concludes that B. Ed. English syllabus is effective.

5.11.12 In her article, "Residual Cultural Imperialism in Primary Textbooks in Bangladesh: A Critique of the *English For Today* Textbooks", Ms. Akhter Jahan (Senior Lecturer, East West University) [Jahan, 2012] critiques cultural components of *English for Today* (class 1-5) books of NCTB (National Curriculum and Textbook Board) of Bangladesh.

The author identifies the following limitations of EFT textbook series (2010, 2011) for primary level. First, the "textbooks have overemphasized the maintenance of the politeness principles of the centre" (p. 84) such as making requests in conversation. According to the author, such linguistic [and cultural] norms might "appear strange" (p. 84) to Bangla speaking children and create "confusion" (p. 84) among them. In addition, representation of politeness principles of English culture might imply superiority of English [language and culture]. Second, "conversation cues" (p. 85) presented in the EFT textbooks encourages authoritative role (e.g. command, request, instruction) of the teachers and passivity of the learners. In addition, negotiation of meaning is not gives any importance. This might lend to an understanding that English is the language of authority and power represented by the teacher. Third, a pussy cat meeting the queen in London in a rhyme (class 1), a teddy bear with polished shoes (class 1) in another rhyme, and visual images of King's

men and horses used with 'Humpty Dumpty' rhyme (class 2) are representative of imperial culture. Young learners might have to struggle to make sense of these culturally alien contents. Fourth, juxtaposition of upper class and lower class culture in EFT, according to the author, is insensitive (p.86). In particular, EFT of class 4 contains lesson on food habit of poor village farmer and of urban middle class family. The author contends that depiction of economic inequality of the society may induce "rural students [ ] towards materialistic gains in life" (p.86). Fifth, comparative representation of urban and rural life exposes that modern facilities such as zoo, flyovers, multi-storied buildings (class 5), children's park and museum (callas 4) are unavailable in the villages though rural children can intention themselves through flying kites, chasing frogs or playing on the swings (class 4). The author argues that knowledge about differences between rural and urban life "can raise YLs appreciation for cosmopolitan culture and make them detest their local identities" (p.87). Sixth, the textbooks promote pronunciation standard of the center which is Manifested tested in the lessons on stress and intonation (class 4, 5).

The author makes the following recommendations. First, the textbooks should be designed to facilitate negotiation of meaning. Second, examples of the interconnections between Bangla and English culture should be "more culture-sensitive and age-sensitive" (p. 88). Third, there should be a balanced representation of rural, urban and indigenous culture. Fourth, teacher training programs offered government should emphasize contextual and cultural sensitivity [in language teaching].

5.11.13 In her survey, "Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), and *English for Today (EFT)*: Our Dream vs. Reality", Begun Shahnaz Sinha (Associate Professor, Department of English, University of Dhaka) [Sinha, 2005-2006] investigates teachers' perception about the effectiveness of CLT and EFT [of SSC and HSC].

The participants of this study include 50 secondary and higher secondary level trainee teachers at NAEM. The author used closed-ended questionnaire to elicit data.

Findings of the survey indicate that most of the teachers (93%) are familiar with the term CLT. However, most of the teachers (78%) are uncomfortable with this method, and 71% is uniformed about the role of teacher in CLT. 35% participants reported that they use English as a medium of instruction whereas 40% reported that use of English as a medium of instruction cause problems for student. 25% reported that they engage students in group work and pair work whereas 72% opined that group work/pair work cannot be arranged in Bangladeshi educational institutions due to lack of logistic support. In addition, most of the teachers reported that large class size, unavailability of logistic support, psychological factors such as low motivation, negative attitude to CLT, and anxiety are impediments in the process of implementing CLT. This apart, 79% teachers believe that lecture mode is appropriate for teaching English in Bangladesh, and 61% believes that CLT is not better than GTM. Besides, 81% teachers reported that students do not take part in speaking activities.

In response to the questions on textbook (EFT), majority of the teachers reported that they are not comfortable with using EFT; the textbook does not contribute to develop four skills of the students; and learners find it difficult to deal with grammar section, vocabulary section and [texts on foreign culture]. In addition, most of the teachers opined that literary texts should be included in EFT; evaluation system and textbook should be changed; and in-service and pre-service training is necessary to handle the textbook. 88% teachers reported that they find it difficult to complete lessons due to short duration of class (40-45 minutes), and 51% teachers reported that students are not motivated to study the textbook. However, 93% teachers reported that teacher's guide is helpful. The author, based on the data, argues that teachers' attitude toward CLT is negative.

The author points out that EFT of SSC and HSC level encourages active participation of the students and provides opportunities for learners to practice for skills. However, the author argues that the textbooks contain large number of "difficult vocabularies" (p. 58). In addition, the author indicates, length of the textbooks is large, i.e. the textbooks include huge number of lessons that cannot be covered using short class duration (average: 45-50 minutes).

Finally, the author recommends that literary texts and more grammar lessons should be included in the textbooks. Second, 5-10% marks may be allocated for speaking skill. Third, in-service and pre-service teacher training program should be arranged. Fourth, Bangladeshi teachers may synthesize both CLT and GTM in the classroom.

5.11.14 In their article, "Using Newspapers as Authentic Material in EFL/ESL Classroom", Shaheda Akter (Lecturer, North South University), Arjumand Ara (Assistant Professor, University of Asia Pacific), and Takad Ahmed Chowdhury (Assistant Professor, University of Asia pacific) [Akter, Ara, & Chowdhury, 2010] discuss advantages and limitations of using newspapers as authentic material in English language classroom.

The authors point out three positive aspects of using newspaper in the classroom: 'availability', 'familiarity' and 'variety of topics'. In other words, newspaper is available throughout the country and it is not a costly resource; second, newspaper is linguistically and culturally familiar—linguistically familiar because it tends to avoid complex syntax and culturally familiar since it contains local issues. Third, newspaper covers various topics ranging from Business to literature. Therefore, newspaper articles can be used to teach ESP students.

The authors mention that newspaper can be used to teach writing (e.g. fill in the blanks exercise or report writing), speaking, and critical reading. In the 'appendix-1' of the article the authors provide sample activities for critical reading in which students are asked to

describe the theme of a 'news story' and to express their opinions. In writing activities, students are required to write summary. In speaking activity, students are given a published interview in newspaper (as a sample) to interview each other.

The authors mention some limitations of using newspapers in the language classroom. For instance, newspapers might contain incorrect usage of English; understanding of content might require extensive local or global cultural schema; and construction of activities from newspapers might be time-consuming. However, the authors maintain that these limitations can be transcended in the following way. First, reputed newspapers can be selected to avoid incorrect usage of language; second, teachers may discuss both local and global culture; third, teachers should receive training on designing teaching materials from newspapers within a short time. In addition, vocabulary can also be taught from newspapers.

5.11.15 In her article, "Development of Communication Strategies Tasks as the Means to an End", Dr. Dil Afroze Quader (Associate Professor, English, IML, University of Dhaka) [Quader, 1998] investigates communication strategies used by Bangladeshi EFL learners.

The author observed EFL classrooms at IML (Institute of Modern Language) from 1996-1998. The classrooms that the author observed were organized for a non-credit course consisted of [undergraduate students] of different departments. The author used 'field-note' as an instrument for data collection.

In this study the author explores first-language strategy (i.e. conscious transfer: literal translation (e.g. leg fingers (toes)) and language switch (e.g. panta vat)) and second-language strategy (i.e. paraphrasing: approximation, word coinage, and circumlocution) (based on Tarone's (1977) typology) used by the students. Findings suggest that female students initially used risk-avoiding strategy (i.e. avoidance or message adjustment). However, as they were [regularly] paired with male students they gained confidence and participated in

extended interaction gradually. Therefore, the author argues that "time for familiarization with each other" and "gender" are two determinant of strategy use. Analysis of data reveals that students used English-based strategies more (over-generalization of rules: 14, memorized holophrases/approximations: 44; total 58) than Bangla-based strategies, i.e. conscious transfer (translation/coining words: 29; language switch: 22; total: 51). Based on these findings, the author argues that Bangladeshi EFL learners use communication strategies when they are pressurized.

The author indicates the following pedagogic implications of this research: (a) teachers should create opportunities in the classroom to encourage use of communication strategies; (b) classroom should be students-centered; (c) negotiation [of meaning] should be encouraged; and (d) students may be engaged in informal conversation with a focus on fluency.

5.11.16 In their article, "A Historical Perspective of English Language Education System With Special Reference to Bangladesh: An Analysis", Sadia Jabeen Rahman (Lecturer, English and Communication Skill, School of Business, American International University [Bangladesh] [AIUB]), Kaspia Sultana (Lecturer, Department of English, Asian University of Bangladesh), and Shamim Ahsan Khan (Lecturer, Department of English, Asian University of Bangladesh) [Rahman, Sultana, & Khan, 2004] investigate students' opinion about English language teachers and teachers' opinion about students.

The participants of this study involves 80 BBA (randomly selected) students and 12 English language teachers from 3 private and 1 public university (20 students from each university). Some teachers of non-English departments also participated in the study. The authors elicited data using questionnaire. In addition, the authors interviewed some teachers as well.

Analysis of data shows that students' perception about English language teachers is negative. In particular, when students were asked to evaluate "English teacher rapport", "English teacher competence", "English teacher inspiration", "English course evaluation", "English course comfortability", "English course utility" and "English course interest", 55, 59, 57, 59, 44, 55, and 59 students opted for the option 'not at all satisfactory' respectively. On the other hand, majority of the teachers opined that they are not satisfied [i.e. 'not at all satisfactory'] with students' effort of studying English, enthusiasm in learning English, motivation in learning English, and attitude toward English language course. Besides, 5 teachers out of 12 opined that they are "not at all" satisfied with students' cognitive ability to learn English; 6 teachers out of 12 are "not at all" satisfied with students' mindful attendance in the language class and respectfulness towards teachers. Apart from the survey the authors make some general observations about the use of English in Bangladesh. The authors suggest that English is significant in Bangladesh for occupational and academic purposes.

In the interview, one private university teacher at MBA level [teacher of financial accounting] opined that "students…did not achieve a minimum language ability to go through any post graduate studies" (p. 161). Another teacher who teaches MBA (Management) at National University remarks that students "do not have any listening comprehension of the [English] language" (p. 161).

5.11.17 In their article, "Checking Learning and Learner Views: A Case Study", Md. Obaidul Hamid (Lecturer, Department of English, University of Dhaka) and Iffat Jahan (Part-time teacher, Department of English, University of Dhaka) [Hamid, & Jahan, 2001] investigate students' views about effectiveness of English language course.

The participants of this study include 25 [First year undergraduate] students Arts Faculty of Dhaka university. The researchers organized four consecutive classes (in four

consecutive days) for the students in June 2001. In the fifth day, the authors elicited data using UEQ (Unit Evaluation Questionnaire). Besides, the authors used closed-ended questionnaire and open-ended interview to collect data.

The UEQ is designed to elicit students' opinions about course materials, activities, and learning. In response to questions about course materials 48% students reported that course materials were "neither difficult nor easy" whereas 25% responded that the materials "could have been less difficult". Besides, 64% students reported that the materials were "relevant and interesting"; 20% responded that "not very relevant but interesting"; 9% answered "neither relevant nor interesting". In response to the question about instructional modes (lecture, whole-class discussion, pair-work, group-work, individual task and role-play), 40% students identified "lecture" as the most (top ranked) preferable mode of instruction. In response to the question about activities, 53.7% students reported that activities were "very interesting and useful"; 39% responded "not very interesting but useful". Besides, 88% selected the parameter "very interesting and useful" when asked about the activity of "comparing Anglo-American and Bangladeshi behaviors". In response to the question about how much they learned from the course (four days), 30% reported "very much", 45.6% responded "much", 20.4% answered "just a little", and 1.2% reported "not at all".

In order to investigate the participants' opinions about the usefulness of UEQ, the authors designed a follow-up questionnaire (closed-ended). In response to the question about usefulness of the question, 12 respondents answered "very useful", 12 answered "useful", and 1 answered "slightly useful". In response to the question whether it is necessary to evaluate learning [outcome] of a class, 22 students responded "very important" and 3 responded "important". In response to the question whether teachers' investigation of learners' views and its reflection on instruction would facilitate learning, 22 responded "yes, definitely" and

3 answered "yes, perhaps". In response to the question whether use of UEQ could be helpful for them in FC-2 [Foundation Course 2 offered to first year undergraduate students of Arts faculty at Dhaka University], 20 students answered "yes, definitely", 4 answered "yes, possibly", and 1 answered "no, perhaps not". In the open-ended interview, students expressed positive attitude toward UEQ.

Finally, the authors suggest that use of UEQ in the class may ensure accountability of teaching-learning process. Second, UEQ might guide revision activities. Third, UEQ may be a tool for continuous assessment of teaching learning.

5.11.18 In her article, "A Comparative Analysis of English Language and English Literature Essay Topics", Nevin Farida (Professor, Department of English, University of Dhaka) [Farida, 2008 & 2009] examines questions (essays) of English language course and literature course.

The data for this study include question papers [of final examination] and essay topics assigned by the teacher in tutorial classes of first year English major students of Dhaka University (years: 2000-2006). The author examines 'field-subfield', 'rhetorical purpose' and 'information source and object of enquiry' of essay topics.

The author collected data on language essay topics from FC 2 (Foundation Course 2, an English language course for Arts faculty students). By examining essay topics (57) of this course the author identifies the following main fields: 'place', 'people' and 'education'. The subfield of place includes 'festivals', 'life in Dhaka University' etc; subfields of people include 'likings/dislikings', 'future plans' etc; and subfield of education includes 'learning style' and 'problems'. Analysis of 'rhetorical purposes' of the essay topics reveal three categories: Description-Recount (34 essays out of 57), Explanation (15 essay topics out of 57) and Position-Reason (6 out of 57). Analysis of information source and object of enquiry

of essay topics indicates that source of information for these essay topics is pre-existing knowledge, and object of enquiry is phenomenal (i.e. concrete information such as events, processes etc.).

The author collected data on essay topics of literature from the following courses: 'Introduction to poetry', 'Introduction to prose' and 'Introduction to drama'. The author collected 167 essay topics (49 long questions and 118 short questions). The following major categories emerged from field-subfield analysis: Characterization (subfield: women, tragic heroes etc.), themes (social human) (subfield: colonialism, money etc.), and themes (internal human) (subfield: love, death, conflict etc.). Analysis of rhetorical purpose of instructional words in terms of illocutionary force and perlocutionary effect reveals the following major categories (organizational markers): 'compare-contrast', 'discuss', 'yes-no question word', and 'wh-question word'. However, the author points out that irrespective of organizational markers, discourse community of literature expect analytical answers. The author identified three major category of rhetorical functions of literary essay topics: 'compare and contrast', 'position-reason' and 'evaluative'. Analysis of information source and object of enquiry suggests that 'source of information' includes textual and theoretical reference and 'object of enquiry' is metaphenomenal (i.e. abstract ideas, theories etc.). Finally, the author points out a significant distinction between essay topics of literary course and essay topics of language course. Essay topics of language course is "formulated in terms of titles only" (p. 21) (e.g. 'The campus of Dhaka University') whereas literacy essay topics represent questions (e.g. Is Shylock "more sinned against than sinning? ["]).

5.11.19 In her article, "The Representation of Women in *English for Today* (EFT) for Classes IX-X", Pratiti Shirin (Lecturer, Department of English, University of Dhaka) [Shirin, 2010] critically analyzes portrayal of women in EFT IX-X [2001] book.

The author uses Mcdonough and Shaw's (1993) notion of macroevaluation (e.g. visual materials, gender bias etc.) and microevaluation (e.g. whether materials are motivating to students). In addition, the author adopts Fairclough's (1989, 1992) framework of three levels of language learning activities: Social practice [i.e. representation of society], discursive practice, and textual practice.

Analysis of the textbook reveals that "women have been adequately represented in the book" (p. 38). In particular, out of 22 units only 2 units do not represent women. Most of the units contain "at least one lesson which represents women" (p. 38). Besides, 'Prominent' representation of women have been found in 14 units. In the section titled "units which do not feature women", the author points out that Unit 14 ("Buildings and Monuments") and 5 ("On the move") do not represent women. However, Lesson 3 of Unit 5 exhibits instances of GFL (gender friendly language). In the section entitled "units which feature women marginally" the author notes that Unit 6, 8, 12, 13, 15, and 22 represent women marginally [in terms of quantity of discussion on women]. For instance, Unit 12 contains less number of pictures of famous women in comparison with that of man. In the section entitled "Units which feature women prominently", the author points put that Unit 1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 9, 10, 11, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, and 21 represent women "prominently". For instance, Lesson 2 ("women power") of Unit 11 shows that women can take up 'non-traditional' professions such as working in garment industry and advertisement agency.

Finally, the author concludes that teachers should be trained so that they can teach EFT effectively. In addition, this book can function to raise awareness about women's rights. In short, "a great deal of attention has been paid to women in the book" (p. 39).

5.11.20 In his article, "An SL/FL Syllabus and the Rationale Behind its Design", Md. Maniruzzaman (Lecturer, Department of English, Jahangirnagar University) [Maniruzzaman, 1995-1996] describes essential components of an SL/FL syllabus.

The author divides necessary elements of a syllabus into four sets: Set A, set B, set C, and set D. Set A consists of five components: statement about the learners (e.g. age, sex, educational level, learning style, class etc.), statement about aims and needs, starting and target level needs and the determination of deficiencies (if any), information about duration (i.e. course duration, class duration etc.), and information about teacher[s] (e.g. qualification, training etc.). Set B contains three elements: content (e.g. grammar, vocabulary [specification], time (i.e. semester system or course system), and sequencing of teaching items. Set C comprises of three elements: methodology (e.g. direct method, CLT etc.), aids and equipment (e.g. chalk board, OHP, computer), and books and materials. Set D contains three components: examination, [relationship with] other educational level, and relation to teacher training (i.e. long term or short-term training). The author contends that these components need to be specified in designing SL/FL syllabus.

The author points out the difference between 'syllabus' and 'curriculum' as conceptualized in British academia and North American academia. In British academia, 'syllabus' means content of a particular subject whereas 'curriculum' means 'totality of content' in accordance with the objective of an education system. On the other hand, in the North American academic, the term 'curriculum' is used interchangeably with 'syllabus' [which means statement of goals of an education system].

The author mentions that syllabus design is connected with three factors: psycholinguistic [i.e. specification of linguistic content and activities], sociolinguistic [i.e. use of learned linguistic knowledge in society] and pedagogic [i.e. educational philosophy, teacher-student relationship etc].

5.11.21 In her article, "Introducing Critical Thinking in EFL Classrooms", Liza Reshmin (Centre for Languages [CfL], BRAC University, Dhaka) [Reshmin, 2011] explains the term 'Critical Thinking' and describes how critical thinking can be taught in EFL class using a systematic lesson plan.

Citing Cottrell (2005), the author notes that critical thinking refers to a method of reasoning systematically. Cottrell identifies three properties of critical thinking: First, knowing one's own reason (i.e. ability to analyze one's own stance); second, capacity to evaluate others' reasoning; third, capacity to formulate and present one's own reasoning. Besides, the ability to select, categorize, and judge is an integral process of critical thinking.

Apart from explaining definition of 'critical thinking' the author also notes the reasons of teaching 'critical thinking' to EFL students. First, critical thinking skill would help students to analyze, interpret, and construct ideas on arguments. Second, critical thinking skill would improve students' ability to use logic, synthesize ideas, demarcate between facts and hypothesis, and infer from evidences.

In this article, the author documents a lesson plan to teach critical thinking using Bloom's taxonomy. This lesson plan is designed for upper-intermediate level students. The lesson plan contains three columns: 'instructional objectives', 'CT [critical thinking] strategy', and 'Bloom's domain and level'. The first instruction involves activating schemata of the students by using 'egocentricity' or 'sociocentricity' as CT strategy which falls under cognitive- knowledge level of Bloom's taxonomy. The second instruction requires students to express their views and formulate answers applying particular concepts. This task employs the following CT strategy: comparison and transference of knowledge to new a context which is subsumed under cognitive-application level of Bloom's taxonomy. The third instruction asks students to interpret underlying meaning of an advertisement using "exploring" CT strategy which falls under cognitive-comprehension level of Bloom's taxonomy. The fourth

instruction requires students to make a presentation (oral) on explicit and implicit messages encoded in the advertisement (i.e. how advertisement influences real life). This task involves 'listening critically' CT strategy and falls under cognitive-analysis level of Bloom's taxonomy. The fifth instruction requires students to design a new advertisement using 'reasoning' CT strategy which falls under cognitive-synthesis level of Bloom's taxonomy.

5.11.22 In his article, "Teaching ELT Course Materials at the Tertiary Level: Suitability and Challenges", Md. Kamrul Hasan (Assistant Professor, Department of English, United International University) [Hasan, 2009-10] evaluates the textbook *Compiled English Course Book* used at undergraduate level of United International University.

The author describes some features of *Compiled English Course Book* . The texts of this book have been taken from other ELT books (e.g. John Langan's *Sentence Skills*; E.L. Tibbits's *Exercises in Reading Comprehension*; and John Eastwood's *Oxford Practice Grammar*. Second, this book includes visual materials [picture]. Third, the book contains factual as well as "funny" anecdotal passages. Fourth, the book includes authentic materials. Fifth, every lesion is accompanied by a test section [at the end of the lesion].

In the section entitled "Methodology", the author uses "retrospective" method to evaluate this textbook. In particular, the author conducted a questionnaire survey among 210 BBA students (in Summer 2009, Spring 2009, and Fall 2009).

In the section entitled "Data Analysis, Results and Discussion", the author writes: The overall feedback of more than 200 students about the *Compiled English Course Book* is very positive" (p.54). In the "Conclusion" section, the author notes: "We also see an improvement of the students in terms of their ability in speaking as well as in listening comprehension skill" (p.55).

5.11.23 In their article, "A Comparative Study of Communicative English Courses Conducted by NAEM, ELTIP And BIAM", Mohammod Minonoor Roshid (Lecturer, Institute of Education and Research (IER), University of Dhaka), Md. Zulfeqar Haider (Associate Professor, English Language [Teaching] Improvement Project (ELTIP), and Md. Abdur Razzaque Mian (Assistant Director, Training & Implementation, NAEM) [Roshid, Haider, & Mian, 2008] investigate the effectiveness of teacher training courses offered by NAEM, ELTIP and BIAM.

The authors record the following information regarding the teacher-training course of ELTIP, NAEM, and BIAM. ELTIP's (English Language Teaching Improvement Project) in-service training for secondary level teachers spreads over 21 days. NAEM (National Academy for Educational Management) offers Communicative English Course (CEC)—an in-service training program for secondary level English language teachers. BIAM (Bangladesh Institute of Administrative Management) conducts one-month long residential teacher training program.

In order to offer a comparative analysis of effectiveness of teacher training courses run by these three organizations, the authors collected data through observation of classes conducted by trainee teachers and through questionnaire (containing both open-ended and closed-ended questions). The authors conducted the questionnaire survey among 15 trainees and 5 trainers (purposive sampling) from the 3 organizations [5 trainees from each organization and 1 trainer from each organization]. In addition, 45 secondary level [English language] teachers (30 received training and 15 did not receive any training) from Dhaka, Chittagong, Rajshahi, and Khulna division also participated in the study.

In the section entitled "Chance of improving trainees' English skills", the authors note that 40% BIAM trainees, 33.3% ELTIP trainees, and 20% NAEM trainees reported that they are 'highly satisfied' when asked about the "chance of improving trainees' English skills".

100% trainees of the 3 institutions reported that they got the opportunity to practice four skills; in addition, they learned through group work and pair work in the training course. When asked whether they practiced designing lesson plans, 73.33% ELTIP trainees, 86.6% NAEM trainees, and 66.66% BIAM trainees reported that they practiced designing lesson plans. When asked about the usefulness of classroom management techniques learned from the training course, 86.6% ELTIP trainees, 93% NAEM trainees, and 73% BIAM trainees reported that the techniques can be successfully applied in the class. However, classroom observation data indicates that NAEM and BIAM trained teachers are "slightly better" in classroom management when compared to ELTIP trained teachers. When asked about the learning of vocabulary teaching techniques, 100% NAEM trainees, 93.33% ELTIP trainees, and 80% BIAM trainees reported that they had learned techniques of vocabulary teaching. However, analysis of classroom observation data reveals that trainees' vocabulary teaching skills is 'unsatisfactory'. In particular, vocabulary teaching skill of 80% NAEM trainees, 60% ELTIP trainees, and 40% BIAM trainees falls under 'poor' category. The warm-up activity conducted by 2 ELTIP trained teachers, 2 NAEM trained teachers, and 3 BIAM trained teachers had been found 'very good' (class observation data). In the use of communicative activity in the class, 3 ELTIP trained teachers, 3 NAEM trained teachers and 1 BIAM trained teachers had been found 'very good'. Besides, the 'students talking time' in the classes of all trainees had been found 'reasonable'. When asked about the effectiveness of the training course, 11 ELTIP trainees, 9 NAEM trainees, and 7 BIAM trainees [out of 15 from each institute] opined that the training program was 'very much' effective. When asked about the appropriateness of the contents of the training course, 80% ELTIP trainers , 1 NAEM [20%] trainer, and 40% BIAM trainers responded that contents were 'significantly' appropriate. When asked about the impact of training on trainees, ELTIP trainers opined that the training course contributed to create awareness about the significance of teaching four

skills in the classroom. NAEM trainers suggested that trainees learned to teach CLT in the large classes.

Finally, the author recommends that length of the teacher training courses should be extended; microteaching sessions for the trainee teachers should be improved; and logistic support for the trainers should be improved. The author remarks: "the training program of ELTIP, NAEM and BIAM have considerable impact on the thoughts and practices of secondary English teachers" (p. 46).

5.11.24 In her essay, "English Curriculum at Junior Secondary Level in Bangladesh: Components and Criticism", Dilruba Sultana (Junior Professional, Institute of Educational Development, BRAC University (IED-BRACU)) [Sultana, 2008] describes English curriculum of junior secondary level.

The author notes that new English textbooks for junior secondary level (Grade VI, VII, and VIII) had been introduced in 1996. The author explains the following elements of the junior secondary level English curriculum. First, the objective of the curriculum is to develop four skills of the students; in addition, the curriculum encourages communication in 'real life situation'. Second, the contents of the curriculum encompass structure of language, topics on different themes, vocabulary, poetry, dialogs and drama. The curriculum suggests to teach linguistic structure and grammar implicitly [i.e. linguistic structure and grammar have to be taught using appropriate context]. Topics are designed to "facilitate the practice of four language skills" (p. 51). In addition, topics of the curriculum have been selected considering students' background (i.e. age, regional origin of the students, experience). Therefore, topics and themes of the curriculum represent real context. The curriculum suggest to teach vocabulary by placing them in context. In other words, decontextualized teaching of vocabulary has been discouraged. The curriculum contains poems and songs to

teach rhythm and stress; dialogs and drama have been included to teach spoken language "in a natural and effective way" (p. 52). Third, the curriculum offers a Teacher's Guide to teachers and encourage to follow its instruction while designing lesson plan and using the textbook. Fourth, the curriculum suggests to follow CLT approach in teaching English language. Fifth, the curriculum recommends both continuous assessment and summative assessment. Continuous assessment can be conducted through giving monthly test, an through regularly assigning homework and classwork to students. In particular, the curriculum suggests to arrange a progress test and an achievement test in an academic year. The items of a test are expected to test the following skills of the students: reading, grammar, vocabulary, writing etc. Sixth, as supplementary materials, the curriculum suggests to use dictionary, grammar books, and simplified readers.

On the basis of her analysis of the curriculum of junior secondary level, the author suggests that speaking and listening tests should be included in the curriculum; textbooks should contain detailed criteria for assessment; and supplementary materials for teaching English language should be selected in accordance with the "theme, sequence, and flow" of the curriculum (p. 57).

5.11.25 In her article, "English for Today of Class VI: A Review", Dilruba Sultana (Junior Professional, Institute of Educational Development, BRAC University (IED- BRACU), Dhaka) [Sultana, 2009] evaluates English language textbook of Grade VI [*English for Today* for class 6 (1997), published by the National Curriculum and Textbook Board (NCTB) of Bangladesh].

The author developed a checklist to evaluate the textbook using a textbook evaluation criteria proposed by Cunningsworth (1995) and Dudley-Evans and St. John's (1998). Cunningsworth (1995) emphasizes on learners' needs and objective of the curriculum [or a

particular course] in examining a textbook. On the other hand, Dudley-Evans and St. John's (1998) criteria for textbook evaluation deal with three central questions: (a) whether materials [i.e. the textbook] motivate students; (b) whether the materials are synchronic with learning objectives; (c) whether materials facilitate learning process.

The author examines the relevance of the textbook in the teaching-learning context of Bangladesh. The author points out that the design of the textbook is consistent with the objectives of the English curriculum of Bangladesh. In other words, the textbook is capable of developing communicative competence of the students. Second, the textbook promotes teachers' role as a facilitator. Precisely, teachers are expected to create interactive environment in the classroom. Third, the textbook encourages autonomous learning. Fourth, the textbook includes communicative tasks such as games, role-play, problem-solving, discussion etc. Thus, the textbook seems to be consistent with the English curriculum objectives (i.e. use of CLT approach) of Bangladesh.

In the section entitled "Findings of the checklist", the author examines contents and skills covered in the textbook. The author notes that the contents of the textbook have addressed learners' need. The level of language is "appropriate for grade 6 learners" (p. 41). Second, the author mentions that the textbook provides scopes to teach integrated skill. Nevertheless, the author observes: "One recurring pattern that is followed throughout the book is *Talk about the picture and read the passage/story*". This speaking & reading combination dominates most of the lesson ..." (Italics in original, p. 41). Third, the textbook offers scope to improve sub-skills of reading such as skimming, scanning, etc. Fourth, the textbook offers listening activities that are related to real-life situations. Fifth, the textbook includes different types of speaking activities which are intended to develop both fluency and accuracy. Sixth, writing tasks of the textbook represent real-world writing need (e.g. answering questionnaires or writing letters to friends). However, the author observes: "The

textbook offers limited opportunities for preparing students before they do the actual writing. So some other activities on writing skill can be incorporated/replaced in the textbook which will help students to be prepared for creative writing" (p. 42). Seventh, the topics of the textbook are connected with the life of the learners (e.g. 'Drink Safe Water'; 'Prevent Diseases etc.). Thus, topic of the textbook address learners' needs. Nevertheless, the author remarks: "There is a need for balancing the rural and urban interests, too much emphasis on the rural setting ... might end up with limiting the variety and range of students' interests" (p. 43). Eighth, the textbook is almost free from grammatical or syntactic mistakes. Ninth, the textbook contains "very poor" quality graphics and illustrations; in addition, the textbook "is printed in cheap newsprint papers" (p. 44) with only mono-color texts. Tenth, the textbook contains a wide range of tasks and activities.

Finally, the author recommends that exercises for explicit teaching of grammar should be included in the textbook. Second, different religious and ethnic groups should be given equal space in the textbook. Third, instructions for activities should be writing in short sentences. Fourth, offset papers should be used to print the textbook. Fifth, four colors should be used to print pictures and illustrations, and two colors may be used to print dialogs.

5.11.26 In their article, "Analysis of Ethical Contents of Higher Secondary Level English Textbook (Grade 11-12)", Rokshana Bilkis (Deputy Director, Research and Documentation, NAEM, Ministry of Education, Dhaka-1205), Md. Arizul Islam Khan (Assistant Director, NAEM, Ministry of Education, Dhaka-1205) and Masud Ahmmed (Assistant Professor, Dept. of English, Govt. Alia Madrasa, Dhaka) [Bilkis, Khan, & Ahmed, 2009] examine *English for Today* of Grade 11-12 (NCTB, 2001) to identity ethical and unethical contents. The introductory section of this article suggests that by the term "ethical contents" the authors mean moral values, honesty, sincerity, justice, truth, humanity etc. The participants of this

study include 35 English teachers (20 males and 15 females), 10 educationists [Head of the

English Department] (7 males and 3 females), and 20 students (10 males and 10females).

The authors elicited opinions of the participants through FGD and Interview schedule. The

authors also analyzed the contents of EFT.

The authors point out that English textbook (EFT of grade XI-XII) contains 24 units,

156 lessons, and 321 pages. Out of 156 lessons, the authors have detected ethical contents in

32 lessons, and11 [unethical lessons]. The authors write: "11 (eleven) contents not fit for the

students" (p. 99). Analysis of questionnaire survey data reveals that majority of the

respondents identified the following themes as the "strengths" of the textbook: honesty,

courtesy, equity, universality, enlightenment, self-respect etc. On the other hand, the

following themes have been detected as the "weakness" of the textbook by almost all the

participants: "Gender, sex, cultural degradation etc." (p. 99). Besides, the author notes that

80% participants appreciated the textbook; 14% suggested to revise the textbook by including

[more] ethical contents; and 6% did not respond when asked about ethical contents. Finally,

the author recommends that the textbook should represent national, social, cultural and

ethical values.

5.11.27 In their article, "How to Evaluate an EFL/ESL Textbook—A Problem and a

Solution", Ishrat Jahan (Senior Lecturer, Department English, Southeast University,

Bangladesh) Jahanara Begum (Lecturer, Department English, Southeast University,

Bangladesh) [Jahan, & Begum, 2013] describe some criteria that can be used to evaluate an

EFL/ESL textbook.

Citing AAAS project (2003), the authors explain four components that should be

examined before selecting a textbook for a particular course. First, a textbook evaluator has

to examine whether contents, topics, or linguistic items of a textbook aligns with the

objectives of the curriculum [of an institutions]; second, a reviewer has to examine whether the textbook represents 'real life situation', i.e. whether the textbook encourages the use of language in real life. Third, an evaluator has to examine whether the textbook contains any grammatical mistakes or any misleading ideas. Fourth, a textbook reviewer has to examine coherence of the textbook i.e. logical connection between different chapters or topics of the textbook.

Citing the same source (i.e. AAAS project (2003)), the authors discuss seven criteria of textbook evaluation. The first criterion is 'providing a sense of purpose'. This criterion suggests that a textbook should clearly state the purpose/objective of its task, activities, and contents. In addition, the sequence of lessons/presentation of linguistic items should be logical. The second criterion is 'attending the ideas students already have about the target language use'. This criterion indicates that a textbook should mention the prerequisite knowledge necessary to perform a particular task. Further, the textbook should provide comprehensible input and contain exercises to test language learning. The third criterion is 'enhancing/facilitating learning environment'. This criterion indicates that the textbook should facilitate interaction between students; provide answer keys of exercises; and encourage creativity of the students. The fourth criterion is 'providing support to the teacher and the students to teach and to learn. This criterion suggests that the textbook should allow teacher to adapt task and activities; accommodate students' social and personal experiences; and avoid stereotypical or offensive topics/contents. The fifth criterion is 'engaging students with relevant phenomena'. This criterion indicates that the textbook should meet the needs of the students. In other words, the language of the textbook should address the level of the students. Besides, the textbook should supply examples [of language use] from real life contexts. The sixth criterion is 'developing and using ideas how to use language for communication'. This criterion suggests that the textbook should encourage contextualized

teaching of vocabulary and phrases. In other words, the textbook should demonstrate the use of vocabulary/phrases in context. In addition, the textbook should contain different types of tasks and activities (e.g. games, role play, simulation). The seventh criterion is 'assessing or evaluating progress of learning'. This criterion indicates that the textbook should contain test items to judge students' proficiency (i.e. achievement/improvement after using the textbook) or strengths and weaknesses.

5.11.28 In her article, "Cultural Incompatibility of ELT Materials: Evaluation of *Headway*", Iffat Jahan [Jahan, 2005] examines cultural appropriateness of *New Headway Elementary Student's Book* (Soars and Soars, 2000).

The author points out that the *Elementary Headway* has been written following the principles of CLT. This book contains 14 units with general topics (e.g. "Hello everybody", "Meeting people"). The author argues that *Elementary Headway* is an Anglocentric book, though the book claims that it is context-independent. The author writes: "The culture presented in the book does not reflect true internationalism; it is explicitly Western" (p. 105). The author remarks that the communicative events of the textbook are inauthentic for Bangladeshi students. The author supplies some specific examples which indicate that the book is culturally inappropriate for non-western students. First, Unit 7 ("Then and now") deals with some Christian occasions (e.g. Christmas day, Easter Day). In addition, this unit carries pictures of a Christian wedding, a decorated Christmas tree etc. An exercise in this unit requires students to match pictures with occasions. The author argues: "These occasions may...imply that students have to know about such occasions if they want to learn English successfully" (p. 106). The author provides a second instance of cultural incompatibility from unit 4 ("Take it easy!"). This unit represents an Anglocentric worldview. In particular, this unit exclusively promotes English calendar. The author indicates that such

representation hides the presence of calendar system in other culture (e.g. Bangla calendar). The author remarks: "such efforts at totalizing the dominant culture in the book may undermine other, less dominant, cultures and values (p. 106). A third instance of cultural inappropriacy can be found in Unit 12 ("Life's an adventure"). This unit presents life as an adventure—which might sound absurd in the context of other cultures. Besides, this unit discusses jobs such as 'ballet dancing', 'skydiving', 'globe-trotting' etc. These jobs, as the author points out, are unfamiliar to Bangladesh students. A fourth instance of cultural inappropriateness can be found in Unit 13 ("How terribly clever!"). This unit contains 16 general knowledge questions. Out of 16 questions, 14 questions deals with Anglo-American/European issues (e.g. "how many American states are there?", "how old was Princess Dina when she died?"). The author argues: "It may not be unnatural for students to assume that they would be clever if they could answer the questions, but if they can't then they must be unintelligent" (p. 107). A fifth instance can be found in Unit 1 ("Hello everybody!"). This unit encourage learners to address each other by their first name. This practice is culturally inappropriate because in Bangladeshi culture, people do not address elderly persons by their first name. A sixth instance of cultural bias can be found in the absences of the book. In particular, the book exclusively represents Anglo-American famous people (i.e. it does not represent famous people from other cultures). Besides, Unit 6 ("Can you speak English?") presents a list of 7 languages; but the list does not contain Bangla or Hindi language.

The author argues that English language textbooks should contain international or multiples cultures because of the presence of World English. In addition, English language materials should not exclusively contain Anglo-American [or TL] culture because "these days non-native speakers of English usually have more interactions with other non-native speakers of English than with native speakers of English" (P. 111). However, the author

argues against the wholesale rejection of culturally inappropriate materials. The author indicates that culturally inappropriate materials may be pedagogically rich. The author suggests that EFL teachers should critically judge materials. In other words, teachers may adapt culturally inappropriate materials. For instance, while teaching festivals from *Elementary Headway*, teachers can begin with the discussion of local festivals. Finally, the author suggests that local EFL teachers should try to produce ELT materials because "continued dependence may lend to a bondage in which situation imposition may not even be questioned" (p. 113).

5.11.29 In their article, "ELT Materials in Use in Bangladesh: The Inside Story", Begum Shahnaz Sinha and Tasneem S. Mahbub [Sinha & Mahbub, 2007] investigate teachers' perceptions of the effectiveness of language teaching materials. In particular, the authors conducted a survey to identify the effectiveness of the following three books: *New Headway English Course* (by John and Liz Soars, pre-intermediate level), *Advancing Language Skills I* (written by the teachers of English Department of Dhaka University and published by Dhaka University; used for first year undergraduates of Arts faculty), and *English for Today* (published by (NCTB for Grade IX & X).

The participants of this study encompass 49 teachers (10 teachers from 3 private universities of Dhaka city), 10 teachers from Dhaka university, 10 school teachers from Dhaka city, 18 school teachers from Meherpur, Chuadanga, Bagerhat and khulna, and 1 teacher from British council). The authors mainly used a closed-ended questionnaire to elicit data from the participants. The authors used the same questionnaire to generate data resending the three textbooks.

The first question was: "Is the layout and presentation clear?" The percentage of 'yes' response to this question was: *New Headway English Series*—100%; *Advancing*

Language Skills I—88%; and *English for Today (IX-X)*—67%. The second question was: "Has the language been presented in an organized way?" The percentage of 'yes' response to this question was: *New Headway English Series*—50%; *Advancing Language Skills I*—67%; and *English for Today (IX-X)*—70%. The third question was: "Is the material too culturally biased or specific?" The percentage of 'yes' response was: *New Headway English Series*—60%; *Advancing Language Skills I*—11%; and *English for Today (IX-X)*—34%. The fourth question was: "Does the text include a review and summary section after each unit?" The percentage of 'yes' response was: *New Headway English Series*—30%; *Advancing Language Skills I*—45%; and *English for Today (IX-X)*—66%. The fifth question was: "Does the text include any diagnostic/progress test?" The percentage of 'yes' response was: *New Headway English Series*—40%; *Advancing Language Skills I*—22%; and *English for Today (IX-X)*—73%. The sixth question was: "Is there a correlation between what is taught and what is tested in the test?" The percentage of 'yes' response to this question was: *New Headway English Series*—50%; *Advancing Language Skills I*—22%; and *English for Today (IX-X)*—23%. The seventh question was: "Have the skills been presented in an integrated way?" The percentage of 'yes' response was: *New Headway English Series*—90%; *Advancing Language Skills I*—55%; and *English for Today (IX-X)*—66%. The eighth question was: "Is vocabulary presented in a variety of motivating ways?" The percentage of 'yes' response was: *New Headway English Series*—60%; *Advancing Language Skills I*—33%; and *English for Today (IX-X)*—60%. The ninth question was: "Do the reading passages introduce the learners with a variety of Language registers (different types of language such as newspaper articles, literary texts, casual conversations, advertisements, letter etc.)?" The percentage of 'yes' response was: *New Headway English Series*—70%; *Advancing Language skills I*—78%; and *English for Today (IX-X)*—70%. The tenth question was: "Do the writing activities help our students to learn different writing strategies (e.g. Descriptive, narrative, expository)?". The

percentage of 'yes' response was: *New Headway English Series*—50%; *Advancing Language Skills I*—33%; and *English for Today (IX-X)*—83%. The eleventh question was: "Do the topics relate to the needs, age, and interests of the learners?" The percentage of 'yes' response was: *New Headway English Series*—40%; *Advancing Language Skills I*—56%; and *English for Today (IX-X)*—73%. The twelfth question was: "Do the topics provide opportunities for communicative and author tic language use?" The percentage of 'yes' response was: *New Headway English Series*—70%; *Advancing Language Skills I*—56%; and *English for Today (IX-X)*—83%. The thirteenth question was: "Is there a good mix of light-hearted and serious topics?". The percentage of 'yes' response was: *New Headway English Series*—100%; *Advancing Language Skills I*—89%; and *English for Today* – 73%. The fourteenth question was: "Do the materials motivate learners and teachers?" The percentage of 'yes' response was: *New Headway English Series*—50%; *Advancing Language Skills I*—45%; and *English for Today (IX-X)*—76%. The fifteenth question was: "Do you think adequate emphasis has been given to all the skills?" The percentage of 'yes' response was: *New Headway English Series*—50%; *Advancing Language Skills I*—44%; and *English for Today (IX-X)*—53%. The sixteenth question was: "Do you think activities such as group-work, pair work and discussion are suitable for our classrooms?" The percentage of 'yes' response to this question was: *New Headway English Series*—60%; *Advancing Language Skills I*—67%; and *English for Today (IX-X)*—63% . The seventeenth question was: "If you are given a choice, would you like to continue using this book?" The percentage of 'yes' response was: *New Headway English Series*—90%; *Advancing Language Skills I*—89%; and *English for Today (IX-X)*—56%. The eighteenth question was: "Do you think the book you are using needs improvement?" The percentage of 'yes' response to this question was: *New Headway English Series*—70% ; *Advancing Language Skills I*—89%; and *English for Today (IX-X)*—93%. The nineteenth question was: "If your answer to Q. no. 15 is no, which skill(s)

has/have been neglected? (you can chose more than one)". The response to this question was: *New Headway English Series*: reading—20%, writing—50%; grammar—10%, vocabulary—30%, listening—0%, speking—0%; *Advancing Language Skills I*: Reading—0%, writing—22%, grammar—22%, vocabulary—11%, listning—67%, speaking—45%; *English for Today (IX-X)*: reading—3%, writing—10%, grammar—13%, vocabulary—10%, listening—17%, speaking—26%.

Finally, the authors suggest that *New Headway English Series* should be culture-sensitive. In addition, the book should stress more on reading and writing. Second, *Advancing Language Skills I* should put equal emphasis on different skills. Precisely, the textbook may include more activities on listening, speaking, grammar, and vocabulary. Third, English for Today should include more activating on vocabulary, pronunciation, speaking, listening, and grammar.

5.11.30 In his study, "A Corpus-Based Study of Frequency and Syntactic Patterns in an EFL Textbook: The Case of Modal Auxiliary", Zahid Hossain (Lecturer, Faculty of Language and Translation, King Khalid university) [Hossain, 2013] investigates the use of modals in *English for Today (For Classes 11-12)* (a non-native EFL text) and BE06 (i.e. British English, 2006) (a native text).

The author notes that modality refers to a speaker's opinion or attitude toward the proposition of a sentence. The author investigates the following 9 modalities of Biber et. al. (1999): can, could, will, would, may, might, shall, should, and must. The author used Wordsmith Tools (version: 5) (a concordance software) to conduct the corpus analysis. BE06 is an electronic corpus. On the other hand, the author typed *English for Today* texts to create an electronic corpus of this book. However, the author did not type the whole book. He

selected those texts which generally appear in exams and which are taught in the classroom. BE06 contains 11,45,205 words whereas English for today contains 25,264 words.

Analysis of data reveals that frequency of modals per million (F.P.M.) is higher in EFT than that of BE06. Precisely, total F.P.M. in EFT is 11,003.84 whereas total F.P.M. in BE06 is 10,743.05. Besides, EFT corpus does not contain any 'shall'. The author also compares the order of appearance of modals in BE06, EFT, and LSWE (Longman Spoken and Written English) corpus. Analysis of data shows that 'will' and 'would' occupy top positions in BE06 and LSWE whereas 'can' and 'will' occupy top positions in EFT. The author observes: This is "surely a major difference as far as frequency is concerned" (p. 234). Besides, 'can' and 'could' secure third and fourth position respectively in both BE06 and LSWE. On the other hand, 'should' secures third place and 'would' secures fourth place in EFT. The author observes: "Thus overall, the distribution of modals in terms of frequency shares a near similarity in BE06 and LSWE corpora. But we cannot say so about the EFT corpus. Here the frequency of modals does not go with the existing pattern in BE06 and LSWE" (p. 235). The author also investigates the syntactic surroundings of modals in EFT and BE06. In particular, the author analyses modals in negations and question (inversions). Analysis of data shows an "asymmetrical" use of negative contractions in EFT [i.e. there is no regularity in the use of full negation and negative contraction]. On the other hand, use of negative contraction in case of 'can', 'could', 'will' and 'would' is systematic (i.e. percentage of negative contraction is higher than full negation]. However, in both EFT and BE06, "can/(not)/can't" and "could (not)" constitute most of the negation. This apart, analysis of data shows that percentage of modals in inversions (questions) in EFT is higher than that of BE06 (EFT: 3.58% and BE06: 1.20%). In addition, EFT uses only three modals in inversion (can, could, should) whereas BE06 uses eight modals in inversion (can, could, will, would, should, may, might, shall).

Finally, the author notes that there is a difference between native texts and non-native texts. The author suggests "writing textbook/s based on a native corpus data to avoid such discrepancies" (p. 238). This apart, the author found only four occurrence of 'll and only one occurrence of 'd in EFT. Therefore, he suggests that more conversational texts should be included in EFT to improve speaking skill of the students.

5.12.0 Reading

5.12.1 In his survey, "Classroom Situation in Reading Classes of the Foundation English Course (FEC) at International Islamic University Chittagong (IIUC): An Empirical Study", Mohammad Riaz Mahmud (Assistant Professor, Department of English Language & Literature, IIUC) [Mahmud, 2010] explores classroom practice of Foundation English Course (FEC) in teaching reading English in 2005. FEC is offered to those students who failed to achieve expected score in English Proficiency Test (EPT) of IIUC.

In this study the researcher surveyed 5 teachers and 73 students of BBA, CCE, EEE and Law. The author distributed two sets of structured questionnaire, one for the teachers and the other for the students to elicit data about the following issues: (1) pre-reading activities, (2) silent/loud reading in the classroom, (3) lessons, (4) vocabulary, (5) evaluation, (6) behavior of the learner, (7) behavior of the teacher, and (8) teaching technique.

With regard to "pre-reading activities", 73.97% students report that teachers give ideas about topic before reading the text whereas all the teachers (100%) claim that they supply ideas about the topic in pre-reading activities; 50.68% students report that teachers try to stimulate students' interest about text whereas 80% teachers indicate that they are concerned about students' interest; 49.31% students opine that teachers ask general question about the text whereas 60% teachers claim that they ask question to their students. With regard to the issue of "reading inside the classroom" 60%-70% report that both loud reading

and silent reading are practiced in the classroom. Apart from this, 30%-39% students opine that students' participation in the class is 20%-25% and teacher-student interaction is 20%-25% of the total class duration. 40%-46% students suggest that teachers use authentic materials in the classroom, encourage them to read for pleasure, provide answers of reading text, translate reading text into Bangla, and explains [complex] English sentences in simple English. On the other hand, 60% teachers report that they check students' answers of reading exercise; students get benefited from loud reading/silent reading, and cooperative learning; in addition, they use authentic texts in the classroom and the percentage of teacher-student interaction in the classroom is 25%-30%. 80% teachers report that they encourage students to read for pleasure; they explain answers of reading exercise, and translate every sentence into Bangla. 50%-59% students report that tasks on reading are difficult and uninteresting, and focused on grammar, vocabulary and exercise. 61%-77% students think that texts become uninteresting due to difficult structure, new words and phrases. In this regard, 60% teachers opine that lessons are not interesting to students, and they [teachers] select reading texts from *Headway*. Further 80% teachers report that lessons are culturally inappropriate, and are not suitable for the proficiency level of the students. With regard to "vocabulary" 41%-48% students opine that they skip difficult words, translate every word, guess meaning and use English to English dictionary; 50%-54% students report that they maintain vocabulary notebook and spend 30 minutes [everyday] to learn vocabulary outside the classroom. With regard to "evaluation system" both teachers and students inform that test items include vocabulary, MCQ, matching items, true/false, summarizing, sentence completion, argument analysis and dialog writing. With regard to "learner [attitude/behavior]", findings suggest that 68.49% students feel enthusiastic and 43.83% students explore problems in reading and discuss them with teachers whereas 60% teachers report that students are enthusiastic and 80% teachers report that students discuss problems

with them. In addition, 49.31% students think that they are failing to improve reading skills

due to their own negligence whereas 56.16% think that the cause of their slow progress is the

ignorance about techniques to improve reading skills. On the contrary, 80% teachers believe

that negligence of students is the major cause for students' slow progress whereas 60%

teachers attribute the problem to unplanned classes. With regard to "teachers'

[attitude/behavior]" 50%-60% students report that teachers are sincere, punctual, friendly and

well planned. With regard to "teaching technique", 50%-64% students opine that teachers try

to identify students' problem before introducing a reading text through vocabulary test or

through asking general questions about the text. 60%-80% teachers agree with the students

about the tasks before a reading lesson. Besides, 47% students report that teachers do not

insult them while giving corrective feedback; 60% teachers report that they try to motivate

students by becoming friendly with them and by taking tests regularly, and 40% teachers

indicate that they work as a "supporter" during a reading session.

5.12.2 In his experimental study, "Schemata-Their Relevance in L^2 Reading", Md. Khaled

Bin Chowdhury (Lecturer, Dept. of English, BGC Trust University Bangladesh)

[Chowdhury, 2009] explores the significance of schema in L2 reading.

The author defines formal schemata, content schemata, top-down processing, and

bottom-up processing and explains their relevance to L2 reading. The author notes that

schema theory describes the process of acquisition, processing and retrieval of information.

Schema involves life experiences, educational experiences, cultural background etc.

Schemata can be categorized into two types: content schemata and formal schemata. Content

schemata can be defined as knowledge about people, world, and culture whereas formal

schemata consist of knowledge of word, structure, discourse, rhetorical organization of a text

etc. Formal schema is linked with bottom-up processing (e.g. decoding word, sentence, etc.)

and content schema is connected with top-down processing (i.e. understanding text based on prior knowledge). The author notes that both top-down and bottom-up processing are required for successful comprehension of a text—which constitutes the hypothesis of this research.

In this experimental research, 20 fifth-semester undergraduate students of English department at BGC Trust University participated. As research instrument, the author used two texts on self-service shops—one text with adequate background information and another text without any background information. *Text-1* contains information about things which are stored on stack which can be carried in a trolley and a procedure is completed at a desk. On the contrary, *Text-2* involves such lexis as 'luxury items' and 'paying the price'. *Text-1* does not contain any title whereas *Text-2* is titled as "Serve Yourself". Students were required to identify the topic of the form the text.

Findings suggests that 5 students identified the topic of *Text-1* as 'department store'; 3 students as 'seminar library'; 2 students as 'discipline' and 10 students did not identify any topic. In *Text-2*, 2 students identified the topic as 'fixed price store', 9 as 'self-service shopping' and 9 as 'department store'. Among the 20 participants of this study, 5 students had background knowledge about department store whereas 15 students did not have any background knowledge. The author suggests that both pre-reading discussion [to develop content schemata] and bottom-up information processing resulted in improved comprehension of the text. The author argues that advanced organizers such as 'luxury item', 'daily necessities', 'pay the bill', 'cash desk' etc. played significant role in bottom-up processing (i.e. these advanced organizers facilitated comprehension). Finally the author concludes that both formal schema and content schema are essential in L2 reading.

5.12.3 In her experimental study, "Schema and Teaching Reading Comprehension", Tania Tahmina (Lecturer, Independent University, Bangladesh) [Tahmina, 2005] explores the role of schema in facilitating understanding of reading text.

In this study, the researcher divides first year undergraduate students into two groups: experimental group and control group. The teacher discussed life-style and religious activities of nuns with the experimental group in one class whereas control group did not receive any special treatment. After three days, both the groups took a text on a reading passage titled "Sister Wendy: A TV Star". Students were asked to recall and write about the text. Analysis of this writing shows that experimental group wrote more words than that of control group. This experiment indicates that activating schema contributes to better comprehension and retention of information in memory.

Apart from the experiment, the author records some techniques of teaching reading comprehension through schema theory. The author notes that video clips, paintings, artifacts etc. can be used to build schema of the students. Besides, hierarchical concept maps (a process of clarifying ambiguities about a text) may be used in teaching reading. Anderson (1999) emphasizes on pre-reading discussion and semantic mapping in activating schemata. Hudson (1982) classifies pre-reading activities into three groups: Visual input, questions about visual stimuli, and working on a vocabulary list. Pressley (2000) discusses the following strategies to activate schema: Question-Answer Relationships (QAR), Directed Reading Activity (DRA) (teachers question students), Scaffolded Reading Experience (SRE) where teachers ask questions to engage students with the text. In addition, in Directed Reading-Thinking Activity (DRTA) and Survey Technique, students establish a purpose for reading a particular text. Finally, the author suggests that teachers should activate schema of the students before introducing a reading text.

5.12.4 In their essay, "Understanding Meaning Effectively: Pedagogical Approaches to the Reading Skill", Md. Hamidur Rahman (Department of English, Northern University, Bangladesh, Khulna campus, Khulna) and Sk Abdullah Al Mamun (English Discipline, Khulna University, Khulna) [Rahman & Mamun, 2008] explore requirements for effective reading, classification of reading, and techniques of reading.

In the section entitled "Requirements for effective reading" the authors explain two components that contribute to effective reading :(a) Knowledge and experience and (b) schemata. Pre-knowledge and experience about a reading material enhance understanding of the text. Likewise, schemata or "shared assumptions" [background Knowledge] help readers to interpret a txt accurately. The authors note two types of reading: intensive reading and extensive reading. Intensive reading refers to reading short text for specific information and details. On the other hand, extensive reading refers to reading long text for pleasure.

In the section entitled "Pedagogical approaches to reading", the authors mention three techniques of reading: top-down approach, bottom -up approach, and interactive reading. In top-down approach, readers utilize their personal experience [background knowledge] in interpreting a text. In bottom-up approach, readers concentrate on decoding [linguistic stimulus] letter, word, syntax etc. In interactive reading, readers simultaneously use top-down and bottom-up approach.

5.12.5 In his survey, "Reading Comprehension: Strategies and Classroom Practice", Paren Chandra Barman (Assistant Professor, Department of English studies, State University of Bangladesh) [Barman, 2013] investigates students' deployment of reading strategies.

The participants of this study encompass 52 undergraduate students (Fresh to senior). The author elicited data using structured questionnaire.

Findings of the study reveal that 60% students are ignorant of determining goals of reading; 30% previews texts before reading; 90% students do not generate questions about the text before reading; 70% faces difficulty in reading due to unknown words, and they do not try to guess meaning from context; 90% fails to understand text structure (i.e. main ideas and supporting details); and 99% finds reading a tedious and passive activity.

The author recommends that teachers should supply interesting materials to learners; teachers should encourage learners to guess meaning from context. In addition, teachers should formulate question on reading text to let learners to anticipate or infer the content of the text.

5.12.6 In their article "Reading Skills of Undergraduates in Private Universities: A Schematic Perspective" Md. Minhajul Abedin (Lecturer in English, Stamford University), Shorna Akter (Lecturer in English, Dhaka City College), and Md. Julhas Uddin (Lecturer in English, Darul Ihsan University) [Abedin, Akter, & Uddin, 2009] explore the link between schema and reading skills of students.

The participants of this study include 200 undergraduate students of 3 private universities in Bangladesh (92% student came from medium background). The author elicited data using structured questionnaire. The author also conducted interview with the students.

Finding of the study reveal that 34% students prefer to read newspaper as extra reading material and 50% students prefer to read from various sources such as storybooks, magazines, journals, comics etc. With regard to the materials prescribed in the universities, 18% students reported that their university follows British books whereas university of 42% and 32% students follow American books and Indian books respectively. In response to the question about students' preference for TV channels, 28% reported that they watch Bangla

channel, 24% reported that they watch Hindi Channel, 12% reported that they watch English channel, and 30% reported that they watch 'more than one channel'. In response to the question whether they are comfortable with text in foreign setting, 30% answered negatively and 60% responded 'sometimes'. In response to the question about preferred themes in reading materials, 50% student chose 'real life situation' whereas 40% chose a combination of 'love', 'real life situation', 'adventure', 'sport'. 16% students reported that they can easily cope with foreign reading materials whereas 60% reported that they can 'sometimes' cope with the materials. In response to the question about the cause of being uncomfortable with English text, 40% reported "complex language" as the cause of the problem; 16% reported 'text on different culture'; 2% reported anxiety about unfamiliar text'; and 32% reported that a combination of these three causes makes then uncomfortable. On the basis of these findings t he authors argue that "when the students find the reading materials…against their background knowledge they just struggle". 94% students indicated that they would like to read textbooks written on local setting [culture].

The authors recommend that teachers may engage students in pre-reading activities to develop schema about a text. Second, visual demonstration on illustrated reading material might help students to activate thin schemata. Third, reading materials should be selected according to the needs of the students. Fourth, students may be inspired to watch English movies, read English newspapers, and listen to English news.

5.12.7 In their article, "Reading as a Basic Communication Skill", Rowshan B. Rahman (Lecturer, Department of English, The People's University of Bangladesh) and Professor Dr. Nurur Rahman (Institute of Business Administration (IBA), Dhaka University) [Rahman, & Rahman, 2005] discuss purposes and strategies of reading.

In their discussion on purposes of reading, the authors mention the following objectives of reading. First, people may read to obtain internal information [e.g. incidents/facts about family or workplace] and external information [e.g. updates about professional domain]. Second, people may read for learning [new theories of a discipline]. Third, people may action (e.g. reading product manual), recreation, satisfaction. Fourth, people may read to remove loneliness and boredom as well.

The authors point out three strategies of reading: (a) skimming, (b) scanning, and (c) intensive reading. Skimming refers to reading for general ideas in a text. Scanning is intended to find out specific ideas in a text. Intensive reading or 'active reading' means reading for "finding main point(s) along with the supporting details of logic or arguments" (p. 32). The authors point out that SQ3R (Survey, Question, Read, Recall, Review) may be used as a method of intensive reading. In SQ3R method, 'survey' means trying to get an idea about a text by looking at preface, introduction or summary. 'Question' means formulating question about a text (e.g. "what are the main issues or themes addressed here?")

Finally, the authors suggest that use of strategy is contingent on the purpose of reading. In addition, personalized strategies such as 'critical study', 'in-depth study' or 'specific reading' falls under the rubric of "three main strategies" (p. 34) [i.e. skimming, scanning, and intensive reading].

5.12.8 In their article, "Roadmap for Effective Reading Pedagogy in the EFL Classrooms in Bangladesh", Alok Das and Mirza M. Sadat (Lecturers in the Department of English at East West University) [Das & Sadat, 2003] describes some techniques of teaching reading skills to EFL students.

Referring to Hui-lunu Chia (2001), the authors record three tasks to teach reading skill: semantic map, questioning, and previewing. In semantic map activity, in the pre-

reading phase students are asked to write down words that they can relate to the topic [title] of the reading text. Next, students are asked to categorize those words. For instance, students may categorize the words 'river', 'sea', 'forests' under the rubric 'geography' (words elicited through the topic: "Life in the Sundarbans"). In the 'questioning' activity, there are three stages: pre-reading phase, reading phase, and post reading phase. In the pre-reading stage, students are placed in groups and asked to write points about the reading text in two columns—one column would contain points which they are confident of whereas the other column would contain points which students are less confident of. In the reading phase, students would verify their assumption whether the points they wrote are true or false. In the post-reading phase, students would synthesize their previous knowledge with the new knowledge they gain from reading. In the previewing activity, students are required to make predictions about the content of the text by examining titles, illustrations, pictures, subtitles etc. In addition, students may be asked to read the opening paragraphs of a text to identify the theme of the text.

Besides, the authors suggest that reading text should be culture sensitive. Reading text that might lead to culture shock should be avoided. For instance, Bangladeshi EFL students might fail to appreciate the story "Oedipus Complex". In addition, the author contends: "In reading classes students should be instructed to start their reading by using a top down approaches and later switches between two approach [ ], as the approaches support each other" (p. 19).

5.12.9 In her experimental study, "The Greater Effectiveness of Providing Collocational Cohesive Links Over Word Meaning List in Teaching Reading Comprehension", Tania Tahmina (Lecturer, Department of English, Independent University, Bangladesh) [Tahmina,

2005] explores significance of using collocational cohesive links in pre-reading and reading activities.

The participants of this study include first year advanced level undergraduate students of Independent University, Bangladesh. The author divided the students into two experimental groups (Group A and Group B) and a control group (Group C). In this study, students were required to take a reading comprehension test. In the question paper of Group A, a list of vocabulary with word meaning in English was given as pre-reading activity. In the question paper of Group B, collocational cohesive links (e.g. whopping…biggest, debut…release) were given as pre reading activity along with underlined reading comprehension passage (e.g. Slumping music sales left the recording industry with a whopping New Year's hangover but rap star Eminem has plenty to celebrate). In the question paper of Group C (i.e. the control group), no such reading aid was included. Analysis of data reveals that the mean score of Group A is 70%, Group B is 76% and Group C is 60% on MCQ test. In addition, Group A scored 54.6, Group B scored 70, and Group C scored 45 (out of 100) on the task "finding out five major ideas". Thus, Group B performed better than Group A and Group C; and Group A performed better than Group C. These data indicate that "collocational cohesive links are much more effective for improving comprehension than the word meaning lists" (p. 101). The author observes: "The collocational cohesive links provided a general impression of the whole text and made it easier for the subjects to get a better understanding of the meaning of the text" (p. 106). Apart from the reading comprehension test, the author elicited comments on the usefulness of word list and collocational cohesive devices from the experimental groups. Students of Group A reported that word list assisted them in comprehending the text better. However, some students remarked that they failed to understand the word list because only English equivalent of the words was given. According to one student, if the word list contained

Bangla equivalent, he might have understood the text. The Group B remarked that collocational cohesive links were helpful in understanding the text. However, some students reported that underlined words disrupted their flow of reading. Finally, the author suggests that collocational cohesive links contain advanced organizers, and can activate students' schemata to aid comprehension.

5.12.10 In her article, "Gaining Proficiency in the Reading Module in IELTS: A Study on the Efforts of Bangladeshi Students", Sabrina Ahmed Chowdhury (Lecturer, Institute of Modern Languages, Dhaka University) [Chowdhury, 2009] identifies problem that Bangladesh students encounter in dealing with reading section of IELTS.

The author conducted a survey among 106 students (randomly selected) of 11 training and coaching centers of IELTS. The author elicited data using questionnaire. Besides, the author interviewed 21 trainers of IELTS who teach in different coaching/training centers.

Analysis of students' data reveals that 65% students identified reading as the most difficult module of IELTS. 45% trainers also detected 'reading' as the most difficult module of IELTS. When asked about the level of difficulty, both students and trainers indicated the following sequence of module: Writing, speaking, and listening (least difficult). The author quotes an IELTS administrator of Bangladesh who informed the author that most of the Bangladeshi candidates score 5 in reading module. The author notes that students indicated the following factors that create difficulty in reading: Unknown words in the text, grammar and punctuation, technical/sub-technical vocabulary, and cultural difference. In particular, students cannot decipher meaning of a text which contains unknown words; second, lack of knowledge on English syntax and lack of knowledge on English about punctuation create problems in comprehension. Third, students' repertoire of technical vocabulary is not rich; in addition, students find it difficult to understanding sub-technical words such as 'average',

'approximate', 'effect', 'determine' etc. Fourth, reading texts of IELTS do not represent culture of Bangladeshi students. Therefore, students encounter difficulty in understanding the reading text. The author notes: "students of IELTS termed this difficulty in the reading comprehension test as "unfamiliar and foreign" text" [p.132]. Fifth, students reported that they cannot answer all the questions within the time allocated to answer the questions. Sixth, the author notes that students depend on coaching centers to take preparation for IELTS. In addition, students lack the habit of self-study. In the interview, trainers of IELTS opine that extensive reading practice should be included in the training program. The trainers pointed out that IELTS training programs conduct in Bangladesh is "too short".

In order to improve students' performance in IELTS, the author makes the following suggestions. First, students should be taught skimming, scanning, and inference. Second, trainers of IELTS should receive training on ELT. The author mentions that only 1 trainer out of 21 trainers who participated in this study had received in-service training. Other trainers did not attend any course on ELT. Third, difficulties that Bangladeshi students encounter in IELTS should be analyzed to make pedagogic decisions. Further, mistakes of Bangladeshi students committed in IELTS should also be analyzed in order to take initiatives to reduce mistakes. Fourth, training centers of IELTS in Bangladesh should formulate an accreditation body to ensure quality of teaching in all coaching centers/training centers.

5.12.11 In the article, "Teaching of Reading Comprehension Under Psychology Schemata Theory", Tasleem Ara Ashraf (Lecturer, Stamford University Bangladesh, Dhaka) [Ashraf, 2010] discusses the implications of schema theory in teaching reading comprehension to ESL students.

The author notes that schema theory was introduced by Goodman (1967). The author points out that schemata refer to knowledge pertaining to a particular object. In other words,

"Schemata are...mental structure acquired through many experiences" (p. 92). Citing Carrell (1998), the author records that schemata can be categorized into two groups: Content schemata (i.e. information on a particular topic) and formal schemata (i.e. organization of a text). Besides, schema theory indicates two models of information processing: Bottom-up processing (data-driven) and top-down processing (concept-driven).

The author documents an anecdote to underline the significance of schemata in reading texts. The author asked some Bangladeshi students to answers questions on a short story entitled "A Halloween Night". But the students failed to understand the story and they "seemed puzzled" (p. 92). The author writes: "My students were troubled with the "Halloween" story. Because in Bangladesh we do not celebrate such festivals" (p. 94).

In the section entitled "Implication in the teaching of reading comprehension", the author suggests that teachers should try to extend students' background knowledge. In particular, teachers should familiarize students with different cultures. Second, teachers should train students to decipher meaning from a text by utilizing necessary information. Third, teachers should introduce students with various styles of writing. Specifically, teachers may engage students in analyzing style, theme or structure of texts. Fourth, teachers should involve students in group discussion to activate their schemata before assigning them to read a particular text.

5.12.12 In their article, "Strengths and Weaknesses of Teaching Fluent Reading: A Study at the Tertiary Level in Bangladesh", Mohammad Mustafizur Rahman and Akhter Jahan (authors are Lecturer of English, Daffodil International University, Dhaka) [Rahman, & Jahan, 2007] explore opinions of teachers and students regarding teaching/learning English reading skill. The authors define 'reading fluency' as "the rate of accurate reading where word recognition becomes relatively effortless [and] almost automatic" (p. 155).

The participants of this study encompass 32 [English language] teachers and 120 students (random sampling) from two public and 8 private universities of Dhaka. The authors elicited data using questionnaire (majority of the questions were closed-ended).

The questionnaire designed for the teachers consisted of 7 questions. In response to the first question, 87.5% teachers reported that they taught reading skill at tertiary level whereas 12.5% responded that they did not teach reading skill at tertiary level. In the second question, teachers were asked whether they are satisfied with their teaching techniques and methods. In response to this question, 12.5% reported that they are 'strongly satisfied'; 75% reported that they are 'slightly satisfied'; and 12.5% reported that they are 'dissatisfied'. In the third question, teachers were asked whether they are satisfied with the quality of [their] students. In response to this question, 75% teachers answered that they are 'slightly satisfied' and 25% answered that they are 'dissatisfied'. The fourth question was: "Who are better in fluent reading?" In response to this question, 100% teachers opted for the option "students with English medium background". In the fifth question, teachers were asked whether they were satisfied with the students' reading fluency before they (i.e. the students) received instruction on reading skill. In response to this question, 50% teachers opted for the option 'slightly satisfied'; and the other 50% chose the option 'dissatisfied'. In the sixth question, teachers were asked whether they were satisfied with students' reading fluency after they (i.e. the students) received instruction. In response to this question, 37.5% answered 'strongly satisfied'; 50% answered 'slightly satisfied'; and 12.5% answered 'dissatisfied'. In the seventh question, teachers were asked regarding limitations that they encounter in teaching reading. 87.5% teachers ticked the option 'mixed ability class'; 62.5% selected the option 'lack of students' interest'; 100% chose the option 'lack of [students'] motivation'. No teacher selected the options 'lack of teachers' training' and 'lack of reading materials'.

The questionnaire structured for the students contained 8 questions. In response to the first question, 100% students reported that "they learnt reading skill at tertiary level". In the second question, students were asked whether they are satisfied with their reading classes. In response to this question, 15% answered 'strongly satisfied'; 75% answered 'slightly satisfied'; and 10% answered 'dissatisfied'. In the third question, students were asked whether they are satisfied with their reading fluency. In response to this question, 7.5% answered 'strongly satisfied'; 80% answered 'slightly satisfied'; 10% answered 'dissatisfied'; and 2.5% did not answer this question. In the fourth question, students were asked regarding their level of satisfaction with their reading fluency before receiving instruction on reading skill. In response to this question, 15% opted for the option 'strongly satisfied'; 45% ticked the option 'slightly satisfied'; and 40% chose the option 'dissatisfied'. In the fifth question, students were asked whether they are satisfied with their reading fluency "after completing the reading course". In response to this question, 20% answered 'strongly satisfied'; 77.5% answered 'slightly satisfied'; and 2.5% answered 'dissatisfied'. The sixth question was: "How much time do you spend for reading purposes everyday?" In response to this question, 20% ticked the option '30 minutes'; 5% selected the option '40-45 minutes'; 47.5% ticked the option '1 hour'; 17.% ticked the option '2 hours'; and 7.5% ticked the option '3 hours'; and 2.5% students did not answer this question. In the seventh question, students were asked whether they engage themselves in reading any additional materials (apart from prescribed text). In response to this question, 92.5% students answered 'Yes'; 5% answered 'No'; and 2.5% did not answer this question. In the eighth question, students were asked regarding limitations they face in learning to read fluently. In response to this question, 45% ticked the option '[lack of] reading materials'; 55% selected the option 'mixed ability class'; 17.5% ticked the option '[unavailability of] internet access'; 17.5% ticked the option 'lack of teachers' training'; and 55% ticked the option 'lack of [students'] interest'.

The authors recommend that teachers should try to increase students' motivation. Second, students should concentrate on learning vocabulary and pronunciation. Third, students should read supplementary materials such as newspapers, magazines, story books, poems etc. Fourth, teachers should involve students in group work and pair work.

5.12.13 In his article, "The Teaching of Reading Skills: Some Issues and Strategies", Ahmed Bashir [Bashir, 2005] discusses nature of reading, some concepts pertaining to reading, objectives and techniques of reading, selection of reading texts, strategies of reading, and activities that can be conducted in a reading class.

In the section entitled "The nature of reading" the author points out that reading is a process which involves thinking. The author quotes Dechant (1964) who maintains that reading involves reflection, judgment, inference, organization and comparison of data, critical evaluation etc. In the section entitled "Recent concepts of reading skills", the author suggests that reading is an active process. In other words, the reader plays an active role in reading. In addition, reading is an interactive activity. Readers construct meaning by interacting with the text on the basis of their background knowledge. In the section entitled "The schema theory", the author notes that Bartlett (1932) first proposed the term 'schema'. Schema theory explains how "the world is organized into interrelated patterns based on our previous knowledge and experience" (p. 74). According to schema theory, while reading a text, readers need to relate a text to their background knowledge. In the section entitled "Objectives and techniques of reading", the author cities Grellet (1981) who holds that there are mainly two purposes of reading: (a) reading for pleasure, and (b) reading for information. Citing Grellet (1981) the author records four techniques of reading: skimming (reading for general information), scanning (reading for specific information), extensive reading (reading long texts), and intensive reading (reading for detail). In the section entitled "Selection of

reading texts", the author mentions some sources that can be used to select reading texts. Citing Williams (1984), the author records the following sources: course books, books containing reading texts and exercises, authentic texts, and simulated authentic texts. This apart, the author maintains that reading texts should be selected considering the level of students and objectives of teaching. In the section entitled "Approaches to reading in the classroom" the author documents White's (1981) four-stage reading approach and a [three-phase approach]. White's reading approach involves four stages. In the first stage, the teacher motivates students and activate their schema; in the second stage, the teacher asks students to locate some information in the text; in the third phase, the teacher engages students in discussion; in the fourth stage, the teacher engages students in writing (on the basis of their reading). The three-phase approach involves three phases. In the pre-reading phase, the teacher motivates students and introduces the topic of the reading text in the class. In the while-reading phase, students try to understand the purpose, structure, and content of the text. In the post-reading phase, the students reflect on the text, and relate the text to their background knowledge. In the section entitled "Classroom reading tasks" the author records the following tasks: scanning tasks (e.g. locate grammar features, check dates), skimming tasks (select a title, find and compare events), intensive reading tasks (e.g. make summaries, fill the gaps), extensive reading tasks (e.g. keep records of the titles, authors, and the date of reading, make summaries) and reading aloud.

Finally, the author observes that pedagogy of reading in Bangladesh is not satisfactory. The author makes the following recommendations to improve the pedagogy of reading in Bangladesh. First, teachers should receive training on teaching reading; second, Textbook Board or material developers should take students' level, interest, and Bangladeshi culture into account while designing reading materials.

5.12.14 In her article, "Extensive Reading: Why Bangladesh Should Adopt This Practice and How", Tamanna Mostafa (Lecturer, English Language Institute of Central Michigan University) [Mostafa, 2013] discusses the usefulness of extensive reading program. In addition, she describes some techniques of implementing extensive reading program. The author defines extensive reading as "a type of reading where learners are exposed to plenty of reading materials, which they choose themselves out of their own interests and "where a reader's attention should be on the meaning, not the language of the text"" (p. 243).

The author reviews research literature that investigates the effectiveness of extensive reading practice in improving English language proficiency of students. For instance, Day and Bamford (1998) maintain that extensive reading increases sight vocabulary. Second, in Lai's study (1993), comparatively advanced students managed to improve comprehension, reading speed, and writing skill in a four-week extensive reading program in Hong Kong. Third, Hafiz and Tudor (1989) also found extensive reading effective in Pakistan. In particular, ESL students in Pakistan could improve their reading and writing skill in a three-month extensive reading program. Fourth, Robb and Susser's (1989) study indicates that extensive reading improves writing skill of students. This study required students to write summaries of extensive reading materials (i.e. books). Fifth, the study of Janopoulos (1986) suggests that extensive reading improves writing skill. Sixth, in Cho and Krasher's (1994) study, immigrant adults in the U.S. (20+) were exposed to an extensive reading program. This program contributed to "substantial vocabulary acquisition". In addition, the program improved "oral/aural language proficiency" of the students. Seventh, in Mason and Krashen's (1997) study, less proficient Japanese students managed to improve their reading skill by participating in an extensive reading program. Eighth, Coady (1997) indicates that extensive reading leads to "incidental acquisition of vocabulary". Ninth, Elley and Mangubhai (1983) suggest that extensive reading may lead to extensive acquisition of L2

structures. Tenth, Karlin and Romanko (2010) (in Japanese context) and LIN (2010) (in Taiwan) found that extensive reading develops positive attitude toward reading.

The author makes the following recommendations regarding effective implementation of extensive reading program. First, in-service and pre-service teacher training program should be managed for the teachers of extensive reading. Second, awareness raising program should be arranged for parents, administrators, and authorities. Third, extensive reading practice should be integrated to the mainstream curriculum. Citing Brown (2009), the author asserts that textbooks should include activities on extensive reading, because "textbooks can help overcome concerns about the "legitimacy" and "practicalities of setting up an extensive reading program" (p. 251). Fourth, citing Day and Bamford (1998), the author notes that an extensive reading program may use students' "reading notebook", "weekly reading diary", and "book reports" as instruments of evaluation. In addition, the author records that teachers may ask students to write their feeling/opinions on comment cards [which can indicate students' progress]. Fifth, teachers should inform students about the purpose of extensive reading [i.e. enjoyment] and method of extensive reading [i.e. overall comprehension]. In addition, citing Day and Bamford (2002), the author suggests that teachers should guide students in selecting texts. Finally, citing Bell's (1998) study of extensive reading program in Yemen, the author indicates that students should be allowed to read excerpts from books and to make short oral presentations in the class. In addition, students may recommend texts to their classmates.

5.13.0 Pronunciation

5.13.1 In their article, "Teaching Stress to ESL Students", Gazi Shahadat Hossain (Assistant Professor, Dept. of English Language and Literature, Premier University, Chittagong) and Sawsan Tarannum (Lecturer in English, Centre for University Requirement Courses

(CENRU), IIUC) [Hossain & Tarannum, 2010] discusses the role of "stress" in English pronunciation and explains techniques of teaching and raising awareness about stress.

The authors define "stress" as pronouncing words or syllables with "more force than the surrounding words or syllables" (p. 123). Stress is important in English because it determines the function of a word. Besides, there might be communicative breakdown if interlocutors fail to perceive and produce "stress" accurately. In addition, stress plays a significant role in pragmatics, i.e. the context of an utterance (e.g. question, opinion, correction) might depend on stress.

The authors note some techniques to raise awareness among students about stress in pronunciation. For instance, drilling can be a useful way to teach/learn stress pattern. Second, a teacher may tap with a pen while pronouncing stressed syllables. Third, stressed syllables can be demonstrated on board or in students' handouts through capitalization, underlining, and drawing circles or box.

There are two approaches, as the authors point out, to teaching stress: top-down and bottom-up. Top-down approach focuses on teaching stress in larger chunks of language. On the other hand, bottom-up approach begins with phoneme. Apart from this, teachers may choose to select students' names, or names of large cities as 'words' to practice stress. The authors further maintain that 'Cuisenaire rods' may be used to demonstrate stressed and unstressed syllables: green [rod] may be used for primary stress, red for secondary stress, and white for unstressed [syllable]. In teaching sentence stress, teachers may use newspaper headlines [which omit unstressed words such as articles, verbs, prepositions etc.] to show stressed and unstressed words in a sentence.

5.13.2 In his article, "The Influence of the Local Varieties on the Sound Patterns of English: A Case Study of Bangladeshi Tertiary Students", Muhammad Azizul Hoque (Lecturer,

Department of English Language and Literature, IIUC) [Hoque, 2010] investigates difficulties of English pronunciation encountered by students of different regional background in Bangladesh.

In this case study, 88 undergraduate students of English department and Law department (with different regional and socio-cultural background) participated. The researcher randomly selected participants considering their regional background. To elicit data about mispronunciation, the author randomly chosen the following commonly mispronounced words: class, today, department, flower, paper, professor, victory, effective, glass, very, zoo, flask, semester, risk, zero, spring, special, little etc. The researcher wrote these words on the board and asked one group of students to pronounce the words. A second group of students were required to read passages containing mispronounced words. A third group was engaged in dialogs to identify mispronounced words. In all cases, the author recorded the speech and transcribed the mispronounced words.

Analysis of data suggests that speaker of English cannot distinguish between long and short vowels. For instance, 12 students out of 22 uttered 'flask' /flɑ[ːs]k/ as /flʌsk/. Besides, 5 students from Noakhali, Sattkhira, Netrokona, Noagaon, and Jhenaidah pronounced 'department' /dɪˈpɑːrtmənt/ as /dɪpʌtment/ and some other students pronounced /dɪphʌtment/ Second, students are not aware about dipthongs in English. Therefore, they tend to drop the second part of a dipthong. For instance, a student from Comilla (Meghna) pronounced paper /peɪpər/ as / pæpʌr/ and another student of Noakhali (Shenbag) pronounced this word as /pepʌr/ . Third, students are confused with /f/ and /v/ sounds. For instance, students from Shibchor (Madaripur), Chouddhogram (Comilla), Laksham (Comilla) pronounced 'flower' /flɑʊər/ as /plɑʊər/. Thus, they tend to replace /f/ (fricative) with /p/ (bilabial plosive) sound. Besides, labio-dental /v/ sound becomes bilabial /b/ or /v/. For instance, one student from Comilla uttered 'very' /very/ as /beːri/ and a student from Natore uttered 'victory'/ vɪktərɪ/ as

/bhɪktoːrɪ/. Fourth, /f/ sound might become /b/ sound. For instance, a student of Laksham has been observed pronouncing professor /prəfesər/ as /prɒbeːsɒr/. Fifth, /p/ sound may become /f/ sound. For instance, students from Feni, Madaripur, and B. Baria pronounced 'department' /dɪpɑːtmənt/ as /dɪfʌrtment/. Sixth, students face problems in pronouncing consonant clusters. For instance, a short vowel may be placed before a consonant cluster. This phenomenon has been observed among students of Jhalokathi (Borishal) who pronounced 'glass' /glɑːs/ as /gɪlʌs/; Lakshmipur who pronounced 'special' /speʃəl/ as /ɪspæʃʌl/; and Feni who pronounced stupid /stjuːpɪd/ as /ɪstupɪd/. Apart from this, a short vowel may be inserted inside a consonant cluster. As an illustration, a student of Borishal pronounced 'flower' /flɑʊər/ as /felɑʊər/. Similar examples have been found among students of Netrokona, Naogaon, and Satkhira who pronounced 'little' /litl/ as /liːtɪl/. Besides, students of Borishal and Mymensingh tend to omit the second portion of consonant clusters such as /pr/ or /tr/. For instance, in this study they pronounced, 'professor' /prəfesər/ as /p(r)ɒfesɒr/ (Borishal) and 'district' /dɪstrikt/ as /dɪstɪk/ (Mymensingh). Futher, /sk/ may be pronounced as /ks/—as occurred in 'flask' in the pronunciation of students from Cox's Bazar, Borishal, Vhola, Hobigonj, Kustia, Naogaon and Netrokona. Seventh, one student from Satkhira and another student from Gazipur replaced /s/ sound by /ʃ/ sound in the word 'flask' i.e., they uttered 'flask' /flɑːsk/ as /flʌʃk/. Eighth, students cannot distinguish between /dʒ/ and /z/ sound. In this research, 8 students out of 12 uttered /z/ sound as /dʒ/. Ninth, some students have problems with /tʃ/ sound. For instance, students from Noakhali pronounced /tiːtʃə/ as /tiːsʌr/. Tenth, students tend to replace /θ/ sound with /t/ sound. For instance, a student from Jhalokathi and another one from Noakhali uttered 'thank' /θæŋk/ as /tæŋk/. Finally, /d/ sound may be pronounced as /t/ sound. In this study, a student from Feni, uttered 'good' /gʊd/ as /gʊt/.

Finally, the author recommends that drill practice of Received Pronunciation of English may help overcome pronunciation difficulties. In addition, comparative study between L1 (Bangla) and L2 (English) sound system might be helpful in raising awareness about phonological distinction of the two languages. Students should consciously practice long/short vowels, dipthongs, monopthongs, and consonant clusters. Besides, watching English movies might be a useful technique to improve pronunciation.

5.13.3 In the essay, "The Role of Pronunciation in EFL/ESL Instruction", Durdana Matin [Matin, 2006] reviews research findings on teaching-learning pronunciation, identities difficulties in English pronunciation and describes some techniques of teaching English phonological system.

The author notes that research of Celec-Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin (1996), Gillette (1994), Graham (1994) and Pennington (1994) suggest that pronunciation skills is connected with the following factors: age, background in learning pronunciation, aptitude, learner attitude and motivation, and native language. The author points out that achieving native-like pronunciation might be difficult for adult learners due to the effect of lateralization. With regard to the second factor, i.e. background of learners, the author argues that some speakers might have habitual or systematic phonological errors. With regard to aptitude, the author remarks that aptitude or capacity to learn a language influences learning pronunciation. Learners' attitude towards native speakers and target language culture plays determining role in learning pronunciation. Besides, motivation also determines success or failure in achieving phonological skills. The fifth factor, i.e. learners' native language interferes negatively in attaining pronunciation skills. The author identifies some specific problems in learning pronunciation for non-native speakers. For instance, English is a stress-timed language whereas French, Italian or Bangla language are syllable-timed. In addition, absence of

specific English sounds in learners' native language may create difficulty. For instance, the author observes that Bangla speakers face difficulty in pronouncing /z/, /v/, /w/, /f/, /p/, /t/, /k/ sounds.

The author suggests some techniques of teaching pronunciation. First, teachers may detect problems by asking students to read aloud English sentences. Then, teachers may concentrate on problems of individual students (one-on-one). Second, the author recommends the process of 'Accent Neutralization' or 'Accent Reduction' i.e. removing regional [learners' own language] accent to teach American on British accent. Finally, interactive computer software may be used to teach/learn correct pronunciation.

5.13.4 In his case study, "Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis: Applicability to Teaching English Pronunciation in Bangladesh", Md. Moniruz Zaman (Senior Lecturer, Department of English, ASA University Bangladesh) [Zaman, 2008] makes an attempt to explore English pronunciation problems of Bengali speaking EFL learners. In addition, the author analyses how contrastive analysis might be useful in teaching English pronunciation to Bengali speaking students.

The participants of this study were speakers of marked regional dialect (Noakhali, Chittagong, and Sylhet)) and moderately marked regional dialect (Shatkhira, Norail, Jessore, Chuadanga, Kushtia, Mymensing, Kishoregonj, Jamalpur, Chandpur and comilla). The participants of this study were required to read aloud isolated word list. Besides, their pronunciation was observed during natural conversation. They were also given listening tests on minimal pairs and natural speech to judge their receptive skills.

Findings suggest that students of South West part of Bangladesh mispronounced [dʒ] and [tʃ] sounds. Some other difficult sounds for the students include: [ʒ], [θ], [ð], [ɜː], [f], [v], [tʃ], [dʒ], [z], [g]. In the pronunciation of Bengali speaking EFL learners [f] sound

becomes [ph]; [v] become [bh]; [tʃ] becomes [s]; [dʒ] becomes [z]; [z] becomes [dʒ]; [ʒ]

becomes [z] or [dʒ]; [θ] (voiceless dental fricative) becomes [ð] (voiced dental fricative); [ə]

becomes [æ], [ʌ]. However, result of this research indicates that strongly motivated learners

with sufficient exposure and practice can eradicate influence of regional dialect from their

English speech. Contrastive information between Bangla and English sound facilitates this

process. In addition, contrastive information is useful in both acquiring productive

[speaking] and receptive [listening] skills.

Finally, the author indicates that pronunciation teaching using contrastive analysis

may help students overcome pronunciation difficulty. Second, conscious practice and

sufficient exposure is essential in learning pronunciation. Third, motivation is a significant

psychological factor in acquiring pronunciation skills.

5.13.5 In his study, "Teaching English Pronunciation in Countries Where English is a Second

Language: Bangladesh Perspective", Mohammad Rasel Howlader (Senior lecturer,

department of English, Daffodil International University) [Howlader, 2010] investigates

teachers' perception about significance of teaching pronunciation. In addition, he also

explores the methodology that teachers employ in teaching pronunciation. In this study 40

EFL teachers from Bangladesh and abroad participated. The researcher used structured

questionnaire to elicit responses.

Findings suggest that 80% teachers think that teaching pronunciation is significant.

Besides, 60% teachers reported that they completely use CLT in teaching pronunciation

whereas 30% reported that they partially employ CLT to teach pronunciation. Further, 75%

teachers believe that RP (Received Pronunciation) or GA (General American) should be

taught in the classroom. 95% teachers believe that mutual intelligibility and

comprehensibility should be emphasized. 60% teachers appear to be concerned with

teaching/learning stress pattern. 90% teachers think that computer technology may be useful in teaching pronunciation. 80% teachers think that teachers need training on teaching pronunciation.

The author notes that phonetic transcript, contrastive analysis, minimal pair drills, pronunciation games, imitation, dialogue, role play may be used in teaching pronunciation. Finally, the author suggests that RP on GA model may be taught in the classroom. However, intelligibility and comprehensibility should be the goal of teaching learning pronunciation.

5.13.6 In his essay, "Approaches to Developing Pronunciation in a Second Language: A Study in Bangladesh", Mohammad Rasel Howlader (Senior Lecturer, Department of English, Daffodil International University, Dhaka, Bangladesh) [Howlader, 2011] discusses models and techniques of teaching English pronunciation.

The author notes that language experts such as Thornbury, Harmer, Cook, Marianne, suggest that mutual intelligibility should be the target of teaching/learning pronunciation. Besides, the author indicates that RP (Received Pronunciation) or GA (General American) should not be the model of pronunciation, because interaction between NNS-NNS is more frequent than NNS-NS.

The author documents some techniques of teaching pronunciation : (1) use of phonetic transcript, (2) imitation, (3) ear training (through dictation), (4) phonetic training through using videos, (5) contrastive analysis between L1 and L2 sound system, (6) minimal pair drill, (7) providing connective feedback, (8) using cards of rhyming words (e.g. take, make, do, true), (9) tongue twisters, (10) reading aloud, (11) use of visual aids (e.g. sound-color chart, rods, pictures, mirror), (12) focusing on individual sounds etc.

5.13.7 In his essay, "Teaching Pronunciation to Non-Native English Speakers", Md. Zahid Akter (Lecturer, East west University, Dhaka) [Akter, 2005) argues for explicit teaching of pronunciation in Bangladesh.

The authors suggest that mere comprehensible pronunciation might not be useful in Practical situation. Drawing upon some empirical evidence (one from his own classroom, and the other from the experience of his friend), the author argues that mispronunciation might produce undesirable incidents. For instance one student in the author's class (in Bangladesh) became an object of laughter due to mispronunciation. In another instance, an acquaintance of the author had to consume dog, since he misheard waiter's pronunciation of 'dog' as 'duck'. The author argues that teachers may choose British English on American English as model of pronunciation without targeting accurate imitation of the speakers of these models. However, the author indicates that choice of a model should not oversight the fact that people learn English to communicate with non-native speakers of English; therefore, choosing RP or American English as model might not be a practical decision.

Finally, the author recommends that pronunciation should be explicitly taught in the classroom. Second model or variety of English for teaching pronunciation should be judiciously chosen.

5.13.8 In their article, "A Synchronic Comparison Between the Vowel Phonemes of Bengali & English Phonology and its Classroom Applicability", Aleeya Tamzida (Senior Lecturer, department of English, Stamford University Bangladesh) and Sharmin Siddiqui (Lecturer, department of English, King Khalid University, KSA) [Tamzida & Siddiqui, 2011] explain the distinction between Bangla and English sound system, and present the result of a survey study related to teaching pronunciation.

In their discussion of the distinction between Bangla and English Phonological system, the authors point out that Bengali [i] is a high-front-unrounded vowel whereas English short vowel [ɪ] is front-less high than /i:/-slightly spread vowel, and long vowel /i:/ is high-front-slightly spared [lips] vowel (higher and more front than /ɪ/). Second, Bengali vowel [e] is front-high-mid-unround vowel whereas English /e/ is front-between high-mid and low-mid-slightly spread vowel. Third, Bengali [æ] is front-low-mid-unround vowel whereas English /æ/ is front-between low-mid and low-spread vowel. Fourth, Bengali [ɑ] is central-low-neutral [lips] vowel whereas English short vowel /ʌ/ is central-lower than low-mid-neutral vowel. Fifth, Bengali /ɔ/ is back-low mid-round vowel whereas English short vowel /ɒ/ is party back-between low-mid and low-rounded. Sixth, Bengali /ɜ/ is back-high mid-round vowel whereas English long vowel /ɔ:/ is less back and higher than Bengali /ɜ/. Seventh, Bengali vowel [u] is back-high-round whereas English short vowel /ʊ/ is partially back-lower than Bengali /u/. Eighth, there is no vowel in Bengali equivalent to English /ə/ and /ɜ:/. Ninth, Bangla dipthongs are shorter than English dipthongs. The authors argue that the difference between Bangla and English sound system causes difficulty in pronunciation for Bengali speaking EFL learners.

The authors conducted a survey to investigate the effect of teaching distinction between Bangla and English phonological system. The participants of this study include 40 undergraduate students of English discipline of Stamford University. The participants of this study took two pronunciation tests—one before being informed about differences of Bangla and English sound system—and the other after being informed about sound system. Analysis of data suggests that the mean score of correct pronunciation in Oral Test-1 (before teaching) was 28.3 whereas mean score of Oral Test-2 (after teaching) was 66.3 indicates an improvement in students' performance of pronunciation .

Finally, the authors recommend that students should practice English phonemes in front of mirror. Second, students should pay special attention to /ə/, /ɪ/, /e/, and /æ/ sound as well as dipthongs. Third, students may use CD to practice RP English sounds.

5.13.9 In his essay, "A Comparison Between English and Bangla Vowel Systems", A R M Mostafizar Rahman (English Discipline, Khulna University, Bangladesh) [Rahman, 2008] discusses the differences and similarities between Bangla and English Vowel sounds.

The author points out the following similarities between Bangla and English vowel system. First, both English and Bangla vowels are produced through pulmonic-egressive air-stream mechanism. Second, both English and Bangla vowels are voiced. On the other hand, the author mentions the following differences. First, in English there are twelve pure vowels whereas in Bangla there are seven/eight pure vowels. Second, there are eight dipthongs in English whereas there are twenty-five/thirty-one dipthongs in Bangla. Third, English pure vowels can be categorized as 'long' and 'short ' in terms of length whereas Bangla pure vowels are short. In addition, meaning of words does not depend on length of sound in Bangla language. Fourth, one or more letters may indicate one vowel sound (e.g. theme, beat) whereas one letter stands for one vowel sound in Bangla.

The author identifies some difficulties encountered by Bengali speaking learners of English. First, Bangla speakers find it difficult to articulate English words maintaining exact vowel length; second, they cannot differentiate between English vowels and dipthongs; third, they tend to follow spelling of English words to pronounce them.

Finally, the author recommends that dictionary may be used to understand the distinction between English vowels and diphthongs. One should ignore spelling while pronouncing a word. Besides, a particular variety such as RP/BBC English should be selected as a model to learn pronunciation.

5.13.10 In his article, "EFL Pronunciation: Why is it a Peripheral Skill?", M. Maniruzzaman (Professor, Department of English, Jahangirnagar University, Bangladesh) [Maniruzzaman, 2012] explores pedagogy of pronunciation in Bangladesh.

The author identifies the following reasons that contributed to the exclusion of pronunciation in the syllabus and curriculum at primary, secondary, and tertiary level: (a) syllabus designers are ignorant of the significance of teaching pronunciation; (b) syllabus designers are uninformed about the needs of the students; (c) syllabus designers do not have training and expertise in designing syllabus for teaching pronunciations; (d) academicians coming from literature stream might have intentionally ignored teaching of pronunciation. The author argues that language teachers ignore teaching pronunciation for two reasons: first, most of the teachers are not trained to teach pronunciation; second, pronunciation skill is not tested at SSC and HSC level.

Finally, the author argues that teaching pronunciation in Bangladeshi language education curriculum is ignored "due to arbitrariness, indifference, ignorance, incompetence, lack of qualifications and expertise, inefficiency, and/or professional rivalry" [between literature stream and ELT stream] (p.92). The author indicates that policy makers should appoint curriculum designers or syllabus designers according to the needs of the students. Besides, language teachers should be trained in ELT and applied linguistics.

5.13.11 In his article, "The Effect of Regional Bengali Dialect on English Pronunciation of Bangladeshi Second Language Learners: A Reflection", Md. Minhaj Ul Abedin (Assistant Professor, Department of English, Stamford University, Dhaka) [Abedin, 2010-2011] explores pronunciation difficulties in English of Bangladeshi students.

The author audiorecorded speech samples of 48 students (randomly selected) from 8 regions of Bangladesh to identify specific pronunciation difficulties: Barishal, Comilla,

Chittagong, Noakhali, Dinajpur, Rangpur, Sylhet, and Jessore. This apart, the author conducted a questionnaire survey among these students, and 24 [English] language teachers (randomly selected) form these 8 locations to explore their views about teaching-learning English pronunciation.

Analysis of speech samples shows specific pronunciation difficulties in English of different regions. For instance, students of Dinajpur district pronounce 'over' /əʊvə(r)/, 'value' /vælju:/, and / 'hear' /hɪə(r)/ as /əbər/, /velju:/, and /heər/ respectively; students of Rangpur region pronounce 'sorry' /sɒrɪ/, 'very' /verɪ/ and 'fun' /fʌn/ as /tʃɒri/, /bheri/, and /phʌn/ respectively; students of Barishal region pronounce 'though' / ðəʊ/, 'sorry' /sɒri/ and 'voice' /vɔɪs/ as /ðʊ/, /sʌri/, /bɔɪc/ [sic.] respectively; students of Sylhet pronounce 'sorry' /sɒri/, 'voice' /vɔɪs/ and 'visit' /vɪzɪt/ as /tʃʌri/, /bɔɪc/ [sic.] and /bɪzɪt/ respectively; students of Comilla pronounce 'star' /stɑ(r)/, 'over' /əʊvə(r)/, and 'family' /fæməli/ as /i:star/, /ʊvər/, and /phemeli/ respectively; students of Chittagong pronounce 'when' /wen/, 'value' /vælju:/ and 'challenge' /tʃælɪndʒ/ as /woen/, /bælu:/ and /sælɪndʒ/ respectively; students of Jessore pronounce 'over' /əʊvə(r)/, 'star' /stɑ(r)/ and 'church' /tʃɜ:tʃ/ as /əbər/, /e:stɑ(r)/ and /tʃɜ:s/ respectively; and students of Noakhali pronounce 'funny' /fʌni/, 'church' /tʃɜ:tʃ/ and 'receive' /rɪsi:v/ as /pʌni/, /sɜ:tʃ/, and /rɪtʃi:b/ respectively. The author mentions that students of Sylhet replace /ka/sound with/kha/; students of Noakhali replace /f/ sound with /p/; and students of Chittagong replace /tʃ/sound with /s/. Besides, students of all regions find it difficult to pronounce /z/ sound.

Analysis of survey data indicates that 81% students are uniformed about the concept of standard pronunciation. In addition, 91% teachers and 76% students opined that regional accent influences English accent. Apart from this, 97% teachers reported that sufficient logistic support is unavailable to teach pronunciation.

The author recommends that students should be taught spelling and pronunciation at the same time. Second, student should be taught phonemic symbol. Third, pronunciation should be taught at discourse level. Fourth, teacher training programs should be organized. Fifth, learners should listen to Standard English pronunciation.

5.14.0 Context, Culture, and Politics

5.14.1 In his article, "The Role of Context in Teaching English to the Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL)", Md. Humayun Kabir (Assistant Professor, Dept. of English Language and Literature, IIUC) [Kabir, 2010] explains the significance of context in English language teaching.

The author uses his personal experience as qualitative data to demonstrate the nexus between context and language teaching. He defines "context" as broader social situation, and explicates the significance of the following four contexts: cultural, political, institutional, and classroom. Cultural context involves beliefs, attitudes, behavior, customs, and habits of a society which influence teaching methodology and classroom procedures. For instance, the implementation of CLT has become difficult in Bangladesh due to cultural difference: teachers in Bangladesh prefer to teach grammatical rules and translate reading passages into Bangla. Second, Political context refer to the role of language in the era of globalization and language education policy in a [country]. The author argues that in the era of globalization, proficiency in English is essential to gain "European citizenship" (p. 30). Besides, status of English [i.e. language education policy] in a country is linked with language pedagogy. For instance, the replacement of English with Bangla in 1983 in Bangladesh at higher academic levels exacerbated the condition of teaching-learning English in the country. Third, institutional context includes support for teachers, duration of course, payment, funding,

relationship between people etc. As an illustration, the author records that in Arabian [Muslim] country and in Madrasha's of Bangladesh, scope for communication between males and females is limited. This type of institutional context affects choice of methodology and classroom procedure. Fourth, classroom context is related to the behavior of students and their response to educational innovation or new methodology. The author maintains that teachers should not be rigid in applying principles of CLT in Bangladesh, considering the classroom context.

Finally, the author argues that since method is linked with belief system, social relations and structure of thought, it cannot be separated from context. Thus, the application/introduction of a method must take "context" into account.

5.14.2 In her study, "Problems of Using Texts With Unfamiliar Cultural and Social Context in English Language Learning", Zakia Noor Matin (Senior Lecturer, Department of English, Stamford University Bangladesh) [Matin, 2011] explores problems in using foreign text in the classroom, and teachers' and students' perceptions about these texts.

The author indentifies five problems of using culturally inappropriate text by examining the following texts: *English skills* by John Langan , *New Headway Pre-Intermediate Workbook* by John and Liz Soars, and some online resources. First [in her class], students could not understand names of some food items such as "parmesan cheese or veal ", "flakes" (*English Skills*), "turkey", "anchovies" (*Headway Workbook*). Second, students failed to understand gender of a foreign mane (e.g. June). Third, students sometimes face problems in understanding festivals, organizations, vehicles (e.g. "Porsche" car mentioned in *Headway Workbook* without any background). Fourth, foreign text such as *English Skills* and *New Headway* discuss sex and dating which are culturally inappropriate for Bangladeshi students. Fifth, *English Skills* contain taboo topics such as "enjoying

"Saturday Night" serial and having sex" which are damaging for the value system of Bangladesh culture.

The author surveyed 100 students and 10 teachers of 3 private universities of Dhaka in January 2011 to explore their perceptions about foreign texts. The author elicited data using structured questionnaire.

In this study, 100% students reported that texts used in the classroom are written by foreign writer; 50% reported that they do not enjoy reading text ; 70% students indicated that unknown [foreign] examples and exercises interrupt learning process; 50% students responded that they do not feel "easy" with foreign text; 85% students opined that exercises should be created using familiar objects. On the other hand, all the teachers answered that they use text written by foreign authors in the class, and their students do not understand the text properly. 70% teachers reported that students do not feel comfortable with foreign text. 6 teachers reported that unfamiliar object [in the foreign text] interrupts language learning process. 8 teachers opined that texts should be written in Bangladeshi context. The author, based on students' response, generalizes that foreign texts inhibit learning process.

Finally, the author suggests that texts and exercises in English language class should contain Bangladeshi culture. Second, Bangladeshi teachers should start writing textbooks for tertiary level. Third, teachers should not select any text that does not match with the value system of Bangladesh.

5.14.3 In their essay, "Cultural Imperialism and English Language Teaching in Bangladesh", Md. Anisur Rahman Anis (Assistant Professor, Faculty of CSE, Mawlana Bhashani Science and Technology University, Tangail, Bangladesh), Md. Mohabbat Hossain (Assistant Professor, Department of English, Sylhet International University, Sylhet), Md. Kamrul Hassan (Assistant Professor, Department of English, Asian University of Bangladesh,

Dhaka), and S.M. Shahajahan Shiraz Talukder (Assistant Professor, Department of English, Darul Ihsan University, Tangail campus) [Anis, Hossain, Hassan, & Talukder, 2011] present some general observations on ELT in Bangladesh.

The authors note that though new ELT theories entered Bangladesh, these are not practiced since teachers are accustomed to Grammar-Translation Method, and are reluctant to accept any change. Second, English courses taught from primary to tertiary level do not serve the needs the students. Third, there is a link between identity and linguistic proficiency. In particular, English proficiency of upper class students is better than that of the lower class. In addition, students of urban schools are good at English than students of rural school because urban students have access to cable television, English newspaper, and cyber café. Fourth, family background is another determining factor in the development of students' proficiency. In other words, students can practice [speaking] English with their educated parents. Fifth, schools do not follow any homogenous teaching methodology in Bangladesh.

Finally, the authors recommend that English for Specific Purposes and English for Academic Purposes should be introduced in Bangladesh. An ELT policy need to be devised to ensure teaching English according to the needs of the students. Teachers should be trained so that they can practice CLT in the classroom.

5.14.4 In their essay, "Globalization, English Hegemony and Cultural Imperialism: The Bangladesh Context", E.S. Pamela Islam (Lecture in English, East west University) and Dr. W. Islam (Associate Professor of English, Institute of Modern language, University of Dhaka) [Islam & Islam, 2010] explain 'globalization', 'hegemony', 'cultural imperialism' in relation to English language teaching in Bangladesh.

The authors suggest that 'globalization' means movement of people, commodity, capital and ideas at an accelerated rate across nation-states as a consequence of economic

integration. In addition, the concept of globalization implicates cultural homogenization and erosion of diversity. Internationalization of education means inter-institutional (governmental) agreements on educational issues. The authors argue that 'globalization' and 'internationalization of education' have established the hegemony of English language and culture [around the world]. In order to examine the impact of English teaching materials on Bangladeshi students, the author adopts the definition of culture proposed by Hofstede (2001) who states that culture refers to the collective programming of mind which separates one community from another community. The authors indicate that hegemony refers to the exercise of power. The authors note that the hegemony of English has been established through political, economic and military power. The authors suggest that imperialism (or neo-imperialism) means economic, cultural and linguistic dominance [of powerful actors] over weak countries. As an illustration, the authors mention that Bangladeshi English medium schools use British ESL/EFL materials. Therefore, English medium students in Bangladesh try to imitate English culture ignoring local culture. In addition, ELT materials manufactured in the UK and the USA are culturally inappropriate and irrelevant for non-English speaking countries. The authors enlist the following culturally alien themes from the *New Headway* book: "The Buckingham palace", "The picture of Hollywood kids", "A trip to Greenwich", and "The picture of the Statue of Liberty".

Finally, in order to protect Bengali culture from the influence of English culture the authors recommend 'long term approach' and 'short term approach'. 'Long term approach' indicates production of ESL materials in Bangladesh incorporating local cultural component. However, target culture may be included according to the needs of the students. On the other hand, 'short term approach' means adaptation of foreign ESL materials by eliminating inappropriate cultural components.

5.14.5 In her essay, "The English Linguistic Imperialism", Mahmuda Nasrin (Associate Professor, English Discipline, Khulna University, Khulna) [Nasrin, 2009] discusses Phillipson's and Pennycook's conception of English linguistic imperialism.

The author notes that Phillipson's view of linguistic imperialism involves the idea that spread of English around the world is a consequence of policies adopted by Britain and the US and that English language has created global inequality which is perpetuated through linguicism. According to Phillipson, the hegemony of English is maintained through assertion of the superiority of English to other languages, and through the expansion of ELT industry which claims itself as 'non-political'. Like Phillipson, Pennycook also believes that English language contributes to construct global inequality; nevertheless, English language can be a useful tool for non-native speakers of English. In other words, Pennycook maintains that English language is a language of oppression on the one hand, and resistance on the other.

Finally, the author concludes that English language teachers should be critical and conscious about the political implication (i.e. creation of inequality) of English language. In addition, English language teachers should try to form discourse of opposition using English. Further, students should be informed about the political dimension of English language.

5.14.6 In her essay, "The Sociocultural Model: Mediation and English Language Teaching at the Tertiary Level", Zakia Ahmad (Assistant Professor, Department of English and Humanities, University of Liberal Arts Bangladesh, Dhaka) [Ahmad, 2009] describes Sociocultural Theory, Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), Activity Theory, and Mediation in relation to language learning.

Sociocultural theory of learning, taking impetus from Vygotsky's analysis of psychological development, claims that learning takes place through social interaction. In

other words, learning is an outcome of the mediation of sociological components such as signs, symbols, language, and other artifacts. In particular, language contributes to cognitive development of a child through mediating mental processes. The sociocultural approach investigates the interconnection between human psychological processes and social context. A second concept noted by author is ZPD, a term introduced by Vygotsky. ZPD refers to the distance between the child's actual developmental level and potential developmental levels with the help of peers. ZPD is linked with sociocultural theory since ZPD indicates a process of development through the interaction between children, adults, and social [environment]. The support of adults in the form of dialog with the child is called scaffolding. The process of scaffolding indexes towards the mediating role of peers [on society] in human development. Another concept noted by the author is "Activity Theory", proposed by Leont'ev. Activity theory holds that the process of mediation which causes learning occurs as a consequence of activity. According to Vygotsky, play is an important activity [in academic context] since it provides opportunities for social interaction. A central concept of sociocultural theory is mediation, developed by Vygotsky. Mediation refers to the interconnections among subject, object and artifact [e.g. language]. Language mediates between subject and object (i.e. physical world). In the context of second language learning, portfolio of learners can function as mediator since learners can reflect on their previous works if they maintain portfolio. In addition, feedback, error correction, and dialogic interaction can play the role of mediator in the context of L2 learning.

Finally, the author argues that notions of sociocultural theory can be applied in the classrooms of Bangladeshi private universities. For instance, trenches can work as a mediator by helping then in the process of learning. In addition, teacher-student interaction, student interaction can also mediate learning.

5.14.7 In her essay, "Effects of Imperialism and Cultural Hegemony on Learners of English as a Second or Foreign Language", Nadia Rahman (Senior Lecturer, Department of English and Humanities, University of Liberal Arts Bangladesh (ULAB), Dhaka) [Rahman, 2010-2011] discusses interconnections between imperialism, hegemony and English language teaching.

The author quotes Phillipson's notion of linguistic imperialism who contends that linguistic imperialism is a theoretical construct which explains structural and ideological process of establishing domination of one language over others. The author points out that dominant language influences habits, values and behaviors of other linguistic groups. The power of imperialistic language creates inferiority complex among the speakers of other languages; therefore, non-native speakers of English try to adopt English culture and imitate phonological patterns of native speakers. In this context, the author notes that native speakers' pronunciation is not superior to non-native speaker' pronunciation because English is a global language whose ownership is does not belong only to native speakers. Besides, linguistic imperialism of English is manifested in the language teaching materials used in Bangladesh which contain Euro-America cultural components. The author argues that language teaching materials should represent local culture.

The author defines hegemony as a process of that helps maintain imperialism. In particular, hegemony of language perpetuates the domination of a particular language. Finally, the author suggests that both local and foreign materials should be used in the classroom. Second, teachers of Bangladesh should try to design language teaching materials that would reflect Bangladeshi society, culture and values. The author praises language teaching materials of 'BBC Janala' for their relevance to Bangladeshi culture.

5.14.8 In her article, "Authenticity in ELT Materials: Colourless Green?", Neelima Akhter (Lecturer, Department of English, University of Dhaka) [Akhter, 2010] critiques cultural ingredients of the following three British language coursebooks: *New Cutting Edge* (2005, Sarah Cunningham and Peter Moor, Intermediate Student's Book), *New Headway* (2003, L. Soars and J. Soars, 3rd ed., Intermediate students' Book), *Solutions* (2007, Tim Falla, and Paul A. Davies, 1st ed., pre-Intermediate student's Book).

The author examines the textbooks using three analytical categories: (a) intercultural representations, (b) image representations, and (c) Intercultural critique. In her discussion of 'intercultural representation', the author indicates that reading texts of the three textbooks fall under the following 10 categories: (1) world (i.e. events/places of the world), (2) universal (e.g. love, family), (3) life stories (4) job/holiday, (5) festivals and customs, (6) advances/technology, (7) film/Hollywood, (8) news stories/crime, (9) money, and (10) Environment. The author notes that 93% text deals with the first seven categories. The author observes that controversial issues (e.g. race, religion) and "culturally thick texts" (p. 77) are avoided. In addition, most of the texts appear to be informative and objective. In this context, the author notes that informative text treats learners as simply receiver of knowledge

In her discussion of 'image representations' the author indicates that the 'global' characteristics of the text is deceptive because 14 out of 19 [reading] texts of *Solutions* (2007), 7 out of 11 texts of *New Cutting Edge* (2005), and 8 out of 12 texts of *New Headway* (2003) represent people of the UK and the USA. In addition, majority of the images [pictures] show white middle class faces.

In her discussion on 'Intercultural critique', the author notes that all the selected coursebooks favor comprehension check question over critical questions. For instance, the amount of comprehension check questions in the three books are as follows: *New Cutting Edge* : 75%; *New Headway*: 73%; and *Solutions*: 85%.

The author summarizes the characteristics of the coursebooks in the following way: The books "avoid culturally thick texts, give (only) information on a number of cultures, use more 'global topics', avoid stereotypes, [and] avoid controversial topics" (p.82).

Finally, the author recommends that texts from different genres (.g. poems, short stories) and different cultures should be included in the coursebooks. In addition, controversial or culturally loaded texts should be included to encourage critical thinking.

5.14.9 In her article, "Politeness Principle: Being Polite in Language Use", Anjuman Ara (Senior Lecturer, United International University) [Ara, 2010] discusses politeness principles in English language.

To define politeness, the author notes that politeness is manifested through friendly attitude and appropriate use of language. In her elaborate discussion on politeness, the author explicates the following concepts: face, politeness maxims, co-operative principles, and politeness and context. In particular, 'face', a notion developed by Goffman(1967) refers to self image of the people who are addressees in communication. Brown and Levinson (1987) divide 'face' into two types: 'positive face' which means desire for appreciation and approval, and 'negative face' which refers to one's affirmation of independent action or choice. According to 'safety of face', 'face' can be further categorized into two parts: Face Saving Acts (FSA) which means being aware [of not hurting others] and 'Face Threatening Acts' (FTA) which means being inconsiderate about others' emotion [e.g. refusal or criticism]. Face saving acts can be divided into two parts: off-second (indirect expressions) where an interlocution indirectly asks for something (e.g. "oh! where's my pen?") and on-record (direct expressions) FSA in which an interlocutor explicitly asks for something. On-record FSA can be divided into two types: On record-baldly (with no redress) which involves the use of direct imperative structure (e.g. "Give me a call at night") and on-record (with

redress) [involves use of request mitigation devices (e.g. please, would you mind)].

According to 'emphasis on the face', on-record FSA can be divided into two parts: negative politeness is the extreme expression of politeness in which an addresser avoids imposition of action on addressee (e.g. "I wonder if your could lend me the book") and positive politeness means exhibiting closeness, solidarity or friendship through using slang, nicknames, gossip etc.

The author documents Leech's (1983) six politeness maxims: Tact[fullness] (i.e. negative politeness), generosity (positive politeness), approbation (i.e. praise), modesty, agreement, and sympathy. Besides, co-operative principle involves four maxims: 'quality' (e.g. being truthful), 'quantity' (i.e. adequately informative), manner (i.e. clarity), and 'relevance'.

The author mentions that speech act or politeness is contingent on socio-cultural context. In other words, politeness would depend on social distance, degree of familiarity, power relations, age, occupation, ethnicity etc. In addition, norms of politeness differ between cultures. For instance, people of Bangladesh use bald-on-records while offering something to guests (e.g. "Have some more rice") [which might not be common in Angle-American culture].

Finally, the author draws some pedagogic implication of her theoretical discussion of politeness. First, teachers should explain how language can be used to express politeness. The author believes that teaching of politeness would improve communicative performance of the students.

5.14.10 In her article, "Speech Acts of Apologizing and Complimenting: Some Awareness Raising Exercises", Dr. Rubina Khan (Assistant Professor of English, University of Dhaka) [Khan, 2000] proposes some exercises for teaching apologizing and complimenting.

The author proposes two different sets of exercises for pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic competence. 'Sociopragmatic competence' is composed of two types of competence: social competence which means capability of understanding social value system; and pragmatic competence which means ability to encode social value system into linguistic expressions. On the other hand, pragmalinguistic competence refers to knowledge of syntax or semantic formula appropriate in particular speech act.

For developing pragmalinguistic competence, the author proposes the following exercises: First, students may be given dialogs containing examples of 'compliments' and they may be required to detect syntactic structure used as compliments. Second, the teacher may show images from fashion magazine and write complimentary remarks on blackboard (e.g. That's a pretty dress) to teach vocabulary of positive evaluation. Students may be asked to change complimentary vocabulary to formulate new expressions. Third, students may be given a list of expressions of compliment (e.g. I really admire your energy) and apology (e.g. That was my fault) to identify relevant context for their use. Fourth, students may be given dialogs and expressions such as "Excuse me" and "I'm sorry", and they may be asked to detect the right expressions by analyzing dialogs.

For developing sociopragmatic competence, the author proposes the following exercises. First, students may be asked to listen to an audiorecorded dialog to identify identity of the interlocutors and setting of conversation. Next, students may be asked to discuss the connection between identity of participants, setting of conversation and choice of particular linguistic expression for apology. Second, students may be asked to complete dialogs by inserting expression of apology and compliments. Third, cross-culture awareness about apology and compliments may be developed by giving students tasks on sociocultural behavior. For instance, students may be asked whether they expect compliments if they "buy a new car" and what people say in such situation (e.g. "when you are wearing something new

or special"). In addition, students may be asked whether people expect apology if they walk into someone accidentally. Besides, students may also be asked about relevant linguistic expressions in such situation. Fourth, students may be given some statements (e.g. compliments are frequent in Bangladeshi society; compliments are often followed by a criticism) to mark as 'true', 'false' or 'partially true'.

The author indicates that material developers should design activities to develop sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic competence. Second, students may be informed about cultural norms so that they can improve sociopragmatic competence. Finally, the author remarks that research on cross-cultural pragmatic might help to devise exercise for learners with varied cultural inheritance.

5.14.11 In her article, "De-Hegemonising English", Rumana Siddique (Assistant Professor, Department of English, University of Dhaka) [Siddique, 2002 & 2003] records the debate surrounding 'native' and 'non-native' varieties of English and its implications for ELT.

The author notes that the debate about standard and non-standard varieties of English originates from two views about the concept of culture: a monolithic notion which holds that culture is static [or homogenous] that has to be protected; and a pluralist view which accepts input from other culture and believes that culture is dynamic.

The author engages Crystal, Kachru and Nelson, Nelson, Abercrombie, McArthur, Debra Myhill, and Graddol to present a comprehensive analysis of native-non native issue. In particular, Crystal contends that ELT community cannot ignore the fact that the construct of 'proper or correct English' is challenged by the existing sociolinguistic reality of the world. Nelson (1992) indicates that value judgment such as 'right' or 'wrong' are not applied in the discussion on the distinction between British and American English; therefore, non-native varieties should not be designated as "wrong" variety. Kachru and Nelson (2001)

contend that the idea of monolithic English is a prejudice. Abercrombie (1951) equates language-based prejudice with racial prejudice. McArthur (1992) points out that there are more non-RP speakers [in the world] than RP speakers (RP speakers constitute 3-4% of the British population). Kachru and Nelson advance the idea that an "attitudinal despotism" is responsible for establishing the superiority of native varieties over non-native varieties. Debra Myhill (1993) resists the concept of Standard English (SE). She argues that pluralist view of English should be adopted by accommodating multiple standards of English in ELT pedagogy. Crystal (2001) argues that students should be exposed to different varieties of English. Kachru and Nelson (2001) maintain that teacher training program should create positive attitudes among the teachers toward world Englishes. In teaching methodology, they suggest to adopt functional view of language because the notion of 'appropriateness' varies across culture. Functional view of language would allow to define 'appropriateness' or 'communicative competence' according to norms of different culture. Nelson (1992) indicates that English language should be appropriated in different cultures. Crystal suggests that appreciation of non-native varieties does not mean to negate the existence of standard variety. According to Crystal, it is essential to recognize standard variety to attain international intelligibility and non-native varieties to assert local identity. Graddol (1997) believes that a number of standards would emerge in future and compete with each other. In addition, countries that use English as a second language would determine their own pedagogic paradigm and choose non-native varieties of English. Dictionaries and pedagogic materials on non-native varieties might also evolve. However, ELT industry would function to maintain the unity of English [to ensure mutual intelligibility]. In support of Graddol's view Strevans (1992) points out that uniformity of English can be maintained because grammar and core vocabulary of English do not vary across the world.

5.14.12 In his article, "Diversity in the Teaching-Learning Culture of ELT Contexts and its Implications for ELT Programs", M. Shahidullah (Professor, Department of English, Rajshahi University) [Shahidullah, 2001-2002] describes educational culture of western and non-western countries.

According to contexts, the author divides teaching-learning culture into two groups: western and non-western. The author points out that western education system promotes 'individuality', 'independence' and 'self-confidence'. In addition, western education culture accepts confrontation. Citing Mead (1970), the author notes that western students like group work and pair work. Citing Jones (1965), the author records that 'autonomy' [autonomous learning] is a characteristic of western education system. Besides, the author mentions that western education system is 'innovative or progressive' (where learners are required to construct knowledge and concepts), 'student-centered', 'humanistic' and 'democratic'. In addition, teachers play the role of a 'facilitator'. Further, the author points out that western teaching-learning culture is marked by "autonomous and self-access learning, individualised instruction, interactional or communicative approach and discovery learning" (p. 110).

In his discussion of non-western contexts, the author surveys Asian, African, and Latin American teaching-learning culture. In the section entitled "Asian contexts", the author describes educational culture of India, Bangladesh, Middle-East, Thailand, Indonesia, Cambodia, and Vietnam. In his discussion of Indian teaching-learning culture, citing Bowers (1980), the author notes that Indian teaching method is essentially lecture based. In addition, education system in Indian education system encourages 'passive' learning and 'transfer and storage of information' (p. 111). Citing Mukherjee (1972), the author records that in Indian sub-continent a teacher "is more of a 'guru' than a guide" (p. 111). In his discussion on teaching-learning culture in Bangladesh, citing Shahidullah (1997) the author notes: "English teaching and learning in Bangladesh is still teacher[-] controlled and lecture-oriented" (p.

112). In his discussion of educational culture of Middle-East, citing Dudley-Evans (1980), the author points out that in the Middle-East teacher is authoritative; in addition, the education system in this context encourages rote-memorization. Citing Widdowson (1988), the author records that "conformity and submission to authority" (p. 112) is appreciated in Saudi Arabian education culture. In his discussion of Thai educational culture, the author, citing Hawkey (1980), notes that teaching/learning culture in Thailand is lecture based, teacher-controlled and passive. In addition, "Thai students are taught to be quiet and obedient" (p. 113). In his discussion of Indonesian education culture, citing Coleman (1987), the author mentions that Indonesian students are passive learners. In his discussion of Cambodian education culture, citing Jones (1995), the author writes that Cambodian education system encourages rote-memorization, and in this context "conformity is more highly prized than freedom of expression" (p. 114). Besides, Cambodian learners are dependent. In his discussion of teaching-learning culture in Vietnam, citing Ellis (1996), and Kramsch and Sullivan (1996), the author points out that this context encourages "memorisation and dependence on the teachers" (p. 114). In his discussion on Chinese education culture, citing Burnaby and Sun (1989), the author mentions that this context is teacher-centered and encourages memorization. In his discussion on teaching-learning culture of Japan, citing Cortazzi (1994), the author records that Japanese education system encourages rote memorization. The author also cites Holliday who views "Japanese culture as…conformist and reticent" (p. 115).

In his discussion of African context, the author includes Morocco and Egypt. Citing Nolasco (1986), the author notes that in Morocco, the teacher is authoritative and uses lock-step pattern in teaching. Citing Ammar (1954), the author points out that education system of Egypt intends to construct students as 'docile' and submissive to authority. In his discussion

of Latin American teaching-learning culture, citing Kneller (1965), the author writes:
"Mexican teaching-learning is very authoritarian" (p. 116).

Finally, the author suggests that since teaching-learning culture in western and non-western context differs substantially, pedagogic framework invented in one context may not function in the other context. Therefore, specific features of local cultures have to be examined to develop appropriate methodology for a particular space.

5.14.13 In his essay, "Orchestrating Cultural Differences in Pedagogy: A Transformational Experience", Zakir Hossain Majumder (Assistant Professor, Department of English & Humanities, University of Liberal Arts Bangladesh) [Majumder, 2009] describes his experience of utilizing the concept of 'contact zone' in teaching English literature. The author notes Mary Louise Prartt's (1992) definition of 'contact zone'. In view of Pratt, contact zone refers to a social space where interactions of different cultures take place. Pratt maintains that students develop their own strategies to handle cultural contradictions or contact zone. The author indicates that students negotiate between their cultural background and culture encoded in academic texts.

The author shares his experience of dealing with contact zone in a course entitled "English 303: Short stories" in the University of Liberal Arts Bangladesh. The author taught this course in Spring 2009 to [the students of English discipline]. The objective of this course was to teach short stories from England, Europe and America. The instructor (i.e. the author) selected 15 short stories to teach in the course from these spaces. But as the author indicates, students did not passively accept his decisions. Students suggested to include short stories from south Asia, Africa, Latin America, and Caribbean Islands "to break the hierarchy between center and periphery" (p. 95). The author incorporated some short stories from the 'periphery' in the course to respond to the demand of the students. Thus, students and the

instruction dealt with the contact zone. Second, while deciding topics of the term paper, the author (i.e. the instruction) had to accommodate students' choice. Third, the author accepted students' pronunciation of English which carried accents of students' own dialect. The author writes: "I had to negotiate by way of converging different accents tinged with different vernacular tenors and tones. Thus, the end result is a contact zone welcoming a particular taxonomy of English—a Bangladeshi English with different local accents, indeed" [p. 96]. In particular, the idea of contact zone helped the author to change his teaching approach.

5.14.14 In his article, "Social Factors Affect Language Teaching (LT) and Language Learning (LL): A Sociolinguistic Perspective", Mohammad Rasel Howlader (Senior Lecturer, Department of English, Daffodil International University, Dhaka) [Howlader, 2010] explains some sociolinguistic factors that are connected with teaching/learning L2.

The first factor that affects language teaching and language learning is ethnicity. In particular, the 'interlanguage' of an L2 learner reflects the ethnolinguistic identity of the learner. Second, age is a significant factor in teaching L2. Citing cook (2008), the author notes that age may be a determining factor in selecting teaching methodology for students. For instance, teenage L2 students may not like 'role play' or 'simulation' activity, since these activity may generate anxiety in adolescent students. And, adult L2 students may not appreciate "play-like situations" in the classroom. Third, use of language differs between male and female. [These differences should be addressed in L2 classroom; in other words, learners should be informed about these differences in LL classroom]. Fourth, there might be several regional varieties of a language. Regional verities may contain distinctive grammar, lexis, and phonological features (i.e. accent). The author observes: "A teacher in Scotland might face difficulty teaching English learners. Scottish accent is difficult and different from English accent" (p. 29). Fifth, certain varieties of a language may gain prestige by receiving

support from privileged class of the society. For instance, Received Pronunciation (RP) is a prestige variety. However, citing Crystal (2003), the author notes: "Today RP, in its pure form, is spoken by less that 3% of the British population" (p. 29). Sixth, some linguistic features may be associated with particular professional identity (e.g. Journalist, doctor, politician etc). The field of ESP (English for Specific Purpose) deals with English language used in these professions. Seventh, use of language involves formal style, informal style, and the issue of politeness. The choice of style in the use of language is contingent on "role, audience and situation" (p. 30). Eighth, there are cultural conventions in the use of language (e.g. greetings). The author indicates that students may be taught these cultural conventions of language use.

5.14.15 In the article, "The Spread of English: Causes and Implications", Batool Sarwar [Sarwar, 2005] describes the causes and consequences of the spread of English around the world.

The author records that English language is both an instrument of economic development and exploitation. The author points out that British colonialism carried English to different parts of the world. British empire used English language as an apparatus of subjugation and control. The author notes that Anglicism endorses innate superiority of English, and promotes English around the world. According to Anglicist discourse, English language is inherently superior to other languages because it is a language of science, arts, and commerce, and it has simple grammar and wide range of vocabulary. The author cites Crystal (1997) who believes that the spread of English was accidental and natural. In other words, Crystal maintains that English became a dominant language in the world because English was the language of British Empire, Industrial revolution, and the USA—the leading economic power. The author supports Crystal (i.e. English is a dominant language) and

record this significance of English. The author points out that English is a dominant language in the field of technology, education, business, and music industry. However, the author refers to Pennycook who maintains that English is an instrument of exploitation. In particular, English language creates and perpetuates inequality because the distribution of English language in the society is uneven. The author also cites Phillipson who holds that English language creates condition for the devaluation of other languages and cultures in the post-colonial world. The author argues that "the teaching of English is itself an integral part of the process of exploitation" (p. 32). In support of her/his argument, the author cites Phillipson. Phillipson contends that Britain generates revenue by selling English language teaching material and training course. In this context, the author refers to Graddol (*The Future of English*) who suggests that British should adopt a "brand management" strategy to ensure its domination over different varieties of English. Apart from economic implication of English language, the author notes that English language committed violence against indigenous language ("linguistic genocide") and culture. In other words, English language was imposed on its colonies which led to the extinction of local language and culture. Citing Crystal [1997], the author notes that English language was promoted as a natural language. For instance, it was argued that choice of English as official language in Nigeria and Ghana is a natural choice, because privileging one ethnic language over another might lead to interethnic conflict. However, Crystal argues that bilingualism is an acceptable solution in such context [not English monolingualisn]. The author refers to Pennycook (*English and the Discourses of Colonialism*) (1998) who suggests that discourse of colonialism produces and reproduces derogatory images of non-native English speaker.

Finally, the author states that English is a functionally significant language. Nevertheless, there should be a resistance against the hegemony of English. The author

suggests that English language should be decolonized. In addition, the author advocates the construction of a counter-discourse.

5.14.16 In his article, "The Global Spread of English, "Linguistic Imperialism", and the "Politics" of English Language Teaching: A Reassessment of the Role of English in the World Today", Bijoy Lal Basu (Assistant Professor, Department of English, University of Dhaka) [Basu, 2013] documents the debate on linguistic imperialism.

The author divides his discussion into two broad sections: key arguments in *Linguistic Imperialism* and post-*Linguistic Imperialism* debate. In his discussion on of key arguments in *Linguistic Imperialism*, the author categorically records the central ideas of Phillipson. The author quotes the definition of linguistic imperialism from Phillipson (1992, p. 47 in Basu, 2013, p. 186): "Linguistic imperialism is the process by which the dominance of English is asserted and maintained by the establishment and continuous reconstitution of structural and cultural inequalities between English and other languages". Precisely, the author notes three arguments that Phillipson put forward in his text *Linguistic Imperialism*. First, Phillipson indicates that English language is responsible for language death. In other words, English language replaces and displaces other languages. Second, Phillipson holds that in periphery countries English language receives more material resources than do local languages. This phenomenon leads to 'subtractive bilingualism'. In addition, Phillipson maintains that linguicism (an ideology that establishes unequal relationship between languages) consolidates the power of English language. Third, Phillipson contends that ELT establishment serves Anglo-American interests. In particular, Phillipson points out that Center defines and dominates ELT discipline. On the other hand, periphery adopts the products (i.e. theories, pedagogic materials) of the Center.

In his discussion on "post-*Linguistic Imperialism* debate", the author groups the views pertaining imperialism into three categories: the pluralization view, the lingua franca view, and the resistance view. The pluralization view holds that English language can coexist with local languages. In other words, English language does not always essentially threaten the existence of local languages. In this context, the author cites Joseph Bisong (1995) and Achebe and Chew (1999), who believe that English language can coexist with local languages. In particular, Bisong shows that English language can coexist in Nigeria, a multilingual setting. Achebe maintains that English language can carry the weight of African experience. And, Chew argues that English language does not threaten the existent of local languages in Singapore. The lingua franca view, a second line of argument in the post-*Linguistic Imperialism* debate, challenges the British-American norm of English Language. In particular, Jennifer Jenkins (2000) and Barbara Seidlhofer (2002) argue for the construction of ELF (English as a lingua franca) or non-native variety of English. The resistance view, a third view in post-*Linguistic Imperialism* debate, holds that English language can be appropriated in the Periphery countries. The interlocutors of "the resistance view" include Pennycook (1994), Canagarajah (1999), and Wallace (2003). In particular, Pennycook maintains that Periphery can appropriate English language to formulate a counter discourse. Canagarajah indicates that the notion of "linguistic imperialism" ignores critical consciousness and agency of Periphery countries. Precisely, Canagarajah emphasizes on the "purposeful and productive resistance". Wallace argues for the construction of a "globalised" English (rather than "localized" as in Pennycook and Canagarajah). In addition, Wallace envisages the emergence of "literate English" which is "less "native-speakered" and discursively powerful. Basu writes: "Such literate English will have the potential to serve the "writing back" and "talking back" function for creative as well as critical purposes" (p. 195).

5.15.0 Speaking

5.15.1 In his study, "Teaching-Learning Situations of Speaking in English at the University Level: A Case Study", Md. Iqbal Hosain [Hosain, 2010] makes an attempt to explore problems in teaching English. He deals with four research questions: (a) causes of reluctance of students in speaking English; (b) methods followed in teaching speaking; (c) limitations in teaching oral communication skills; (d) solution to problems in teaching spoken English. In this study, the author collects data from the following private universities of Dhaka city: ASA University, United International University, University of Liberal Arts, International Islamic University (Dhaka Campus), and Bangladesh Islami University. He collected data through questionnaire survey (closed-ended), interviewing and classroom observation (5 classes had been observed). He administered questionnaire survey on 79 students. In addition, and 10 teachers were interviewed. In the "findings" section, the author argues based on the "empirical investigation" (p. 192) that perceived difficulty of English language, teachers' carelessness, students' shyness, absence of extra-curricular activities in English such as debate, recitation etc., traditional testing system, inappropriate syllabus, lack of lab facilities, negative attitudes towards English language—are some obstacles in developing speaking skills of students at university level. In addition, teachers interviewed in this study identified the following obstacles in developing speaking skills (problems of students): shyness, inadequate practice, insufficient mastery over vocabulary and syntax. Teachers also make some suggestions to improve speaking skills of the students. According to teachers, students should read newspapers, watch television, and try to become friends of native speakers. In addition, teachers should be friendly with students and assign students presentation to reduce shyness. Further, University authority should establish language labs. In the "conclusion" section, the author summarizes his finding to answer the research questions. First, students are reluctant to learn/practice spoken English since institutional environment is not favorable

(research question *a*); teachers do not consistently follow CLT or GTM (research question *b*); limitation of the university is that they do not have any language lab (research question *c*). In response to his fourth research question (i.e. solutions), the author recommends that teachers should use English in the classroom; engage students in group work/pair work; act as a monitor during class activities; stress on both fluency and accuracy; and adopt CLT in teaching speaking skill. In addition, he argues that examination system should be process-oriented and a language class should not take more than 20-25 students.

5.15.2 In his article, "Oral English and Basic Teaching Techniques", A.S.M. Shamim Miah (Lecturer, Department of English, Stamford University Bangladesh) [Miah, 2005] reports the findings of an experiment with a technique of teaching speaking skills. In addition, he discusses his experience of using some activities of teaching speaking.

In his experimental study, the author made an attempt to assess the effectiveness of recording speech of the students in teaching-learning speaking. The participants of this study were EFL learners of The American center at Karachi, Pakistan. The students were required to record their conversation in the language lab. After sixth months, students showed remarkable improvement in their speaking. The author argues that students became successful in improving in their speaking skill by recording their conversations because they could listen to their own conversations after recoding it. They also received feedback from the instructor. The author maintains that recording conversation would be a useful technique of teaching speaking at elementary, intermediate, and tertiary level. In addition, students of large classes might get opportunity to talk about topics that interest them through recording their own conversations in the language lab.

Apart from the experiment, the author mentions some activities that he used in teaching speaking skills at the American Center, Karachi, Pakistan. The first activity is "Get

to know who" activity. In this task, the teacher gives a card containing information about philanthropist, pessimist or optimist to students. Next, students are asked to talk to each other about these personality types. Students are also given pictures related to the personality types and they are asked to comment about them. Another technique of teaching speaking is to give students a list of vocabulary (e.g. mammal, carnivore, herbivore etc.) with explanation before starting a discussion activity. This technique reduces students' nervousness. A third technique of teaching listening integrate listening and speaking activity in which students are required to listen to cassettes and identify objects in pictures. In addition, students are required to make comments on the content of the listening text and pictures.

5.15.3 In her survey study, "Public Speaking Course: Teaching Students to Speak With Confidence", Mehjabeen Rahman (Lecturer in English, Stamford University Bangladesh) [Rahman, 2006] examines effectiveness of public speaking course.

In this study, the researcher observed 120 students of English, Business, Electrical Engineering, and Law over a period of one year in classes of different teachers. In addition, she interviewed both teachers and students to explore their views about usefulness of "public speaking" course.

Observatory data suggests that students could not avoid plagiarism in preparing their speech. However, teacher's corrective feedback reduced this practice. In addition, teachers frequently corrected linguistic [grammatical] mistakes of the students. Nevertheless, teachers emphasized fluency over accuracy. The author found that 3 students out of every 10 tried to follow teacher's instruction precisely. These students were active, collaborative and eventually became 'best speakers'. In addition, 80% students reported that they liked the course. The rest of the students (20%) found the course boring though at the end they realized the significance of the course. Interview data indicates that majority of the students (99.8%)

enjoyed the course which developed their level of confidence. In addition, 99% students think that they have been benefited from the course; 90% students reported that Public Speaking course helped them understand lectures in other [disciplinary] courses. Further, all the students opine that other higher educational institutions should offer this course.

The author argues that Public Speaking course generate confidence among students. In addition, it enhances creative and critical thinking ability. The author stresses on teaching of the following skills in Public Speaking course: controlling nervousness, knowing one's strengths and weaknesses, understanding purpose and structure of a speech, taking preparation and practicing etc.

5.15.4 In her essay, "Developing Speaking Skill at Secondary and Higher Secondary Levels: Problems and Few Recommendations", Nipa Bhattacharjee (Lecturer, Department of English, Stamford University Bangladesh) [Bhattacharjee, 2008] discuses psychological factors affecting students' speaking skills in Bangladesh, and examines SSC and HSC textbooks to evaluate their effectiveness in improving speaking skills.

According to the author, psychological factors that inhibit learning speaking skills for Bangladeshi students include high anxiety, introversion, shyness, teachers- dominated classroom, fear, lack of confidence, traditional teaching technique [GTM], lack of exposure to English, lack of teacher training, and lack of logistic support. With regard to the textbooks of SSC and HSC, the author remarks that activities of the textbooks mainly deal with grammatical structure or form. Moreover, exercises such as fill in the blanks, true/false etc. do not facilitate speaking or negotiation of meaning.

The author recommends that in order to improve speaking skills of Bangladeshi students, speaking skills should be tested. In addition, new textbook on situational and conversational English may be introduced; group works/pair works may be arranged in the

class; conversation club may be established in colleges; introvert and shy students should be dealt with special attention. Further, teachers should be friendly in the class; teachers should be well trained; and language laboratory should be established in the institutions.

5.15.5 In their survey, "Teaching Presentation Skills to Tertiary Students in Bangladesh", Akhter Jahan (Senior lecturer, Daffodil International University) and Nusrat Jahan (Lecturer, Daffodil International University) [Jahan & Jahan, 2008] investigates the practice of teaching-learning presentation skills in private universities of Bangladesh.

The participants of this study involve 100 students and 30 teachers (randomly selected) from eight private and two public universities of Bangladesh. The researchers used structured questionnaire (containing both open-ended and closed-ended questions) to elicit data. The authors analyzed data using descriptive statistics integrated in SPSS 15.0.

Analysis of data reveals that 48% students were 'satisfied' with their presentation before receiving instruction on presentation skills. After receiving the instruction, 54% students reported that they became 'satisfied', and 18% reported that they become 'strongly satisfied'. 49% students reported that they rehearse presentation only two times before presenting. 68% students reported they that memorize the content of presentation. 76% students reported that they use only internet to collect information on presentation topic whereas 66% reported that they mainly use library books to prepare contents for presentation. As causes of problems faced during presentation, 68% detected 'lack in communication skills in English' and 75% identified 'stage fright'. Besides, 66% students reported that they like 'peer evaluation'. The analysis of data generated from teachers indicate that 53.3% teachers were 'dissatisfied' with students' presentation before instructional input. 23.3% teachers expressed their satisfaction with the improvement of students' presentation after (formal) instruction. 50% teachers reported that they prefer to assign presentation in the last half of a

semester. Teachers identified some 'common mistakes of students' in presentation: 70% teachers detected 'too much dependence on memorization'; 63.3% teachers detected 'poor communication skills in English', and 50% detected 'poor preparation' as common problems of students in presentation. Besides, 33.3% teachers arrange trial presentation; 56.7% do not supply any printed guidelines. When asked about 'peer evaluation', 83.3% teachers responded that peer evaluation is effective. On the basis of these findings, the authors recommend that teachers should provide printed guidelines to students. Second, teachers may organize demonstration session in which expert presenters may make presentations (to show examples of good presentation). Third, presentation should be assigned in the first half of a semester when students are not overloaded with academic activities. Fourth, teachers should encourage group presentation and peer collaboration. Fifth, students may prepare note cards to resist themselves from memorizing concerts of presentation.

5.15.6 In their survey, "Teaching Speaking in Large Classes: Crossing the Barriers", Nargis Chowdhury (Assistant Professor , Department of English, Stamford University Bangladesh) and Sabrina M. Shaila (Assistant Professor, United International University) [Chowdhury & Shaila, 2011] explore obstacles in teaching speaking in large class and suggest some techniques appropriate for large classes.

The author randomly selected 52 language teacher from private universities (25 male, 27 female) located in Dhaka and Chittagong. As instrument of data elicitation, a structured questionnaire along with some open-ended question has been used in this study.

37 respondents out of 52 reported that number of students in their class exceeds 30 which they consider large class. Besides, average class duration ranges from 50 to 90 minutes which is inadequate for a large class. In response to the question whether large class should be considered as a challenge rather than a problem, 34 respondents answered

positively; 16 respondents answered negatively; and 2 respondents took a neutral position. The authors argue that large class should be considered a "challenge" in Bangladesh because Bangladesh is an over populated country. In response to the question why they think teaching a particular skill [speaking] is difficult in a large class, the respondents reported the following reasons: mixed ability class, nervousness/shyness of the students, influence of traditional teaching method [GTM] on students, inadequate space, lack of discipline etc.

The authors mention some techniques that they found effective in their own [large] classes in teaching speaking: impromptu speech, simulating the role of a counselor (answering/addressing personal problems published in newspapers/magazines), [simulating] job interview, linked storytelling, using movie clips (students would guess the ending), picture presentation and classroom debate. Finally, the author recommends that teachers should ensure equal participation of students in the class.

5.15.7 In their article, "Effectiveness of Role Play in Enhancing the Speaking Skills of the Learners in a Large Classroom: An Investigation of Tertiary Level Students", Priscilla Islam (Lecturer, Department of English, Stamford University Bangladesh) and Tazria Islam (Lecturer, Department of English, Stamford University Bangladesh) [Islam & Islam, 2012] explore the utility of using role-play in improving speaking skills of students.

The participants of this study encompass approximately 120 students of English discipline. The authors conducted a structured questionnaire survey among about 100 students, and interviewed 20 students to reveal their perceptions about role-play. In addition, five teachers were interviewed to explore their views about the usefulness of role play in teaching speaking skills. Besides, the authors video-recorded performance of a group of students in order to trace change in their speaking skills.

In the survey, 70% students report that role-play improved their speaking skills. In interview, five students remarked that group activities benefitted less confident students. Eight students indicate that role-play was an interesting and novel experience for them. However, five students reported that they forgot dialogs due to nervousness which was embarrassing for them. Apart from students, teachers also reported that role-play improved speaking skills and developed fluency of the. In addition, role-play increased confidence of the students.

In order to investigate effectiveness of role-play in improving speaking skills of the students, the author video recorded the performance of a group comprising four members. In the first role-play session, students acted out an interaction between a salesman and a customer. The authors evaluated their performance and provided constructive feedback. In this performance, students' linguistic expressions were limited and speed of interaction was slow. In the second role-play session, the students enacted an interaction between a doctor, a patient, and a nurse. In this performance, students' fluency increased. In the third role-play, students displayed significant improvement in their interactive skill. In the fourth unrehearsed role-play on a film-making event, students managed to speak fluently, confidently, and spontaneously. In addition, they used appropriate vocabulary in the dialog. These data indicate gradual improvement in students' performance.

The authors suggest that role-play technique can be used in the class to develop speaking skills of students. In addition, teachers may prompt students during role-play if students forget dialogs.

5.15.8 In their article, "Effects of Social and Psychological Constraints in Public Speaking", Mohammad Tanvir Kaisar and Mst. Shahanaz Khanam (authors are Lecturer, Department of

English, Prime University, Dhaka, Bangladesh) [Kaisar & Khanam, 2007] explore socio-psychological obstacles in public speaking.

The central focus of this study is students who encounter difficulty in speaking before audience. The authors generated data through interview, observation, and workshop (conducted on 23 September 2007) to identity causes of "High Communication Apprehensive" behavior (i.e. social phobia or fear of speaking in public).

Findings of the study disclose social and psychological constraints to public speaking. Psychological barriers include Shyness, lack of confidence, introversion, and uneasiness. The authors note that psychological problems are created by unfriendly parents and teachers in Bangladesh. Besides, some social problems are responsible for generating 'communication apprehension'. For instance, children are not encouraged to speak spontaneously before elders and introversion is highly appraised. In addition, some people in society tend to be over-critical of other's opinions which limit the possibility of dialog between people. The authors detect some pedagogic causes of 'communication apprehension'. For instance, some speakers are afraid of making any (grammatical) mistakes. Besides, Grammar-Translation method is also responsible for creating communication difficulty. Those who are trained in GTM tend to translate ideas into English which inhibits fluency. Some speakers tend to select difficult topic which results in unsuccessful speech. Some speakers cannot organize their ideas for public speaking. Sometime speakers cannot appreciate questions from audience, and display hostile attitudes. Inferiority complex in speakers' mind ensues from such unfriendly attitude.

Finally, the authors recommend that speaker should consciously try to reduce anxiety or fear and develop confidence. In addition, people with problems in public speaking may seek help from psychologist.

5.15.9 In her article, "Conversation Analysis: A Prospective Approach to Teaching Spoken English in the EFL and ESL Classroom", Farina Yasmin (Lecturer, Dept. of English and Humanities, University of Liberal Arts) [Yasmin, 2009] explores the possibility of using findings of CA analysis in EFL/ESL class teaching.

In this study, the author analyzes a telephone conversation of two native speakers of English. The author recorded this conversation in Sydney in 2005. This conversation was a role-play in which a speaker invites her friend over phone for a dinner. The analysis of this conversation shows that the interlocutors used opening (e.g. Herman? Herman? it's me) and closing (e.g. See you around), managed turn successfully through negotiation, and managed topic smoothly, i.e. by changing or maintaining topic and repairing utterances. In addition, the conversation contains instances of preference system (e.g. preferred response and dispreferred response such as delays, prefaces (use of 'uh', 'well', appreciation, apology etc.), adjacency pair (i.e. one part of the pair [utterance] is produced by the first interlocutor and the second part is produced by the second speaker: "Dianne: Don't you remember? I'm leaving for Belgium tomorrow/Herman: Oh. Of cource. Yeah. I remember now" (P. 202)), sequence (i.e. one theme of discussion leading to another theme), and repair.

The author draws the following implications of CA for English language teaching. First, CA can demonstrate mutual construction and negotiation of meaning. Second, CA can show structure and features of conversation produced by native speaker. Third, CA can be used to identify learners' problem in discourse management (e.g. opening, closing etc.). Fourth, findings of CA can be used in designing 'role-play' or 'simulation activities' in the classroom. Fifth, CA can provide the base for teaching the process of interaction.

5.15.10 In her article, "Fears of Formal Speech Presentation in English: Some Thoughts and Practical Solutions", Nadia Rahman (Lecturer, Department of English, Stamford University,

Bangladesh) [Rahman, 2009] explores causes of difficulty in oral presentation and suggests makes some recommendations to remove problems of public speaking.

The author identifies the following problems that a speaker encounters during oral presentation: stage fright, fear of humiliation, and anxiety. The author records that she assigned 100 undergrad Pharmacy students of her class to make a presentation on the topic "My Favorite Tourist Spot of Bangladesh". Among the students, 50% presented general ideas about tourist spot, 30% described the places which they had visited, 10% described those places which impressed them, and the rest 10% refused to make any presentation. The author observed a similar pattern of behavior when the same topic was assigned to 30 students of Microbiology, 20 students of Film and Media, and 25 students of CSE (Computer Science and Engineering). The author reasons that the 50% students who presented general ideas about tourist spots are sensitizes, i.e. they have high-trait anxiety. Therefore, these students suffered from nervousness, and failed to critically examine and think about the topic clearly. These students also suffered from stage fright. The 30% students who described tourist spot from their experience became defocused due to lack of knowledge on the topic and nervousness. The remaining 10% did not present out of fear of humiliation.

The author makes some recommendations to overcome obstacles in public speaking. First, adequate knowledge on presentation topic reduces stage fright. Therefore, students should try to gain knowledge on assigned topic. Second, optimism can also decrease stage fright. In some counseling sessions, the author suggested her students of Pharmacy, Microbiology, and CSE to become optimistic about their presentation, and eventually students managed to remove stage fright. Third, nervous students should try to hide their nervousness in front of the audience. Fourth, students should practice making oral presentation. In one of her classes, the author observed that those students who practiced more performed better. Fifth, students may watch video-recorded samples of public

speeches. Sixth, students may write some key points on a piece of paper and use that during presentation. In other words, students may organize their ideas through making an outline to reduce stage fright.

5.15.11 In his article, "L1 Influence on Learning Spoken English of Bangla Speakers", S.M. Ariful Islam (Lecturer, Department of English & Humanities, University of Liberal Arts Bangladesh) [Islam, 2009] investigates two hypotheses: (a) Bangla language (L1) influences learning English (L2), and (b) low proficiency speakers are more influenced by L1 than high proficiency speakers.

The author collected data through [informal] individual interview form 6 students (with varied proficiency) studying at postgraduate level in Sweden. The author [audio] recorded the conversation to identity L1 influence on their English.

Findings show that L1 caused morphological and phonological errors. At morphological level, errors of subject-verb agreement occur since Bangla language does not have any morpheme to be added to verb if it is accompanied by third person singular number. Examples of such errors in recorded conversation include: "He *give* me huge time", "Because she *love* me too much" etc. A second type of morphological error has been detected in the use of plural marker. In English, both determiner and noun take plural form whereas in Bangla plural marker is placed either before noun or after noun. The following are instances of such errors from the recorded data: "Many tourist", "some organization" etc. A third type of morphological error occurs in the use of gender-based pronoun of English because unlike English Bangla language does not use any separate pronoun to represent male and female. One instance of such errors include: "*He* advised me and *she* helped me to go abroad" (to represent the same woman). A fourth type of morphological error occurs in the use of empty subject (i.e. there, it) because empty subject does not exist in Bangla language. One example

of such error is: "Royal palace, other girls' colleges here". A fifth type of morphological error has been detected in the use of auxiliary verb since Bangla does not have any auxiliary verb. Bangla speakers tend to omit auxiliary verb of English sentence. For instance, "We—passing time" and, "They—facing many problems"—are two examples from the recorded data. Apart from this, phonological errors have been located in the pronunciation of /f/ and/v/ sounds (e.g. fine, very, fish). In particular, /f/ and /v/ are labio-dental sounds in English; but Bangla speakers pronounce these sounds as bilabial stops $/p^h/$ and $/b^h/$ respectively which are phonemes of Bangla language.

A statistical analysis of errors made by high proficiency speakers and low proficiency speakers shows that low proficiency speakers made more errors caused by L1. In particular, 'Speaker 1', a high proficiency speaker (IELTS score 7.0), made 1 semantic and morphological mistake, 0 syntactic mistake, and 17 phonological mistake whereas 'Speaker 5' (IELTS score 5.5) made 10 semantic and morphological errors, 4 syntactic errors, and 34 phonological errors. Finally, the author recommends that teachers should raise consciousness about the differences between Bangla and English language.

5.15.12 In his article, "Problems of Oral Communication in English Among Bangladeshi Students", Harunur Rashid Khan (East West University) [Khan, 2007] investigates errors made by Bangladeshi students in speaking.

The participants of this study include 29 undergraduate students and 10 experienced EFL teachers of Bangladesh. The author elicited data from students through an interview and from teachers through an open-ended questionnaire.

The author documents four categories of errors by analyzing students' data: phonological errors (e.g. sons /sons/, potato /poteto/, boat /bot/), morphological errors (e.g. I can't cook (make) tea, visa price (visa fees)), semantic errors (e.g. Saddam is 'son of father'

(brave man), I go for marketing (I go for shopping)), and syntactic errors (e.g. Are you like playing cricket? (Do you like playing cricket?), I broken my leg). In his elaborate discussion on students' errors, the author maintains that phonological errors occur due to L1 influence. Besides, some phonological errors involve unstressed pronunciation, absence of diphthong, (e.g. make /mek/). In addition, students of Sylhet, Chittagong, Noakhali, Rajshahi, ChapaiNawabganj encounter difficulty in pronouncing /p/ (e.g. people /phiphol/), /ʃ/ (e.g. /fesʌn/ (fashion) and /s/ (e.g. search /chʌrch/) sounds. Some morphological problems include wrong use of lexical categories (e.g. 'loss' for 'lose'), unusual collocations (e.g. visa cost), wrong use of prepositions (e.g. I went for shopping), wrong choice of words (e.g. 'tea plant' instead of 'tea leaf') etc. The author reasons that tendency to translate directly from L1 to L2, and limited exposure to English lead to these mistakes. Semantic errors, as the author argues, originate from ignorance about cross-cultural difference, notional specificities across language (e.g. 1 o'clock at night), idiomatic expressions, polysemous words etc. Syntactic problems include errors in passive construction, use of auxiliary verb, word order etc. These errors are also caused by L1 influence and lack of knowledge about English syntax.

The author points out the following psychological problems that cause communication difficulties: shyness, nervousness, inhibition, fear of losing face. Some non-psychological factors include inadequate mastery over communicative grammar, vocabulary, phonological system, communication strategy etc.

Analysis of survey data also reveals that students encounter difficulty in the categories of phonology, morphology, semantics and syntax. In phonological category, students mispronounce labio-dental /f/ and/v/ as (Bangla) bilabial /pha/ and /bha/ respectively. In addition, students face difficulty in pronouncing long and short vowel. In morphological category, teachers observe that students cannot use words from lexical categories correctly. In semantic category, students are not familiar with recurrently used idioms and phrases. In

syntactic category, teachers indicate students' difficulty in constructing complex and interrogative sentence and in the use of collocation. The surveyed teachers made the following suggestions to improve students' oral communication skill: students should be taught stress, intonation, syntax, vocabulary, notional distinction between Bangla and English language. Second, students should be encouraged to read extensively and watch BBC and CNN, and listen to different varieties of English. Third, consciousness should be created about common mistakes, wrong idioms and collocations. Fourth, English conversation club may be established.

Finally, the author recommends that teachers should be trained so that they can teach oral communication skill effectively. Second, cross-cultural understanding should be developed to eliminate negative L1 influence. Third, mutual intelligibility should be emphasized in teaching phonology. Fourth, speaking strategies (e.g. compensatory strategy) should be taught to remove communicative difficulties.

5.15.13 In his article, "Investigating the Adjacency Pair Mechanism in Informal Conversations", Ahmed Bashir (Assistant Professor, Department of English, University of Dhaka) [Bashir, 2011-2012] analyzes adjacency pair of an informal conversation, and indicates pedagogic implications of adjacency pair in ELT.

The author analyzes a recorded informal conversation. The conversation took place between the author and his friend (a 'non-native speakers' of English) for approximately 20 minutes at the University of Nottingham Malaysia Campus in 2011. The author used methods of conversation analysis (CA) to analyze the data. In particular, CA intends to interpret sequential organization of speech or turns in a conversation. The author notes that adjacency pairs are mutually dependent turns in a conversation. In paired turns, a greeting is accompanied by a greeting and a question is accompanied by an answer. In adjacency pair,

the turn that begins the conversation is termed as "first pair parts" (FPP) and the succeeding turn is called "second pair parts" (SPP). The author discusses the notion of 'preference organization'. A SPP may embody a 'preferred response' or a 'dispreferred respose'. Preferred responses are generally immediate and linguistically unmarked whereas dispreferred responses are generally delayed and linguistically marked. Preferred SPPs involve agreement, acceptation etc; on the other hand, dispreferred SPPs involve disagreements, rejections etc.

    In this article, the author analyzes 11 extracts of the conversation (taken from the first 10 minutes). The interlocutor of the author was informed that the conversation would be recorded. 'Extract 1' of the conversation is discussed under the title "opening a conversation". The conversation opens with a greeting adjacency pair (e.g. FPP: "Hi Prashant"/ SPP: "Hi: uh Ahmed uh:"). Extract 2, 3 and 4 have been discussed under the section entitled "Preferred second pair parts". Citing Pomerantz (1984), the author notes that interlocutors encode assessment or judgments in their turn or speech. An SPP of an adjacency pair may signal agreement or disagreement. Referring to Pomerantz (1984), the author suggests that there can be three types of agreement: (a) agreement with upgraded evaluation, (b) same evaluation, and (c) agreement with down- graded evaluation. Extract 2 exhibits all these three types of evaluation. 'Same evaluation' has been detected when the second speaker [an education amusement official] negatively assesses his present identity and the first speaker agrees with it using the word 'Yea'. 'Downgrade evaluation' has been detected when the second speaker uses "a dispreferred marker 'uh'" tells the first speaker that "becoming a student again…is 'a bit difficult'". The second speaker used this 'downgrade evaluation' in response to the first speaker's 'upgrade evaluation' regarding the problem of being a student again. The first speaker uttered: "[so it's] VERY difficult to adjust". Extract 5, 6 and 7 have been discussed under the section entitled "Preference for agreement". In his

analysis, the author shows that the FPP can be [purposively] constructed to elicit 'Yes' response. The word 'right' can be used as a confirmation token to elicit the response 'yes' (e.g. "u [sic.] you realized it?... right?" (underlined in original) (in extract 5). Extract 8, 9 and 10 have been discussed under the section entitled "Dispreferred second pair parts". Citing Pomerantz (1984) the author notes that dispreferred SPPs may be formulated by using the following strategy: (a) silence [i.e. delayed response], (b) use of tokens including 'uhm', 'uh', 'well', and (c) providing an explanation before uttering a dispreferred SPP. Extract 8 exhibits instances of use of silence, use of 'uhh', and use of explanation in designating dispreferred SPP. (The second speaker designs SPP in response to the first speaker's FPP (i.e. question)). Extract 11 is analyzed under the title "Self-deprecating first assessment". In self-deprecating assessment, FPP speaker makes a negative self-assessment. In this case, agreement is a dispreferred whereas disagreement is a preferred response. Extract 11 demonstrates a self-deprecating assessment by the second speaker [FPP] (e.g. "it was really embarrassing") and a preferred response by the first speaker [SPP] (e.g. "No: no: that was very g: : oo (hh) d").

Finally, the author suggests that teaching adjacency pair may help develop conversation skill of the students in Bangladesh. The author points out that Bangladeshi students may abruptly close a conversation or open a conversation without greeting which might appear rude to interlocutors of other cultures. Besides, schools in Bangladesh tend to teach students to ask direct questions such as 'What is your name?' or 'Where are you from?' which might be unacceptable to non-Bengali society. The author indicates that knowledge of adjacency pairs may enable students to participate naturally in a conversation.

5.15.14 In her article, "Improving Speech Presentation: Report of an Action Research Study", Shaheda Akter [Akter, n.d.] explores the process of improving oral presentation skill of ESOL students.

The author conducted this study in a college of London. The participants of this study include 4 ESOL students from different nations. The participants were elementary level students of English. These students completed secondary level education. The author used closed-ended questionnaire to elicit data regarding the background of the students. The author interviewed students to collect data regarding students' language learning experience.

The students were required to make three presentations. The author recorded and transcribed all the presentations. In the first presentation, students were asked to give a speech on their daily life. The author helped the students in planning and organizing the ideas. The author analyzed the first presentation of the students, and designed five lessons (duration of each lesson was approximately one hour) to improve students' presentation skill. In the five lessons, the author included instruction on subject-verb agreement, organization of ideas, use of visuals, use of silence and pauses etc. because students demonstrated problems in these areas in their first presentation. In the second and third presentation, students were required to use a web chart—a chart that summarizes key ideas of the students.

The author mentions that students managed to improve in the second presentation. In other words, the ideas of the second presentation were organized in comparison with the first presentation. In addition, students' grammatical mistakes decreased in the second presentation. In the second cycle of the lesson after the 2nd presentation, the author provided feedback/lesson on paralinguistic features such as facial expression, eye contact, gestures, tone etc. The lessons of second cycle were designed on basis of the analysis of 2nd presentation. The author writes: Students "showed difficulties in these areas in the 2nd presentation" (p. 123). In the third presentation, eye contact of the students improved. The author writes: "During 3rd presentation the rate of eye contact was higher than in the 2nd presentation" (p. 126).

In a nutshell, the author claims that students' presentation skill gradually improved as they received feedback and instruction. In particular, the students showed improvement in the sequencing of ideas in the third presentation. The author writes: "When I compared the second presentation with the third one, I also noticed substantial improvement in sequencing" (p. 125). Second, students gained confidence and could remove their shyness. The author remarks that students' 'voice' [tone] reflected their confidence. Third, web chart (which contained key points) assisted students to remember detail information during presentation. In other words, web chart reduced the frequency of "taking long pauses" and "stammering". Thus, presentation gradually became lucid. The author observes: "Rehearsals, some practice lessons and familiarity with the term 'presentation' made them confident. Positive reinforcement just after one activity helped in building up their confidence" (p. 127). [Note: The study was conducted in July 2004-October 2004].

5.15.15 In her article, "Teaching Speaking Skill at Tertiary Level in Bangldesh: An Empirical Investigation", Akhter Jahan (Lecturer, Department of English, Daffodil International University, Dhaka) [Jahan, 2008] explores condition of teaching-learning English speaking skills in Bangladesh.

The participants of this study include 200 students (27 students came from English medium background) and 30 [English language] teachers (random sampling) from 10 private and 2 public universities of Bangladesh. As an instrument of data collection, the author mainly used closed-ended questionnaire. However, questionnaire designed for both teachers and students contain open-ended questions that asked participants to make suggestions regarding improvement of speaking skill. The author used SPSS 12.0 to analyze data.

The author explored the "most favorite activities in the spoken English class". Analysis of data reveals that 33.5% students like 'debating'; 22% students like 'role play';

18% students like 'pattern practices & pronunciation practice'; 15.5% students like 'grammar games'; 20% students like 'story telling'; 11.5% students like 'using audio visual materials'. Second, 61% students reported that they practice speaking outside the class. Third, 61.5% students reported that they do not use any extra-English texts to learn English outside the classroom. Fourth, when asked about problems encountered in [English] classes, 32% reported 'lack of self motivation' and 26.5% reported 'higher level of anxiety'. Fifth, Chi-square test reveals that there is a correlation "between satisfaction of language competence in spoken English before instruction and the level of improvement in speaking skills after instruction" (p. 163). In particular, 5% and 43% students reported that they are 'strongly satisfied' and 'satisfied' respectively with their linguistic competence before receiving any instruction [on spoken English]. When asked about the improvement of speaking skill after receiving instruction, 11% students reported that they are 'strongly satisfied' whereas 51% reported that they are 'satisfied'. However, analysis of teachers' data indicates that teachers' level of satisfaction regarding students' speaking skill did not improve after the students received instruction. Teachers' level of satisfaction with students' speaking skill did not improve in the post-instruction phase. In particular, in the pre-instruction stage 3.3% teachers reported that they are 'strongly satisfied' and 23.3% teachers responded that they are 'satisfied' with students' "language competence" [i.e. speaking skill]. In the post-instruction stage, the percentage regarding level of satisfaction remained similar (i.e. strongly satisfied— 3.3% and satisfied—23.3%). This apart, 86.7% teachers reported that they engage students in group work and pair work in spoken English class. Besides, 86.7% teachers asserted that 'fluency' should be the 'first aim in teaching speaking skills' whereas 13.3% affirmed that 'accuracy' should be the first aim in teaching speaking. When asked about the language teaching method that they follow in the class, 73.3% reported that they follow CLT; 20% reported that they follow Situational Language Teaching; and 6.7% reported that they follow

GTM. When asked about the problems they encounter in speaking class, 80% selected the option 'mixed ability class'; 60% opted for the option 'lack of student's motivation'; 33.3% ticked the option 'large class'; 26.7% selected the option 'lack of material'; and 6.7% chose the option 'lack of in-service training'.

To improve speaking skill of the students, the author makes the following recommendation. First, teachers should use different types of classroom activities and materials to increase students' motivation and to reduce anxiety of the students. Second, students should be exposed to "real life spoken language". Third, teachers should stress on teaching pronunciation and vocabulary. Fourth "students should be given fluency based activities rather than accuracy based ones" (p. 166).

5.15.16 In their article, "Teaching Speaking to Fossilized Adult Learners", Mithila Mahfuz (Lecturer, Department of English, Independent University, Bangladesh) and Mousume Akhter Flora (Lecturer, Department of English, North South University) [Mahfuz, & Flora, 2008-09] describe techniques of teaching speaking to fossilized adult learners.

The participants of this study include 20 mid-level employees (age range: 30-40 years) of BRAC (Building Resources Across Communities) (an NGO of Bangladesh) who were required to attend an English language course in 2007. The authors defined these learners as "fossilized" because the learners continued to repeat "the same mistakes that they had first started with" (p. 183). In addition, the students regularly received instruction in the class, but they could not improve.

In the section entitled "Why does fossilization occur?" the authors define fossilization in the following way: "It is true that most second language learners face a sudden stop at one point of acquisition...When this stop becomes permanent, that is, when learners no longer acquire new forms of the target language and cannot correct existing errors in their usage,

they are said to have reached the realms of fossilization" (p. 184). The authors point out two factors that are responsible for fossilization: inter language and attrition. In particular, interlanguage (i.e. incorrect forms of a language) may be fossilized and attrition or lack of practice may cause fossilization. The authors suggest that both "interlanguage" and "attrition" fossilized the participants. In the section entitled "How is a fossilized speaker identified?" Or, how does one identify what elements of L2 are fossilized in a learner?", the authors point out two symptoms of fossilization: non-native accent and chronic errors (which learners cannot correct). In the section entitled "Teaching methodology and materials", the authors describe some steps that they followed to teach fossilized adult students. First, the authors examined the proficiency of the students. Second, the authors analyzed the needs of the students. Third, the authors determined the goal of learning. Fourth, the authors selected the core elements of spoken English (phonology, morphology, grammar, and vocabulary). The authors tried to emphasize on both fluency and accuracy. Therefore, they used Grammar-Translation Method, Audio-Lingual Method, and CLT. The authors engaged students in interactive activities (i.e. group work, pair work). Specifically, the authors used two types of interactive activities: independent practice (i.e. asking for help, complimenting, apologizing, inviting etc.) and controlled practice (e.g. summarizing a poem/article, seminar presentations etc.). Interactive activities were designed to improve fluency and controlled activities were designed to improve accuracy of the students. The authors identified 'proficiency paradox' in their study. Precisely, accuracy activities decreased students' fluency [and fluency activities decreased accuracy].

5.15.17 In his essay, "Learning to Speak English in Bangladesh: The Current State of Affairs", Sadrul Amin [Amin, 2006] discusses some factors which create condition for

learning a foreign language. In addition, He depicts existing scenario of teaching-learning speaking skills in Bangladesh.

The author explains five categories of factors that are connected with learning a foreign language. The first category is 'national, socio-cultural and religious factors'. These factors involve status of the language, attitude toward the language, religious link etc. The second category is 'learner factors'. These factors involve background and motivation of the students. The third category is 'teacher factors'. These factors include teachers' qualifications, training, motivation, workload etc. The fourth category is 'educational factors'. These factors refer to curriculum, syllabus, teaching materials, methods, testing/evaluation etc. The fifth category is 'organizational and administrative factors'. These factors involve logistic support, management, co-ordination etc.

The author points out that students [in Bangladesh] tend to memorize structures and comprehension answers for examination. Therefore, students fail to acquire proficiency in speaking skill. The author identifies the following factors that function as obstacles in teaching speaking skill in Bangladesh. First, students hardly get any chance to practice English. Second, students are not adequately exposed to English language. The author remarks: "We get a rather bleak picture of the current state of affairs with regard to speaking English" (p. 5).

The author makes some recommendations to improve speaking skills of the students. First, students may read extensively to increase their exposure to English language. Second, students may be encouraged to practice speaking. Third, the size of speaking class should be small.

5.16.0 Grammar Teaching

5.16.1 In her article, "Can Formal Instruction on Grammar Help EFL Students in Bangladesh Develop Communicative Competence", Shaila Sultana (Lecturer at Jahangirnagar University) [Sultana, 2003-2004] reviews debates on teaching grammar and explores technique of integrating grammar teaching with task-based approach to learning.

The author examines ideas of Krashen (1991), Canale and Swain (1980), Ellis (1990, 1993, 1998), Bialystok (1978), Sharwood Smith (1981) and Mclaughlin (1987) who support [explicit] formal teaching of grammar. Krashen's 'Monitor Model' holds that conscious knowledge of [grammar] may be used to monitor [learners' own] linguistic output. Ellis suggests that grammatical knowledge gained from formal instruction may become a part of unconscious. Gass (1990) indicates that grammar instruction may help students to reconstruct their interlanguage. Terrell (1991) suggests that explicit knowledge of grammar may facilitate comprehension of meaning of a text. Canale and swain detect 'grammatical competence' as one of the components of communicative competence. Ellis suggests both inductive and deductive teaching of grammar.

To examine link between grammar teaching and syllabus design, the author refers to ideas of Long (1991), Rutherford (1987) and Nunan (1998). According to Long, formal instruction of grammar and communicative activities may be synthesized in a syllabub. Rutherford introduces the idea of 'consciousness raising' about grammatical rules in L1 instruction, which as the author contends, may not be effective in EFL context. Third, Nunan proposes 'organic approach' to teaching grammar which indicates that teaching of linguistic item/grammar may be recursive rather than linear. In addition, grammar should be taught in context and students should be given opportunities to learn grammatical rules from authentic texts.

The author suggests combining principles of communicative teachings (teaching English context), task based approach and form-focused instruction. Second, grammar should be taught from authentic texts such as newspaper articles, magazines, recipe etc. Third, authentic reading and listening texts (radio news, telephone conversation, BBC, VOA etc.) can be used in Bangladesh. Fourth, in the classroom, there might be grammar dictation activity (dictogloss), grammar interpretation activity, translation exercises, short lecture on grammar, meaningful and mechanical drills, cloze tests etc.

5.16.2 In her article, "Grammatical Repertoire in Context", Dr. Rabeya Begum (Assistant Professor, Dept. of English, Islamic University, Kushtia) [Begum, 2003] explains the significance of contextualized grammatical explanation in English language teaching.

The author marks of distinction between traditional system of teaching grammar and contextualized way of teaching grammar. In the traditional system, lexis or grammatical points are taught discretely. On the contrary, in contextualized system of teaching grammar, is considered as a mediator between words, meaning and context. The author indicates that context may be visual, imaginative, socio-cultural, and linguistic. Visual context refers to immediate and tangible world; imaginative context means anecdote, dress on fiction; socio-cultural context mean social, cultural, historical or institutional phenomena; linguistic context might mean etymological or discursive (jargon) context of lexical unit. The author remarks that both authentic and non-authentic text may be used to teach grammar in context. The author puts emphasis on lexis, grammar, context, semantics and pragmatics.

The author notes that context involves both intralinguitic factors (such as syntax) and extralinguistic factors such as personal relation, social conventions, status, degree of intimacy, age etc. The author suggests that in order to teach grammar in context a teacher may present a reading text with relevant grammatical structure. The text may be a short story

or a dialogue. Then, students may be involved in practicing grammatical point from the reading text. Next, the teacher may provide [metalinguistic] explanation of grammatical points or rules. Besides, difficult grammatical points may be taught discretely but using slot-fillers or assign students to translation sentences (e.g. singular to plural).

The author critiques existing textbooks of Bangladesh because they offer decontextualized teaching of grammar. The author stresses on the communicative value of grammar in the creation of meaning. Traditional teaching method emphasizes on teaching a set of grammatical rules and vocabulary without referring to their context.

5.16.3 In the essay, "Fun With Fundamentals: Grammatical Gaffes and Semantic Silliness in Teaching English", Dr. Wayne Scott (Professor, Midlands Technical College, Columbia, South Carolina, USA) [Scott, 2005] discusses the use of euphemism, jargon, gobbledygook [complicated language that is difficult to understand], malapropism [using a word which sounds similar to the intended word, but means something different], spoonerism etc. The author provides instances of different types of humorous mistakes. "Sally walked on her head, a little higher than usual" is an example of punctuation mistake; "I am in the mists of choosing a topic" is an orthographic error; "Dog for sale: eats anything and is fond of children" is an instance of semantic silliness; "accelerated negative growth" (economic recession) is an instance of [deceptive euphemism]; "include me out" is an example of Goldwynism ; "if you can't imitate him, don't copy him" is an example of Beraisms; "is it kistomary to cuss the bride?" is an example of spoonerism. Finally, the author suggests that language instructors should choose entertaining and humorous errors to analyze and demonstrate mistakes, because these can help eradicate syntactic on semantic confusion.

5.16.4 In his article, "Second Language Acquisition and Grammar Instruction", Subrata Kumar Bhowmik (Senior Lecturer, Department of English, East West University) [Bhowmik, 2010] explores the role of teaching grammar in L2 acquisition.

In the section entitled" Historical Background", the author surveys provision of grammar teaching in the following approaches: audio-lingual approach, cognitive-code approach, comprehension approach, and communicative approach. Audio-lingual approach emphasizes on teaching [grammatical] form through drilling; cognitive-code approach advocates teaching grammar deductively or inductively so that students can learn rules of a linguistic system; comprehension approach discourages grammar teaching since it believes that grammar instruction does not accelerate the process of language learning; and communicative approach [encourages contextualized teaching of grammar].

In the section entitled "Does grammar instruction help L2 learning?" the author, citing R. Ellis (2002), notes that grammar instruction or 'focus on form' facilitates second language learning. In the section entitled "Which grammar items should be taught", the author refers to Celec-Murcia (1991) who argues for "fully-illustrated" teaching of grammar. For instance, spatial meaning of preposition in can be demonstrated using the following examples: "Bob put the book in the box/The book is in the box". This apart, Eckman's (1977) Markedness Differential Hypothesis can be used to choose grammatical items for teaching. Eckman contends that more 'marked or less frequently used grammatical rules should be taught (e.g. we let him call).

In the "Discussions" section, the author recommends that teachers may adopt 'focus on form' and 'focus on forms' [sic.] (Perhaps, the author means 'focus on meaning') approach depending on context of teaching. Second, teachers should provide explicit or implicit feedback considering pedagogic context. In the "Conclusion" section, the author suggests that Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis and Markedness Differential Hypothesis may

guide selection of grammatical items. Besides, researchers should investigate students' retention capacity of grammatical items.

In the section entitled "A few more relevant issues about grammar instruction", the author, citing Fotos and Ellis (1991), notes that teachers may follow explicit and consciousness-raising grammar instruction process.

5.16.5 In his essay, "Our Learners' Dilemma and English Grammatical Number System", Ahmed Bashir (Assistant Professor, Department of English, University of Dhaka) [Bashir, 2008-2010] identifies difficulties of Bangladeshi students with English grammatical number system and explains number system to raise awareness of the students.

The author identifies the following problems of Bangladeshi learners in using number system. First, since third person singular number, not simply singular number, affects verb from, learners find this system difficult. Second, learners encounter problem in identifying singular and plural number. Third, learners cannot identify countable and uncountable noun. Fourth, difference of Bangla and English linguistic system (L1 influence) causes difficulty for the students. For instance, Bangla language does not allow double plurals (e.g. pach jon balak) whereas English allows double plural (e.g. Five Boys).

Citing Wikipedia, the author documents the following rules of using English number system: Regular plurals: Boy-boys; irregular plurals: Calf-calves; nouns with identical singular and plural: Sheep; irregular Germanic plurals: Ox-oxen; irregular plurals from Latin and Greek: Formula-formulae (Latin), stigma-stigmata (Greek); irregular plurals from other languages: Beau-beaux (from French); defective nouns (which do not have any singular form): Jeans, cattle; plurals of compound nouns: Man-child [both are head nouns]- men-children; nouns with multiple plurals: Brother-brothers, brethren; plurals of names of peoples: Dutchman-Dutchmen/Dutch; discretionary plural: army, government (both singular and plural) etc.

Finally, the author recommends that students should be informed about the distinction between Bangla and English number system.

5.16.6 In his article, "Effects of Item Complexity in Grammaticality of Judgment Testing", Ariful Islam (Ph.D. student at the Department of Language & Culture, Doctoral School of the Humanities, Aalborg University, Denmark) [Islam, 2010] deals with the following two hypotheses. First, item complexity in tests affects performance of ESL users. Second, simple version test would exhibit more ceiling effect ("too easy language tests with simple structure" (p. 142) might cause ceiling effect) in comparison with complex version test.

The participants of this study include 35 native Swedish students (17 females and 18 males) of Stockholm University. The students were required to take two grammaticality Judgment test: Test 1 (simpler version) and Test 2 (complex version). Each test contained 64 sentences. Among these 64 sentences, there were 32 grammatically correct sentences and 32 incorrect sentences. The complexity of Test-2 was increased by adding extended noun phrase, low frequency words, and new context to the sentences of Test-1.

Analysis of data reveals that out of 2240 items (35 participants*64 items) of Test-1, respondents judged 1947 items correctly whereas they judged 1785 items correctly out of 2240 items in case of Test-2. The mean score of Test-1 is 55.63 and the number of inappropriately identified items is 293. Contrarily, the mean score of Test-2 is 51 and the number of inappropriately judged items is 445. The difference of the mean score between the two tests is 4.63 (55.63-51.00) which is statistically significant. This finding supports the hypothesis that complexity of items affects the performance of the test takers.

In order to measure ceiling effect, the author categorizes scores of participants into 5 groups: 40-44, 45-49, 50-54, 55-59, 60-64. In Test-1, 9 participants demonstrated ceiling effect, i.e. their scores fall under the category of '60-64' whereas only 1 participant showed

ceiling effect in Test-2, i.e. this participant's score falls under the category of '60-64'. In the lower categories, i.e. category '40-44' include only 1 participant in Test-1 whereas this category includes 6 participants in Test-2. Category '45-49' includes no participant in Test-1, but it includes 7 participants in Test-2. These data indicate that more ceiling effect can be observed in simpler version (i.e. Test-1) than in complex version (i.e. Test-2).

The test takers accurately located 991 grammatical items and 956 ungrammatical items in Test-1 whereas they correctly identified 928 grammatical items (out of 1120) and 857 ungrammatical items (out of 1120) in Test-2. There data indicate that participants performed better in identifying grammatical items than ungrammatical items and their score is better in Test-1 (simpler version) than is Test-2 (complex version). Grammatical rules were similar in both Test 1 and Test 2, but participants were affected by the increasing difficulty [extended noun phrase, low frequency words, and of context] of Test 2" (p. 150).

5.16.7 In his article, "Let Us Try to Make Grammar Teaching Effective", Md. Shayeekh-Us-Saleheen [Saleheen, n.d.] describes some techniques of teaching English grammar.

The author mentions three principles of teaching grammar. First, both inductive and deductive method of teaching grammar may be used considering students' learning style. Second, grammar should be taught using appropriate context. In other word, grammar activities should demonstrate the connection between grammatical form and communicative function. Third, teachers should emphasize on procedural knowledge (i.e. use of grammatical rules) rather than declarative knowledge (i.e. knowledge of grammatical rules)

In his discussion of classroom teaching strategies, the author maintains that classroom should be learner-centered and teachers should encourage discovery learning tasks [e.g. students may find out grammatical rules from a text]. The author suggests that teachers may use direct method to teach grammar in the class. In other words, the author indicates that

contextualized grammar drills might be useful in teaching grammar. Besides, the author suggests that texts for teaching grammar can be generated from four sources: Course book, authentic sources (e.g. newspapers, songs), teacher (e.g. teacher's travel plan, teacher's New year resolutions) and students. The author suggests that 'Situational Language Teaching Approach' might be used to teach grammar. In particular, students may respond to a particular statement (e.g. statement in an advertisement: "We are a very large firm, pay very high wages..."; response to the manager: "You said you were a very large firm but you are really a small one! You said you paid high wages but they are really very low"). Teachers may engage students in consciousness-raising activities. In other words, teachers may ask students to notice particular grammatical structures in texts.

The author records a guideline to present new grammatical structures in the class. First, teachers should provide a lot of contextualized examples to introduce a grammar item. Second, visual materials [pictures] may be used to clarify the use of a particular structure. Third, both rules and exceptions should be taught.

The author notes the following tasks that can be used in teaching grammar. First, controlled drills can be used in which one example is given to students (e.g. Salem drinks water but he doesn't drink coffee), and student write sentences imitating the model sentence using clues (e.g. like: ice cream/cake). Second, students may be engaged in guided practice. For instance, students may be given a cue (e.g. "If I had a million dollars") and they may be asked to complete the sentence. Third, students may be given a picture and they may be required to describe the picture using appropriate tense markers. Fourth, students may be asked to write sentences using a particular grammatical structure. For instance, students may be asked to compose sentences using modals (e.g. might, should, must, can). Fifth, students may be engaged in repetition drills (e.g. "She's been writing for an hour") and substitution drill (e.g. "T: Cinema; Ss: Let's go to the cinema; T: Cricket; Ss: Let's play cricket").

5.16.8 In his article, "Acquiring Grammatical and Lexical Competence in English Through Reading", Md. Ohidur Rahman (Senior Lecturer in English, Northern University Bangladesh) [Rahman, 2010] investigates the effectiveness of intensive reading in improving lexical and grammatical competence.

The author describes the strategy of teaching grammar and lexis by using a text from *Exercises in Reading comprehension* ("The ten acre farm") (by E.L Tibbits). The author demonstrates how article, number, and lexis can be taught by using this reading text. For instance, the teacher may explain acre (not acres) to teach number. The teacher may teach vocabulary from the text (e.g. 'owns'—own, owned, an owner etc.). In other words, the teacher may teach the use of a vocabulary. Third, the teacher may teach preposition from the text. For instance, the second sentence of the text contains 'on' ("On it he has poultry and pigs"). The teacher may use the following sentence to teach the use of 'on': "You're sitting on chairs but you sleep in/on the bed. Where am I going to sit...?".

The participants of this study include first, second, third, and seventh semester English (Department) students of Northern University Bangladesh. In case of first and second semester students, the author conducted a pre-test and post-test (after 12 classes of the pretest). In case of [third and seventh semester students], the author conducted a pre-test and two post-test. In this case, the author gave the second post-test after four classes from the first post-test. It is to note that the author used the intensive reading strategy to teach grammar and lexis.

Analysis of students' score in pre and post tests reveal that intensive reading strategy was effective in improving grammatical and lexical competence of the students. Precisely, the mean score of first and second semester students in pre-test is 5.48. On the other hand, the mean score of these students in post-test is 14.81. Thus, these students managed to improve 46.65% marks. In addition, the mean score of pre-test of third and seventh semester students

is 8.46. On the other hand, the mean score of these students in post-test-1 is 14.28 and in post-test-2 is 15.35. Precisely, students managed to improve 29.10% marks in post-test-1and 5.35% in post-test-2 (from post-test-1 to post-test-2). Thus, students improved 34.45% marks from pre-test to post-test-2. However, the author mentions that 4 students could not make any improvement (total number of students was 56).

5.17.0 Teaching Vocabulary

5.17.1 In his study, "Teaching Vocabulary Using News Reports: A Reflection", Zahid Hossain (Lecturer, Dept. of English, Stamford University Bangladesh) [Hossain, 2007] reflects on his experience of teaching vocabulary and documents the findings of a survey study to explore students' response to vocabulary learning.

The author taught vocabulary the course "Advanced Reading Strategies and writing" that consisted of 105 students of BBA discipline. The author assigned individual students to create a list of 20 words from a reading text (business article) selected from any English newspaper or magazine. In addition, students were required to find out synonyms and definition of the collected words. The author reports that students could not provide the correct definition of the enlisted words. For instance, one student wrote "admiration" as the meaning of the word "appreciation" instead of its contextual meaning "increase in value". The author detects two causes for the failure of the students in providing correct meaning of words: (a) lack of knowledge about the contextual meaning of word; (b) lack of knowledge about the technique of using dictionary. According to the author, students should be taught technique of using dictionary and identification of the contextual meaning of words.

In the survey about students' attitude towards vocabulary learning, 94 students participated. In response to the question whether newspaper is the major source of vocabulary learning, 92 students responded 'Yes' whereas 2 students ticked 'Not sure'. In

response to the question whether they enjoyed the activities on newspaper [to learn vocabulary], 67 responded 'Yes'; 26 ticked 'Not much'; and 1 student responded 'Not sure'. In response to the question whether students think the assignment useful, 84 students responded 'Yes'; 7 responded 'Not much' and 3 ticked 'Not sure'. In response to the question whether students read (fully) the article that they had selected for preparing the assignment, 36 students responded 'Yes'; 27 responded 'Partly'; 26 chose the option 'Yes, but without understanding it/them clearly'; 5 responded 'No, simply looked for unknown words without reading or understanding it/them at all'. In the fifth question, students were asked whether they think that language activities should use materials such as newspaper, magazine, internet, music rather than traditional textbook, 55 students answered 'Yes'; and 39 chose the option 'Depends on students' interest'; 5 chose 'No'; and 18 responded 'Not sure'. Finally, the author suggests that vocabulary teaching should be emphasized in Bangladesh.

5.17.2 In her article, "A Study on ESL Vocabulary Acquisition Needs and Classroom Practice: A Bangladeshi Context", Sayma Arju (Assistant Professor, Department of English, Stamford University Bangladesh) [Arju, 2011] explores the process of teaching vocabulary in Bangladesh.

In an analysis of 100 students' scripts in an admission test of a private university of Bangladesh. The author found that (in may 2009) common problems of students concerning vocabulary involve use of wrong word and absence of variation in choosing vocabulary in writers. A questionnaire survey on 20 students of different grades reveals that 100% students are interested in improving vocabulary skills. However, they do not enjoy tasks on vocabulary in the class because: (a) vocabulary learning is a tiresome job, (b) they are usually given a long list of words, (c) they cannot remember necessary vocabulary. In English

textbook a content analysis of English medium schools, English version schools, and Bangla medium schools, the author reports that English medium and English version schools engage students in memorizing words or making sentences whereas Bangla medium schools do not involve students in any vocabulary task. A survey on 50 undergraduate students indicates that students do not need to learn vocabulary for exam. An observational study on 30 trained senior teachers reveals that teachers are not comfortable with teaching vocabulary from *English for Today* textbook (Grade VII). In particular , when teachers were asked to teach vocabulary from the text ,they identified new words, but could not explain them. In addition, they could not communicate the meaning of abstract words.

The author recommends that new vocabulary should be taught in connection with old (i.e. known to students) vocabulary. Second, repetition and drilling may be useful in teaching vocabulary. Third, students may be asked to use newly learned words in conversation, letter, on postcard. Fourth , students may be encouraged to use dictionary regularly. Fifth, pronunciation and spelling may be tested as part of teaching vocabulary. Seventh, phrases may be taught along with words.

5.17.3 In her article, "Use of Thesaurus in the Creative Writing Classroom", Mehnaz Tazeen Choudhury (Assistant Professor, Dept. of English, Central Women's University, Dhaka) [Choudhury, 2010-2011] explores the process of vocabulary learning of English medium students of Bangladesh.

The author collected data from 42 English medium students of grade 8 and 9, and from 2 teachers who teach these students. The author elicited data using closed-ended questionnaire.

Findings reveal that out of 42 students 32 'sometimes' use thesaurus to find out synonyms, 3 students 'often' use thesaurus, and 7 students 'never' use thesaurus during

writing composition. Besides, 17 students reported that they 'sometimes' read story books; 34 students reported that they try to recollect experience of reading a word in a text before using any word; however, 8 students reported that they do not go through this process. When asked about context and use of synonyms, all the students responded that they know that use of synonyms given in thesaurus is determined according to context. Besides, 30 students reported that their teachers inspired them to use thesaurus; however, 35 students reported that they 'sometimes' ask their teachers about appropriate use of words. On the other hand, teachers reported that they motivate students to use thesaurus in creative writing class. Besides, teachers informed the author that students 'often' inappropriately use words; however, students 'often' ask them about the appropriate use of words to students, and they explain appropriate use of words to students.

Finally, the author recommends that students should be asked about appropriate use, collocations and connotations of words in the class. In addition, students need to receive explicit instruction on vocabulary, and read extensively to learn vocabulary.

5.17.4 In their article, "Teaching English Vocabulary at the Tertiary Level: A Preliminary Study", Golam Gaus Al-Quaderi (Assistant Professor, Department of English, University of Dhaka) Dilruba Jahan (Assistant Professor of English, United International University, Dhaka) and Bushra khanum (Lecturer of English, United International University, Dhaka) [Quaderi, Jahan, & Khanum, 2007 & 2008] explores teachers' and students perceptions' of teaching/learning vocabulary.

Participants of this study include 234 students and 51 English [language] teachers of tertiary level from 12 public and private universities of Bangladesh. The author elicited data for this study through classroom observations, questionnaire survey and open-ended interview.

In the questions survey, teachers were asked 8 questions. In response to the question regarding "the most important obstacle in understanding English writing", 37.26% teachers identified 'difficult sentence structure' and 27.45% teachers identified 'unknown words' as the most important obstacle [in understanding English text]. In response to the second question, 43.14% teachers answered that it is necessary to know 5000 academic words to be proficient in English whereas 29.4% teachers opined that 3000 academic words are necessary to be proficiently in English. In response to the third question on whether they recommend their students any book to increase their vocabulary, 41.18% teachers chose the option 'sometimes' and 31.37% selected the option 'yes'. In response to the fourth question, 58.82% teachers answered that they teach vocabulary through 'reading comprehension. In response to the fifth question, 35.29% teachers reported that they spend 10% time [of the total class duration] to teach vocabulary; 35.29% reported that they spend 20% time to teach vocabulary; 21.57% reported that they spend 30% time to teach vocabulary. In response to the sixth question whether they take any extra class on vocabulary, 52.94% answered 'No' whereas 33.33% selected the option 'sometimes'. In response to the seventh question, 43.14% teachers reported that they suggest their students to read books, newspapers, magazines, journals etc. to improve vocabulary whereas 25.49% teachers responded that they suggest their students to watch English TV channels to improve vocabulary. In response to the eighth question, 78.43% teachers reported that they recommend their students to use 'English to English' dictionary to learn vocabulary whereas 13.72% reported that they suggest both 'English to Bengali', and 'English to English' dictionary.

The students were also asked 8 questions. In response to the first question, 47.86% students reported that they learn vocabulary (new vocabulary) from everyday life; and 27.78% reported that they learn new vocabulary from textbooks, teachers' lectures, and everyday life. In response to the second question, 36.75% students reported that they 'try to

find the meaning and use it [vocabulary] whenever possible' when they encounter any new word; 22.65% students reported that they consult dictionary, try to guess meaning from the context, copy the unknown word in diary, and try to use the word [in different context] when they find any new word. In response to the third question, 31.2% reported that their teachers focus on 'meaning' while teaching new words; 27.78% reported that their teacher focus on 'different usage'. In response to the fourth question whether they 'follow any specialized book with exercises for increasing vocabulary', 47.01% chose the option 'sometimes' and 36.32% students selected the option 'yes'. In response to the fifth question, 38.03% students opined that it is necessary to know 3000 words to be proficient in [academic] English whereas 30.77% students opined that 5000 words are necessary to be proficient in [academic] English. In response to the sixth question, 35.04% students opined that they can increase vocabulary by reading English newspapers, journals etc. and by watching TV channels whereas 32.05% opined that they can increase vocabulary by reading [English] books, newspapers, magazines, Journals etc. In response to the seventh question, 38.46% students reported that they use English to English dictionary to learn 'the meaning of words'; 30.77% students repotted that they use English to Bengali dictionary; 26.92% students reported that they use both English to English, and English to Bengali dictionary. In response to the eighth question whether they use "new English word after learning it, either in writing or speaking" 57.26% ticked the option 'Yes' and 37.61% students chose the option 'sometimes'.

Class observation data (5 classes from 2 public and 3 private universities) reveals that teachers teach vocabulary by supplying English and Bangla meaning of a particular word. In addition, they ask students to use words in context. Further, teachers ask students to guess the meaning of words from the context. Teachers also explain contexts in which a particular word can be used. This apart, interview data indicates that teacher use Bangla to explain

meaning of words since students do not clearly understand the meaning of words if explained in English [due to their low level of proficiency in English].

Finally, the authors recommend that teachers should use specialized books (e.g. *English Vocabulary in Use*) to teach vocabulary. Second, teachers may use Bangla (i.e. students' LI) to explain difficult or abstract words. Third, vocabulary should be accorded a "special…place (p. 37) in the English language course.

5.18.0 Teacher Education

5.18.1 In her essay, "Second/Foreign Language (SL/FL) Teachers: Why Should and How Can They be Extended Practitioners?", Shaila Sultana (Lecturer, Department of English, Jahangirnagar University) [Sultana, 2003] discusses the significance of extending teachers' responsibilities as researchers, and explains the process of becoming researcher.

The author mentions that teachers need to become researcher to improve their teaching skills; to develop pedagogic practices in a particular context; to develop critical awareness; and to synthesize theory and practice. In addition, teachers can understand limitations of a teaching context and identify methodological, social, cultural specificities through research. The author argues that teachers may select an issue/research question from his classroom to start a research. A teacher may deal with such topics as learning strategy, learning style, appropriacy of teaching materials, effective of a curriculum etc. from his own class or lesson plan. Teachers may extract data through questionnaire, interview, and observation. Further, field notes, diaries, [textual] documents may be useful in collecting and managing data. The author emphasizes on classroom observation in teachers' research. The author maintains that classroom observation may be beneficial in evaluating materials or teachers' performance. The author identifies three purposes of classroom observation: 'observation for self-monitoring' which means teachers would observe their own behavior in

the classroom; second, 'observation for lesson monitoring' which involves observing teacher-student interaction, lesson plan, class activities etc.; third, 'observation for action research' which means observing classroom to generate questions for action research.

The author notes some approaches to classroom observation. A teacher may adopt qualitative or quantitative approaches to called data. Some useful qualitative approaches are: written ethnography (documentation of teacher talk, learner talk, architecture of the classroom etc.), audio and video recording, selected ethnography (i.e. group work, pair work teachers' questions etc). On the contrary, structured form or predetermined 'observation checklist' are generally used to called data about classroom. Finally the author indicates that teachers may solve problems of their classes by systematically conducting research. Thus, they can become extended professional (i.e. teacher plus researcher) to improve teaching-learning situation of the country.

5.18.2 In her survey study, "Towards Organizing a Teacher Development Movement: Bangladesh Perspective", Syeda Farzana Sultana (Lecturer, Department of English, Asian University of Bangladesh) [Sultana, 2005] explores condition of teacher development in Bangladesh.

The participants of this study involve 36 teachers (53% female, 47% male) from 10 private universities of Bangladesh. The author used a questionnaire to elicit data from the respondents. The questionnaire was designed to reveal teachers' attitude and perceptions concerning teacher training (which relates to knowledge of the topic or skill) and teacher development (which concerns insight on personal growth of the teacher).

The findings indicate that 50% teacher interested in teaching before joining this profession the rest of the teacher were not interested in teaching. However, 83% teachers started teaching out of interest. 100% teachers report that they are still interested in teaching

though 8% reported that they have a plan to leave the profession. 53% teachers reported that teaching profession is fascinating to them; 8% teachers are obsessed with their work; and 39% are not emotionally attached to their work. With regard to the concept of teacher training and teacher development, most of teachers displayed their ignorance. In particular, only 30% teachers appeared to understand teachers training and teacher development. 36% teachers reported that they received training; all the teachers reported that they have a plan for their own development such as pursuing higher studies, attending workshops, conference or doing self-study; 86% reported that they get institutional support for teacher development through workshops, conference, and seminar. 73% reported that their institutions do not instigate them for creating faculty development plan every year; nevertheless, 70% reported that they make their own plan without any help from the institutions; 44% reported that their institutions do not encourage research; 80% reported they took initiative to improve their teaching through reading, reflecting, research, self assessment etc; 67% reported that they are not satisfied with their current expertise in teaching. The author remarks that teachers are not interested in their own development due to uncertainty about career development (e.g. promotion, job security), poor salary structure, and lack of intuitional support.

Finally the author recommends that educational institutions and professional organization (e.g. BELTA) should arrange teacher training program. In addition, institutions should encourage research and organize seminar/conference to develop teachers' skills and insight.

5.18.3 In his survey, "Perceptions of Trainee Teachers: Implications for Effective Teaching of English", Harunur Rashid Khan (Assistant Professor, Department of English, East West University) [Khan, 2005] investigates perceptions of trainee teachers about principles of teaching-learning after attending a teacher training program.

The participants of this study include 60 English teachers (51 males and 9 females) from rural areas [of Bangladesh] who attended an 18 day in-house teacher training course organized by BRAC [an NGO]. The author used a structured questionnaire (containing both open-ended and closed-ended questions) to elicit teachers' perceptions about language teaching and learning.

Findings of this study indicate that the training course changed the perceptions of teachers about principles of language teaching. In other words, many teachers managed to update their view about grammar teaching, process of language learning and testing. Responses of the teachers to the open-ended question also indicate that they revised their perceptions about teaching-learning after receiving training. For instance, many teachers reported that they have learned new technique of teaching four skills and dealing with grammar. In addition, they have learned, as they reported, to be supportive and friendly to their students.

The author draws the following pedagogic implications on the basis of the findings of this research. Firsts, teacher training creates professional awareness, develop positive attitudes towards teaching, and develop insight about teaching. Second, there should be post-training contact system between trainers, trainees and administration of an institution so that trainers get constructive feedback on their practice/problems. Finally, reflective model of teacher education might be more useful for the teachers where teachers can reflect on their previous teaching experience.

5.18.4 In her article "The Weak Link in English Language Teaching Practices" Rehana Alam Khan (Senior Lecturer, School of Liberal Science and Arts, Independent University, Bangladesh) [Khan, 2005] recollects and analyzes her experience of working as a trainer in

ELTIP center and BRAC's teacher training program. In addition, she identifies some problems of ELT in Bangladesh.

In her review of ELTIP (English Language Teaching Improvement Project, started in 1997). The author notes that ELTIP training program adopted reflective model of teacher evaluation which refers to the synthesis of experiential knowledge and received knowledge. In addition, the training program made an attempt to introduce principles, methods and techniques of CLT. The training program was divided into two phases: 'Training phase' when trainee teachers learned about CLT and 'activation phase' when trainee teachers were required to conduct workshops to train untrained teachers. The author remarks that training did not have any impact on teachers. In particular, teachers in the activation phase followed traditional and mechanical approach. The author conducted an interview to reveal the cause of this failure. The author argues that trainee teachers failed to perform well due to lack of practice or experiential knowledge.

In BRAC's teacher training program that she supervised in 2005, teachers failed to understand the significance of reflection. Out of 42 participants (both college and university teachers), only one participant could identify significance of reflection in self development.

The author notes some problems of ELT in Bangladesh. According to the author, low status of English [i.e. foreign language], defective teaching methodology, inadequate teacher training, dependence on guide books, excessive workload of teachers, large class size, low payment, and private coaching system are obstacles of teaching learning English in Bangladesh. Finally, the author suggests that designers of teacher training course should take into account trainee's strengths, weaknesses, and level of expertise while designing a training course. In addition, reflection should be encouraged in teacher training course.

5.18.5 In her essay, "Putting Our Words to Work: Rethinking Teacher Talking Time", Shelly Barua (Lecturer, department of English, Stamford University Bangladesh) [Barua, 2008] discusses disadvantages of excessive teacher talking time (TTT), techniques of reducing TTT, and positive uses of TTT.

In her description of the negative impact of excessive TTT, the author notes that excessive TTT decreases the of time for STT (student talking time) , makes the class monotonous , and limits students' autonomy. In addition, students may lose concentration and teachers may appear dominating in a class where TTT is excessive. The author mentions the following strategies of reducing TTT: Pair work, group work, elicitation, use of gestures/body language instead of words, use of peer feedback, and allowing silence [i.e. giving adequate time before responding]. The author argues that TTT can be positively used in the following ways. First, teachers can discuss issues related to life and society. Third, teachers may talk to students in class and in counseling hours. Third, teachers may tell stories, anecdotes or jokes.

5.18.6 In her essay, "Achieving Professional Competence Through Reflective Teaching", Jurana Aziz (Lecturer, South East University, Dhaka) [Aziz, 2009-10] explores the possibilities of using reflective model in English language teaching.

Reflective teaching, as the author notes, is a process of self-enquiry in which a teacher observes and evaluates her own classroom performance to devise solution to certain problems. Reflective model involves two categories of knowledge: received knowledge [theoretical knowledge] and experiential knowledge [experience of classroom teaching].

The author mentions the following techniques of practicing reflective teaching: Journal writing, feedback from students, classroom observation, and action research. Journal, in this context, refers to the record of teaching experience. The practice Journal writing

develops insight of teacher and it provides an opportunity to monitor or evaluate effectiveness of a particular method used in the class. A second technique of reflective teaching is receiving feedback from student. Feedback may be taken using questionnaire or written form. A third technique is classroom observation. A teacher may observe her process of class management, or students' responses. In addition, a novice teacher may observe classes of experienced teacher to improve her own teaching. A fourth technique is 'action research' that may be conducted to solve [immediate] problem in classroom teaching.

The author documents two types of reflection introduced by Donald Schon (1983): reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action. Reflection- in-action refers to the act of reflection during a teaching session (e.g. following a lesson plan, constant evaluation of a method, limiting teacher talk etc.). On the contrary, reflection-on-action means contemplating after a teaching session.

Finally, the author documents her own practice of reflective teaching. The author notes that she meditates on her performance after a teaching session; tries to identify weak students and their needs, writes diary regularly, and reviews her own process; and compares her teaching [technique/performance] with that of peers [to improve her own teaching] and identifies their strengths.

5.18.7 In his article, "The Cultural Disillusionment Factor in International TESOL Training", M. Raqibuddin Chowdhury (Assistant Professor, Department of English, University of Dhaka) [Chowdhury, 2002-2003] investigates teachers' perceptions about the implications of CLT in Bangladesh.

The participants of this study include five teachers who teach FC at Dhaka University: Rina (PhD in ELT, UK, trained in MA (TESOL) in the US), Tania (MA, TESOL, USA), Neelima (MEd, TESOL, Melbourne), Bithi (MA, Literature, University of Dhaka), Osman

(MA, TESOL, Australia), Farzin (MA, Applied Linguistics and ELT, University of Dhaka). The author used questionnaire and interview to elicit data. The author collected data regarding the following issues: teacher roles, students' roles, resources and constraints, the nature of international TESOL training, and negotiation of cultural content.

In response to the question about the "best way of describing CLT", 3 out of 6 participants opted for the option 'teacher-students two way interaction' whereas the remaining 2 participants selected the option 'teacher as negotiator'. In response to the question about teachers' role, teachers appeared to be interested in playing both authoritative and non-authoritative role (i.e. facilitator) [in the classroom]. They wish to play authoritative role because they believe that students should respect their teachers and students in Bangladesh are accustomed to "see the teacher as their guardian" (p. 41). Besides, the author found a difference between western-trained and non-western-trained teachers in respect of their perceptions of language and culture. In particular "western trained teachers [see] themselves as transmitting a culture essentially alien to the students by means of a technique [i.e. CLT]" (p. 41). On the contrary, locally trained teachers prefer traditional method of teaching by combining communication-based activities.

In response to the question about learners' role, teachers believe that students should be "disciplined, regular and punctual" (p. 42). When asked whether students should be allowed freedom in the classroom, some respondents answered positively and some answered negatively. In response to the question about limitations that hinder implementation of CLT at DU [in FC course], the participants identified the following problems: logistic limitations, time constraint, physical setting, absence of study materials (unavailability) etc. The participants also observed that since students' linguistic proficiency is low, it is difficult to conduct student-centered classroom. When asked about the cultural implications of TESOL training in the West, Neelima responded that she could "learn a lot" (p. 45) from the

multicultural TESOL classes. However, she opines that a follow-up training in Bangladesh should be arranged for the western-trained teachers so that they can adapt or contextualize the knowledge gained from the western academia. When asked about the cultural appropriacy of teaching materials of FC course, 4 participants reported that texts are "sometimes" culturally appropriate. 4 out of 6 participants reported that they encountered cross-cultural conflict during teaching English language. In response to the question about "negotiating cultural content", participants reported that they adapt CLT [and teaching materials].

Finally the author suggests that teachers should play the role of a negotiator between local culture and target culture; second, students' roles should be clearly defined; third, objectives of FC should be determined according to the students' feedback; fourth, learners should be trained so that they can act autonomously; fifth, FC textbook should include a broad range of classroom activities (present textbook offers only mechanical activities such as gap-filling, matching, ticking etc.). In addition, textbook should represent both local and target culture (accompanied by footnotes and illustrations). Sixth, a follow-up training for the western-trained teachers may be organized in Bangladesh. [*FC (Foundation Course) is offered to fresh undergraduate students at Dhaka University. This course "was introduced in the academic year 1998-1999" (p. 30). Besides, Pseudonyms are used in this article].

5.18.8 In her essay, "Theoretical Approaches to Teacher Education and Supervision", Shahnaz Yasmeen (Assistant Professor, Department of English, Rajshahi University) [Yasmeen, 2005] discusses paradigms of teacher education in ELT and their implications in the context of Bangladesh.

The author mentions that there are three models of teacher education: Craft model, applied science model, and reflective model. The craft model is imitative [i.e. trainee teachers imitate experienced teachers]; the applied science model advocates application of

scientific knowledge/ theories to teaching-learning context; the reflective model synthesizes received [theoretical] knowledge and experiential [practical] knowledge. The author notes the limitations of the craft model and the applied science model. In particular, the craft model cannot accommodate changes in society or teaching context; in addition, it is rigid or static. The applied science model widens the gap between theory and practice. In other words, researchers formulate theories, as the author points out, without any direct contact with classrooms. [Therefore, the theories might not work in practical situations]. The author remarks that national textbooks are developed or written by researchers who "do not teach at schools or colleges" (p. 113). The author observes: "As far as their qualification or capability is concerned, it is beyond any question but, without being at the scenario, how can it be expected that the researchers would be able to handle the right material for students and teachers" (p. 113). Therefore, the author argues that reflective model might help to bridge the gap between theory and practice.

Finally, the author makes some suggestions to improve teacher training programs. First, the habit of reflection can be created through awareness raising activities. Second, videos of real classrooms can be shown in teacher training programs. Third, microteaching can be included in teacher training programs. Fourth, problem-solving activities might be helpful in reducing the gap between theory and practice.

5.18.9 In the article, "Reflective Thinking Implications for ELT Teacher Training Programmes", Batool Sarwar (Assistant Professor, Department of English, University of Dhaka) [Sarwar, 2004] explicates the concept of reflective thinking.

In the discussion of history of 'reflective thinking' the author notes that John Dewey explained the notion of 'reflective thinking' in 1933. Later on, in 1983, Schon popularized the term. 'Reflective thinking' in teacher education program was integrated to contest

Competency Based Teacher Education (CBTE), a mechanical paradigm of teacher education. The author describes Van Manen (1987) and Grimmet et. al.'s (1990) taxonomy of reflection. Van Manen identifies three levels of reflection: technical reflection [reflection on technical/theoretical tools], practical reflection [reflection on outcome or action], and critical reflection [moral and ethical reflection]. Grimmet et. al.'s taxonomy of reflection involves the following approaches to reflection: (a) 'reflection as instrumental mediation of action' which means reflection on theories and research findings that are used is classroom teaching; (b) 'reflection as deliberating among competing views of teaching' refers to selection of good teaching proactive though reflection [i.e. through comparing different types of teaching practices] ; (c) 'reflection as reconstructing experience' which is intended to [reorganize teaching practice].

In the section entitled "Strategies to develop reflective thinking: A ELT perspective", the author explains five methods of reflection. The first strategy is 'journal writing', i.e. documenting ideas and events. The practice of journal writing allows a trainee teacher to reflect systematically b examining the recorded information in the journal. The second strategy is 'dialogue, questioning and collaborative writing projects' which encourages dialogue between teacher educators and trainee teachers, and between trainee teachers and trainee teachers. The third strategy is 'mentoring' which means guiding trainees to follow a particular framework/approach of teaching. An experienced teacher can be a mentor for the trainee teachers. The fourth strategy is 'modeling' which is concerned with the practice of teacher educators. In other words, it is expected that teacher educators would themselves would practice what they teach, and become a role model for the trainees. For instance, Loughran 1996) shared his own reflective journal with trainee teachers in a teacher education program. In another instance, LaBoskey (1997) asked her students to create a portfolio by compiling the best materials (according to them) used in the course. The fifth strategy is

'technical reflection/action research skill' which means engaging students in action research in a teacher training program. In addition, students may be involved in reflection on their own audio or video-recorded lessons.

Finally, the author indicates that reflective tasks for the trainee teachers should be chosen in accordance with the needs and previous experience of the trainee teachers.

5.18.10 In their essay, "ELTIP: The Problems and Prospects of a Teachers Development Project", Md. Mujibur Rahman (Deputy Secretary and Project Director ELTIP: Phase-3) and A K M Zakir Hossain Bhuiyan (Deputy secretary, Ministry of Education, Bangladesh Secretariat, Dhaka) [Rahman, & Bhuiyan, 2007] discuss limitations of ELTIP and recommend some solution to transcend these limitations.

The authors note that ELTIP (English Language Teaching Improvement Project) is a project of Ministry of Education (MoE) of Bangladesh government. The objective of this project is to train English language teachers of secondary level and to introduce CLT in Bangladesh. In addition, the mandates on ELTIP include designing teaching-learning materials, in-service teacher training, and reforming testing system. ELTIP started its journey in 1999 and has already trained [about 35,000] secondary level English teachers of Bangladesh.

The authors point out the following limitations of ELTIP: lack of sufficient found, no opportunity for ELTIP teachers-trainers to receive training, insufficient supply of TGs (Teachers' Guide), lack of cooperation from institutional Heads and Local Education Officers, absence of correspondence between teaching method and testing system. Besides, ELTIP does not have any system to monitor [the performance of its trained teachers].

The authors make the following recommendation to maximize the outcome of ELTIP project. First, a system of monitoring and follow-up of training should be established. For

instance, Head teachers of institutions may monitor the performance of ELTIP trained teachers; in addition, 'local monitoring committee' may be constituted. Second, ELTIP training should be made compulsory for the secondary level English language teachers. Third, ELTIP should construct advanced training module for the teachers who have already received training from ELTIP. Fourth, Bangladesh government should provide adequate fixed found for the project. Fifth, trainee teachers should be encouraged to follow the instructions of TG. Sixth, The Duration of ELTIP training should be extended. The authors observe: "The current 21 day pedagogic training is rather insufficient to address the need of the target trainees" (p. 99).

5.18.11 In their study, "Reflective Tools Practiced by the English Language Teachers of Secondary Level Institutions in Bangladesh", Elina Akhter (Assistant professor in English, Assistant Director, National Academy for Educational Management (NAEM)) and Md. Zulfeqar Haider (Associate Professor in English, Co-coordinator, Foreign Language Training Centre (FLTC), Mirpur, Dhaka) [Akhter, & Haider, 2010] investigate English teachers' reflective practice.

The participants of this study include 235 English language teachers of secondary level. The participants had been selected from and CPD (Continuous Professional Development) and CEC (Communicative English Course) of NAEM. These participants were also registered in a B. Ed course under National University from 2007. The authors mention that 'reflective practice' was introduced in the B. Ed course of National University in 2007. The authors elicited data through questionnaire and interview in 2009. The participants were teachers of Dhaka and other divisions.

In response to the first questions, 60 teachers reported that they 'always' engage themselves in reflective conversation; 20 teachers reported that they 'often' involve

themselves in reflective conversion; and 155 teachers reported that they 'never' share their teaching experience with their colleagues. In addition, 67 teacher reported that they 'always' maintain portfolio, and 50 teachers reported that they 'often' write [reflective] diaries. The rest of the teachers [118] reported that they ['never'] maintain any reflective record. In response to the second question regarding their success rate in classroom management, 46 teachers reported that they are 40% successful; 79 teachers reported that they are 60% successful; 100 teacher reported that they are 80% successful; and 10% teacher reported that they are 100% successful. In response to the third question, 58 teachers reported that they 'daily' take preparation before entering the class, and 19 teachers reported that they take preparation 'once in a month'. In response to the fifth question, out of 80 teachers who practice reflective conversation, 50 teachers reported that their colleges encounter problem in the classroom, and 70 teachers reported that they can devise solutions through reflective conversation. In response to the sixth question, out of 155 teachers who do not share their experience with their colleagues, 60 teachers reported that their colleagues are 'reluctant' to practice reflective conversation; 50 teachers responded that they cannot mange time to share their experience with their colleagues and the rest of the teachers [45] reported that they "feel embarrassed" to share their experience with their colleagues. In response to the tenth question, 205 teachers reported that they are interested to be observed by their colleagues whereas 30 teachers reported that they are reluctant to allow their colleagues to observe them. Interview data indicates that those teachers who are not interested to be observed by their colleagues find this practice embarrassing. In addition, they are also scared of "being criticized" (p.110). The authors indicate that teachers do not hold positive attitude toward reflective practice. The authors observe: "Many teachers do not want to share their techniques or problems with others" (p.110).

Finally, the authors recommend that teachers should develop positive attitude toward reflective practice. Second, teachers may seek feedback from their students to reflect on their pedagogic activities. Third, teacher training institutes should introduce reflective practice in their curricular. In other words, trainee teachers may be required to reflect on transcripts of recorded lessons, videos of lessons etc.

5.18.12 In her article, "Developing Teaching Philosophy: The Understanding of Teaching and Learning SL/FL as a Student-Teacher", Mossa. Sohana Khatun (Lecturer in English, Bangladesh University of Business and Technology (BUBT)) [Khatun, 2010] explores teaching philosophy of EFL/ESL teachers. In addition, the author explains evolution of her own teaching philosophy.

The author describes theoretical assumptions that constitute teaching philosophy of teachers. First, theories of SLA contribute to the construction of teaching philosophy. In particular, three theories of learning—behaviorism, innatism, and interactionism—shape teaching philosophy of teachers by informing about the process of learning. In addition, critical period hypothesis (CPH) also influences philosophy of teaching by claiming that there is a "critical period" [till 13 years of age] to learn a language with less effort. Second, claims made in Krashen's five hypotheses play significant role in constructing teaching philosophy of EFL/ESL teachers. Krashen's five hypotheses are: Acquisition-learning hypothesis, monitor model, natural order hypothesis, input hypothesis, and affective filter hypothesis. The author draws implications of these hypotheses for teaching philosophy. For instance, input hypothesis suggests that teachers should provide comprehensible input in the language classroom. The author indicates that teachers should design comprehensible language teaching materials; in addition, teachers should modify inputs to meet the demands of the students. Besides, affective filler hypothesis indicates that classroom atmosphere should be

anxiety-free. In addition, learners' self-confidence and self-esteem are also determining factor in language learning. The author believes that if students' are not criticized for their mistakes [i.e. if their self-esteem is not attacked], the process of language learning would be accelerated. The author observes: "These hypotheses are likely to help a teacher in preparing lesson plan, and even the syllabus that will be appropriate for a particular group of learners with varying level of language proficiency" (p. 161). Third, the author believes that grammatical items should not be taught in isolation. Nevertheless, the author suggests that since Bangladeshi students are habituated with learning though GTM, teachers may explicitly [and separately] teach some linguistic items. Fourth, teachers' attitude toward students' errors should be positive. The author suggests: "Errors should be corrected in a way that will not hurt students' ego" (p. 162). Fifth, teachers should use different strategy to handle introvert and extrovert students. In particular, teachers should not ridicule introvert students, because if these students are ridiculed, they may abstain from participating in the class. Sixth, the author believes that teachers should conduct action research to improve their teaching. Seventh, the author holds that learner-centered tasks, cooperative learning, and informal assessment can motivate students in learning. The author writes: "My observation as a student-teacher is that teachers who prefer a learner-centered class are likely to achieve more success…[and] the teacher too has many things to learn from students" (pp. 166-167). Eighth, teachers should be friendly with students. Ninth, language teaching materials should address students' present and future needs. Finally, teachers should help students develop critical thinking skills of the students.

5.18.13 In their article, "Continuous Teacher Development Through Reflective Teaching and Action Research", Md. Harun (Lecturer in English, Comilla University) and Suravi Al-Amin (BA in English and MA in Applied Linguistics and ELT from Dhaka University) [Harun, &

Amin, 2013] discuss the notions of 'continuous teacher development', 'reflective teaching', and 'action research. In addition, they investigate secondary and higher secondary level teacher' perceptions about 'reflective teaching' and 'action research'.

The authors note that continuous professional development (CTD) refers to systematic maintenance and improvement of professional/technical skills. CPD involves receiving in-service and pre-service training and taking part in conferences, seminars, workshops etc. 'Reflective teaching' and 'action research', as the authors mention—are two methods of professional development of teachers. Reflective teaching involves critical examination of recollected teaching experience. The authors record Wallace's (1991) 'reflective model' of teacher education. Reflective model of professional development refers to a synthesis of experiential knowledge (i.e. teachers' teaching experience) and received knowledge [e.g. educational theories]. Action research, the second method of professional development refers to a scientific study of a particular problem. In other words, action research is intended to devise a solution to professional problems. The objective of action research is to improve classroom teaching. Citing Nunan (1992), the author describes seven phases (cyclic) of action research: initiation (i.e. identifying a problem), preliminary investigation (i.e. collecting data), hypothesis (i.e. generating hypothesis on the basis of data), intervention (i.e. changing teaching approach), evaluation (i.e. evaluation of the impact of intervention), dissemination (i.e. informing others about the findings of the study), and follow-up.

The authors conducted a survey among 40 English [language] teachers of secondary and higher secondary teachers (random sampling) of Dhaka city to explore their understanding of 'reflective teaching' and 'action research'. The authors elicited data through questionnaire and interview. Analysis of data reveals that 23 teachers (out of 40) are not acquainted with the terms 'action research' and 'reflective teaching'. The rest of the participants reported that they are familiar with the terms. However, all the participants of

this study opined that 'reflective teaching' and 'action research' can improve teaching in the classroom. When asked whether they practice reflective teaching, 35% teachers reported that they do not reflect on their classroom teaching experience whereas 90% reported that they reflect on their teaching. However, the author remarks: "But none of them could reflect systematically" (p. 75). When asked whether their institutions provide fund for professional development or for participating in workshops arranged by other institutions, 87.5% teachers responded negatively.

The authors mention some methods of data collection for 'action research' and 'reflective teaching'. These are: recoding lessons (both video recording and audio recording), diary writing (i.e. regularly writing about classroom activities, [mainlining] teachers' log (i.e. regularly taking notes about teacher-student interaction, learning outcomes etc.), peer observation, students' feedback etc. Finally, the authors point out some limitations of practicing 'reflective teaching' and conducting 'action research'. The limitations are: teachers heavy workload, lack of technical knowledge of teachers about action research, lack of logistic support etc.

5.18.14 In her article, "Second Language Teaching: Teachers' Beliefs and Realities", Iffat Ara Nasreen Majid (Associate Professor, IML, D.U. & Coordinator, ELT-Program, E.U. [Eastern University]) [Majid, 2009] investigates English language teachers' beliefs about teaching-learning [English] language.

The participants of this study include 43 English language teachers (ranging from primary to tertiary level). The respondents of this study were required to agree or disagree with some statements.

The first statement was: "Languages are learnt mainly through imitation". 60% participants agreed with this statement whereas 35% participants disagreed. The author

indicates that those who agreed with this statement, perhaps, believe that language learning is a mechanical activity rather than a creative activity. The second statement was: "People with high 1Qs are good language learners". 55% teachers agreed with this statement whereas 35% disagreed. Citing Brown (1994) the author notes that there is hardly any connection between traditional 1Q (score) and success in L2 learning. The third statement was: "The most important factor in second language acquisition is motivation". 81% respondents agreed with this statement whereas 14% disagreed. The fourth statement was: "Learner's errors should be corrected as soon as they are made in order to prevent the formation of bad habits". 81% teachers agreed with this statement and 19% disagreed with this statement. Citing Hill and Dobbyn (1979), the author notes that immediate error correction might be useful during grammar exercise. However, feedback on errors in students' speaking should be seven in the end of a speaking activity. The author writes: "Teachers can make notes of the points that need correction and discuss them after the task is over" (p. 72). The fifth statement was: "When learners are allowed to interact freely (e.g. in group or pair activities they learn each other's mistakes)". 64% teachers agreed with this statement whereas 33% disagreed. In this context, the author refers to Porter's study who found that students picked up only 3% errors from their peers during collaborative tasks. The sixth statement was: "Teachers should use materials that expose students to only those structures which they have already been taught". 57% respondents agreed with this statement whereas 41% disagreed. The author suggests that students should be given the opportunity to encounter a large number of texts [or inputs]. In addition, students should be taught strategies to decode meaning of unfamiliar texts so that they can become independents learners. The seventh statement was: "Students learn what they are taught". 76% teachers agreed with this statement whereas 24% disagreed. Referring to Allwright and Bailey (1991) the author notes that there is no direct correspondence between teaching and learning.

5.18.15 In her article, "A Critical Evaluation of Teacher Development in a Teacher Training Course", Iffat A.N. Majid (Associate Professor, Institute of Modern Language[s], University of Dhaka & Advisor, ELT Program, Eastern University) [Majid, 2011] examines the impact of a teacher education program.

The participants of this study include 5 MA in ELT students (age range: 25-35). These students were teaching in different institutes at different levels. In the MA in ELT program, students were required to conduct a microteaching session. In addition, they were required to observe classes of primary, secondary and tertiary level (7-8) classes. The students were also asked to submit an evaluative report of their own [micro]teaching and their peers' [micro]teaching. The students/participants of this study attended all the theory courses of the MA in ELT program and took microteaching course in the final semester of the program.

The author evaluates the effectiveness of the microteaching course by examining students' reflective report. In addition, the author conducted a post-training questionnaire survey to determine the efficacy of the teacher education program.

'Teacher A' (male, 35 years old) teaches mixed-ability adult in a language teaching center. The author remarks that 'A' selected good materials for his microteaching. However, he could not manage time skillfully. In particular, he spent 9 minutes in giving instruction, though in his lesson plan he allocated 3 minutes for giving instructions. He believed that he taught using inductive method. But, his method, as the author mentions, was deductive. The author remarks: "There was thus a gap between intention and actual practice" (p. 118). In the reflective report, this teacher identified his own microteaching as 'outstanding'. However, his pears remarked that his teaching was "less than average", "unfriendly", and he lacked "proper knowledge of grammar rules". In the post-training interview (after 2 months),

'Teacher A' responded that microteaching session improved his self-confidence. In addition, he improved his time-management skill as well.

'Teacher B' (female) teaches at secondary level. This teacher appeared "relaxed" and "confident" during her microteaching session, but she could not manage time efficiently. In particular, she could not cover all the components of her lesson plan. She did not point out any learning outcome in her lesson plan. Besides, she taught grammar deductively. However, her class was interactive. Her peers also asserted that her class was interactive. In her reflective report, she wrote that class observation helped her to understand strengths and weaknesses of a language class. In the post-training interview (after 3 months), 'Teacher B' informed that micro-teaching session was useful for her in learning time-management. In addition, from the teacher-training program she learned to engage students in providing peer feedback.

Teacher C (male) teaches at secondary level. This teacher was "a bit shy". The author notes that this teacher used lots of examples while explaining grammar. However, he did not mention any "learning outcomes" in his lesson plan. His reflective report suggested that he values warm-up activities, activating schema of the students, group work and pair work. In the post-training questionnaire, this teacher reported that teacher training sessions taught him "how not to be shy but be more interactive" (p. 119). In the post-training interview (after 3 months), this teacher reported that he engages students in discussion to make the class interactive. In addition, he involves students in pre-reading tasks to activate their schema. However, he conceded that he cannot prepare lesson plan due to shortage of time).

'Teacher D' (female) teaches at tertiary level. The author remarks that this teacher succeeded in making her class "interactive" and "lively". She selected appropriate teaching materials. In addition, she succeeded in creating mixed ability groups/pairs by pairing weak

students with strong students. This teacher reported that class observation contributed to her professional development because she could detect limitations of English teachers [whom she observed]. In her reflective report, she mentioned her lack of skill in time-management. In the post-training interview (after 3 months), this teacher reported that she prepares lesson plan for her classes.

5.18.16 In her article, "Reflective Teaching Through Continuous Assessment: Developing Speaking Skill in an EFL Context", Shamsi Ara Huda (Lecturer, Department of English, Faculty of Humanities & Social Science, Daffodil International University) [Huda, 2009] explains (from her own experience) how reflective teaching and continuous assessment can help in developing speaking skill of EFL students.

The author quotes the definition of continuous assessment from the dictionary of 'MSN Encarta'. According to MSN Encarta, continuous assessment involves evaluation of students' performance throughout a term or year. The author notes that "continuous assessment is more likely to be formative, process-oriented, informal, learner involved, and/or self-referenced in nature" (p. 89). Precisely, students' regular tasks such as essays, quizzes, presentation, project/term papers etc. can be examined and evaluated as part of continuous assessment. Apart from this, the author also defines 'Reflective teaching'. According to the author, reflective teaching involves reflection on regular teaching experiences. The author notes two types of reflective approach: Micro reflective approach (i.e. reflection on language teaching skills, classroom management skills etc.) and macro reflective approach (i.e. reflection on education and life long development).

The author describes some strategies of reflective teaching. First, a teacher can maintain journal to document teaching experience and reflection. Second, teachers may observe classrooms of their colleagues to learn new techniques of teaching. Third, a teacher

may receive constructive feedback from students. Feedback from students can be elicited through questionnaire, interview etc. The author argues that continuous assessment can be a tool for reflective teaching. In particular, continuous assessment may unravel students' weakness [regularly] and may produce data for teachers to reflect on the effectiveness of lessons.

The author mentions some information from a teacher's journal. The journal contains data of Fall-2008 and spring-2009. In this Journal, the teacher assessed speech of 160 students, and tried identified the following weaknesses of students. First, students lack confidence during performing speaking activities. Second, Bangla phonological system influences English pronunciation of the students. In particular, students pronounce English affricate /tʃ/ as Bangla sibilant /s/; English labio-dental /f/, /v/ as Bangla bilabial /ph/, /bh/ respectively. Third, students add extra phonemes to certain words (e.g. Adding /I/ sound to the initial position while pronouncing 'spoon', 'school' etc.). Besides, students mispronounce words such as 'honorable', 'hour' etc. (they pronounce initial /h/ sound). Fourth, students produce wrong sentences (e.g. "I have attested bathrooms" to mean "I have attached bathrooms"; "I want to eat you guys" to mean "I want to treat you guys" etc.). Fifth, students' linguistic repertoire does not contain adequate vocabulary. Sixth, students make mistakes in the following grammatical areas: Subject-Verb agreement, passive voice, parallel sentence construction, preposition, and gender. Seventh, students cannot actively participate in speaking activities due to lack of necessary schema. Eighth, when students are assigned any speaking task they (90% of them) tend to memorize texts to deliver speech. In addition, students cannot maintain eye contact while speaking. Ninth, Students tend to speak with a low voice. Tenth, some students are "habitually introvert" (p. 93).

The teacher discovered the following factors that are responsible for students' low proficiency in speaking. The teacher interviewed students to uncover causes of their low

proficiency. The teacher identified the following problems. First, shortage of trained teachers in rural areas; absence of speaking test at SSC and HSC level; interference of L1 dialect; absence of technological support; large class size; students' lack of concentration; adoption of lecture mode in teaching vocabulary, pronunciation etc.

The author makes the following recommendation to improve speaking skills of students. First, students' level of anxiety in the classroom should be reduced. Second, students should be encouraged to maintain eye-contact while speaking, and to speak in an audible voice. Third, the amount of STT (student talking time) should be increased. Fourth, teachers should provide students individual feedback on vocabulary, sentence constriction, and pronunciation. Fifth, popular movies, cartoons, and TV commercials may be used as a source of language input in the classroom.

5.18.17 In her article, "Reflective Teaching: Professional Development Through Self-Inquiry", Neelima Akhter [Akhter, 2006] discusses the process of professional development of English language teachers.

The author begins her discussion with the description of Wallace's (1991) teacher education model. Wallace explains three models of teacher education: the craft model, the applied science model, and reflective teaching. In the craft model, a trainee teacher observes an expert teacher to learn techniques of teaching. In the applied science model, trainee teachers learn theories and try to apply them in classroom. Reflective teaching involves a synthesis of received knowledge and experiential knowledge.

The author describes four strategies of reflection: (a) keeping teaching Journal, (b) feedback from students, (c) class observation, and (d) action research. The author notes that teachers can record their teaching experience in teaching journal. This practice can help teachers develop insights. The author shares the following sentences from her own teaching

journal: "Today in the class with section A I gave the students a reading passage on manners in different societies. I asked them to read it and answer some questions. But I didn't use a good introduction on manners. I also didn't spend enough time discussing their answers. When I give this activity to section B I will use an introduction and will start the class by talking about manners in Bangladesh" (p. 187). A second strategy of teacher reflection is receiving "feedback from students". The author notes that teachers may conduct questionnaire survey to collect data regarding teaching/learning. A third strategy of teacher reflection is classroom observation. The author points out that teachers may use observation checklist to collect data. In addition, teachers may audio/video-record a class. A fourth strategy of reflection is 'action research'. The author notes that there are four steps in an action research: plan (i.e. identification of a problem and a solution), teach/act, observe, and reflect.

5.18.18 In their study, "English Teachers' Classroom Practices in Rural Secondary Schools: An Exploration of the Effect of BRAC Training", Rifat Afroze, Md. Mahbubul Kabir (Staff Researchers of Educational Research Unit of Research and Evaluation Division, BRAC), and Arifa Rahman (Professor of English Language and Teacher Education, Institute of Modern Languages, University of Dhaka) [Afroze, Kabir, & Rahman, 2008] investigate: (a) impact of BRAC training on classroom practices; (b) teachers' perception of difficulties in implementing CLT; and (c) students' perception of teachers' performance.

The authors note that BRAC training program (six-week residential program) for rural non-government high school teachers started in 2001. The BRAC training materials cover teaching methodology, new concepts in the curriculum, and four skills. The authors generated data in 2006 (March-May). In particular, the authors observed classes of trained and non-trained teachers (40 classes of trained teachers and 39 classes of non-trained

teachers), arranged 14 focus group discussions for students of trained and non-trained teachers, and interviewed 26 trained teachers.

Class observation data does not indicate any major difference between the teaching practice of trained and non-trained teachers. Precisely, trained teachers dealt with mistakes in 70% classes whereas non-trained teachers dealt with mistakes in 85% classes. Second, meaningful communication occurred in 33% classes of trained teachers; on the other hand, 21% non-trained teachers could ensure meaningful communication in the class. Third, group work/pair work was conducted appropriately in 45% classes of trained teachers; on the contrary, group work/pair work was conducted successfully in 23% classes of non-trained teachers. Fourth, students encountered problems while doing group/pair work in 23% classes of trained teachers and in 18% classes of non-trained teachers. Fifth, trained teachers used English in 52% classes whereas non-trained teachers used English in 38% classes. Sixth, trained teachers used teaching aids productively in 95% classes whereas non-trained teachers used teaching aids productively in 72% classes. On the basis of classroom observation data, the authors conclude: "there is little evidence of much difference in the existing classroom practices of trained and non-trained teachers" (p. 14).

In the focus group discussions, the students informed that trained teachers use new techniques. However, the students also pointed out that these new techniques do not benefit them. This apart, the students reported that trained teachers try to speak English in the class and they encourage students to read [English] newspapers.

In the interview, the teachers identified the following challenges [of ELT in Bangladesh]: (a) lack of English proficiency of teachers; (b) inadequate stock of vocabulary of teachers and students; (c) unavailability of authentic materials; (d) unavailability of teaching aids; (e) seating arrangement [i.e. immovable furniture]. The authors observe: "Teachers perceived (with some exceptions) the training programme and the materials as

both relevant to and useful for their professional development. However, they felt that they found it difficult to apply their training" (p. 13).

Finally, the authors make some recommendations to improve BRAC training program. First, the training program should incorporate reflective practice. Second, the training program should emphasize on improving proficiency of the trainees. Third, the training program should adopt the principles of formative assessment to evaluate the trainers. Fourth, the training program should introduce "periodic refresher courses" [to monitor the professional development of the trainees].

5.19.0 Language Through Literature

5.19.1 In their case study, "Teaching Language Through Literature: Designing Appropriate Classroom Activities", Nellufar Yeasmin, Md. Abul Kalam Azad and Jannatul Ferdoush (authors are Lecturers, Department of English, ASA University Bangladesh) [Yeasmin, Azad, & Ferdoush, 2011] explores effectiveness of using literary text in language teaching.

The authors used British council's 'Readers' development program' offered at ASA University Bangladesh as an object of case study. The participants of this program were 80 students from first, second and third semester of English department in summer 2011. There was a pre-[language] test to determine the level of students. Activities of the classroom was designed and reading texts (e.g. *Heidi*, *The Woman in Black,* "Far from the Madding Crowd") were given according to the level of the participants.

The author designed the following activities for the student: guessing (content) from the title of the book; visual prompts where students were required to guess the story of Heidi after observing the cover page; key words where students were given some words such as 'ghosts', 'scary', 'countryside' etc. from "Far from the Madding Crowd" to decipher denotative meaning; listing words—where teachers listed some words from the reading text

on the board using TPR to teach verb; story telling using realia, thematic discussion of the story, reading the story aloud, comparison between literary [fiction] and non-literary texts (e.g. newspaper), relating events of the story with personal experiences, creating a story time-line, retelling the story, fill in the blanks, role play, writing letters to the characters of the story, discussion and reflection, rewriting a story, and making power-point presentation.

The authors suggest that (on the basis of their class observation) the students enjoyed class activities. In addition, use of literary texts improved students' linguistic proficiency (i.e. vocabulary, grammar, syntax, speaking, comprehension etc.) and critical thinking ability. However, western texts containing unfamiliar cultural components created comprehension problem for the students. In addition, the authors faced the following challenges: large class size, low motivation and low proficiency of the students, short class duration (one hour per week).

Finally, the authors recommend that translated texts in English from Bangla folk tales, stories and poems may be introduced to engage schemata of the students. Second, classroom activities should be learner-centered. Third, teachers should provide positive feedback to increase students' motivation. Fourth, students should be given opportunities to express their ideas. Fifth, a classroom should not contain more than 20 students.

5.19.2 In his article, "Using Postcolonial Literature in ELT", Dr. Fakrul Alam (Chair, Department of English, East West University) [Alam, 2005] discusses the significance of incorporating literature in language teaching, and critically evaluates *English for Today* (class 11 & 12).

On the basis of his review of C.J. Brumfit and R.A. Carter's (Eds.) book *Literature and Language Teaching* (1986), the author documents some benefits of using literary texts in language classroom. For instance, literacy texts are useful in language class because they

enhance imaginative capacity of students, can engage students in thoughtful group discussion which might be authentic and dialogic. In addition, literacy texts improve reading skills and can facilitate learning of lexis, usage of linguistic items, and discursive style. Further, literacy texts can involve learners in both transactional and interactional communicative activities to enhance their creative and social skills.

The author argues that postcolonial literary texts can be used in Bangladeshi language classrooms. The author critiques *English for Today* textbook of class 11 & 12 for its exclusion of literacy texts. The author remarks that *EFT* mainly contains 'informational' and 'synthetic' [artificial] texts with mechanical activities/exercises. For instance, the chapter entitled, "Disaster We Live With" is completely informational and tedious. A second instance of synthetic text is "Kalim Majhee's boat", a one-act play which contains unidiomatic English and awkward dialog.

The author mentions some postcolonial literary texts which could have been used in *English for Today* textbook. For instance, Amit Chaudhuri's *A Strange and Sublime Address* (a passage with a description of kalboishakhi) could have been used instead of "Disasters We Live With". This text can be used to teach vocabulary, grammar, critical thinking and creative thinking. A second text can be Khademul Islam's "An Ilish story" published in *Six Seasons Review,* a periodical of Dhaka. This text would allow learners to reflect on their history and culture, and to develop critical consciousness. A third text can be Kaiser Haq's poem "Civil service Romance" which humorously teach students about job application. Apart from these, the author maintains that writings of Rabindranath Tagore, Nirad Chaudhuri and Begum Rokeya Sakhawat Hossein can be used in language classroom.

Finally, the author suggests that the artificial barrier between language and literature should be eliminated. Second, postcolonial language pedagogues should understand the

lively characteristics of literacy language. Third, postcolonial literature in English has to be used in teaching reading and writing in Bangladesh.

5.19.3 In her essay, "The Role of Literature in the Teaching of English", Asma Chowdhury (Assistant Professor, English, National University) [Chowdhury, 2005] discusses importance of using literature in teaching English language and explains some techniques and methods of incorporating literature in language class.

The author notes that literature should be used in the language class because literary texts accelerate unconscious acquisition of language; literature is interactive with multiple meaning; literary texts exhibit creative use of English syntax; and literacy texts enrich students through transmitting values.

In her discussion of techniques of using literature in language classroom, the author notes that students can be required to write about character, setting, plot or theme of a particular literary text. Apart from this, the author explains three models of teaching literature [in language class]. First, 'the cultural model', a teacher-oriented approach, targets teaching of social, cultural, historical, economic and emotional dimension of the text. Second, 'the language model', a learner-oriented method, pays attention to linguistic features/usage (stylistics, grammar) of a text. Third, 'the personal growth model', another learner-oriented model, requires students to relate their own experience to the content of the text. Besides, the author mentions quickies method and Read aloud method of using literature in language class. In the first step of 'Text quickies method' and 'read aloud method' of using literature in language class. In the first step of 'Text Quickies Method', a teacher introduces some pictures and key words to students so that students can anticipate the context of the text. In the second step, students read the text and the teacher

highlights/explains lexical or syntactic features of the text. In 'read aloud' method, students read aloud the text to feel its rhythm.

Finally, the author recommends that teachers should apply methods according to the reeds of a teaching context. Second, stories, poem, and play excerpts may be used in the classroom. Third, English language should be taught from the early age of the students.

5.19.4 In her essay, "Using Drama Texts in Language Classrooms", Selina Rahman (Lecturer, Department of English, Stamford University Bangladesh) [Rahman, 2006] explains benefits and techniques of introducing drama texts in language class.

In her discussion of the benefits of using drama texts, the author notes that drama texts develop insights about target culture among learners. Second, drama texts are authentic which emotionally, socially and intellectually engage students. According to the author, two approaches might be used in dealing win drama texts in language class: Analytical approach and experiential approach. In an analytical approach, teachers concentrate on teaching structures and language items from a drama text. This approach is similar to TALO approach (Text as a linguistic object). On the other hand, experiential approach is concerned with relating learners' experience with the theme of the text. In other words, teachers following experiential approach require students to write comments or responses on a drama test. This approach view [drama] text as TAVI (Text as a Vehicle for Information). In her discussion of leaning activities using drama text, the author notes the following activities: identifying characters and plot; analyzing socio-political or historical contexts; creative response and critical analysis of the text etc.

5.19.5 In their essay, "Exploiting Short Stories in the EFL Classroom", Selina Rahman (Dept. of English, Assistant Professor, Stamford University Bangladesh) and Sayma Arju (Assistant

Professor, Dept. of English, Stamford University Bangladesh) [Rahman & Arju, 2008]

discuss advantages of using literary texts in English language classroom.

The authors identify pedagogic benefits of using literary texts in EFL classroom. For instance, literary texts are interesting and motivating. Second, student can learn about traditions and customs from literature. Third, literature enhances critical thinking skills. The authors outline a lesson plan that uses literary text in the language class. The lesson plan is designed to teach four skills and grammar. In the pre-readings activities, students would identify and discuss difficult [unknown] words and draw a flow chart to understand the plot. In the second lesson, teachers would provide feedback on home reading. In addition, students would locate transitional devices in the text, analyze plot and discuss character. In the third lesson, there would be general discussion on plot, character and society depicted in the text. In addition, there would be writing activity.

The authors note that in pre-readings activity, the author may discuss context of the text and author's biography. Next, the teacher may engage students in loud reading or silent reading. Besides, students may be asked to express their opinion on plot or character of the text. Students may be asked to paraphrases selected parts of the text. Some language activity may include understanding style/use of punctuation, rhetorical organization of text, syntax, lexical items. Writing activities may involve summary writing, writing e-mail/letter expressing personal feelings about the text. Finally, teachers may assign group presentation on the text where student may be allowed to choose their own topic.

5.19.6 In her article, "Using Shakespearean Drama for Creative Writing in ESL Classroom: Some Techniques and Suggestions", Imrana Islam (Senior Lecturer, department of English, Stamford University Bangladesh) [Islam, 2011] shares her experience of using literary text in language classroom.

The author used literary text in a language class consisting of 30 students from English, Architecture, and Environmental Science discipline. The author suggests that activities on Shakespeare's *Macbeth* in her language class improved four skills of the students. The author argues that tasks on drama texts are effective for the following reasons: first, drama text motivates students in learning a foreign language; second, drama texts improve level of confidence of the students. The author mentions some techniques [tasks] of using drama text that she found effective in her class. First, she asked students to rewrite or rephrase a speech from *Macbeth*. Through this task, students gained the ability to appreciate the beauty of words because students were made to pay attention to syllables, rhythm and intonation of speech. Second, students transformed a scene written in Shakespearean English into modern English. This task enabled students to understand emotion of the characters. Third, students wrote letters to characters of *Macbeth* (e.g. letter to Macbeth/Lady Macbeth). This task created an emotional attachment between characters of the text and the students. In addition, letters catalyzed a comic relief in the class. Fourth, students invented a new scene for the play which trained them to become scrip writer and engaged them in creative thinking. Fifth, students wrote scripts in simple English so that they can stage the play. This task provided students with the opportunity of editing scripts. Finally, the author recommends that drama text should be introduced in ESL [or EFL] class, because students "felt…comfortable" (p. 157) with the literary text.

5.19.7 In her article, "Introducing Poetry in the Language Classroom to Help Develop Learner's Speaking", Salma Ainy (Associate Professor, Department of English Language and Literature, Bangladesh Open University) [Ainy, 2010] discusses advantages of using poetry in teaching speaking skills.

The author paints out the following utility of poetry in teaching oral communication skill. First, since language of poetry sometimes deviates from standard grammatical forms, students may be familiarized with wide range of usage through poetry. Second, poetry deals with universal themes; therefore, it can emotionally engage readers. Third, short poems can be covered in a single class. Fourth, both grammar (form) and meaning (i.e. interpretation) can be taught using poetry. Fifth, students can be made sensitive to rhythm using poetry. Sixth, compact and ambiguous characteristic of poem may lead to extended and multiple interpretation.

The author mentions some techniques of using poetry in the class. The author refers to Hess (2003) who "suggests a nine-step technique that includes 'trigger', 'vocabulary preview', 'bridge, listen, react, and share', 'language', 'picture', 'more language', 'meaning and spin-off'" (p. 111). Besides, the author demonstrates the process of designing teaching materials using William Carlos Williams's poem "This is just to say" and Robert Browning's "Porphyria's Lover". From both the poems the author constructs questions on the content, and requires students to relate the poems to their experience.

The author recommends that teachers should select poem considering students' proficiency level and interest. In addition, language of poem [which would be used in teaching speaking] should contain day to day language. Second, poems written in English by local poets may be used in the classroom. Third, teachers should design activities on poem anticipating difficulties/problems that students may encounter while dealing with the poem.

5.19.8 In her article, "Applying ELT Methodology for Literature Classes in Bangladesh", Nevin Farida (Associate Professor, Department of English, University of Dhaka) [Farida, 2003] explains a framework for teaching language in literature class.

In "Section A", the author records how a typical literature class would deal with Katherine Mansfield's short story "The Garden Party". The author notes that the teacher would begin with describing biography of Mansfield and her writing style (works). Next, the teacher would focus on the following components: plot, character, setting, narrator, themes, crisis/conflict, and ending. Literary theory (e.g. Marxist theory) might be applied to interpret the text. Besides, irony, symbols, imagery etc. might be discussed.

In "Section B", the author contends that "The Garden Party" may be used to teach language in a literature class. The author notes two frameworks that can be used to teach language using this short story: Maley's (1989) framework which includes 'framing' (warm-up activity), 'focusing' (engaging with the text), and 'diverging' (follow-up activity) stage and Talif's (1994) model which involves three stages: The Initial Stage (generating interest in students about the text), The Middle Stage (reading the text), and The Final Stage (reading supplementary text, exercises, follow-up activities).

According to these models, the author designs the following classroom activities. First, in the Framing/Initial stage, the teacher can show pictures of gardens and ask students to write words associated with the pictures. Next, they can be asked to compare list of words with each other. Then students may be engaged in reading about the concept of garden from dictionary, magazine article, and a verse. In the Focusing/Middle stage students may be involved in reading a part of the story. Teacher may write some words on the board and ask students to identify the lines that contain those words. Besides, the teacher may ask students whether they liked the story or not (invite comments). Apart from this students may be engaged in the following activities: summarizing, predicting (plot), gap-filling, answering comprehension questions, and playing communication games (e.g. identifying a character by asking twenty questions). In the Diverging/Final stage, the teacher may assign homework to

students (e.g. "Inviting a friend to a garden party"). In addition, students may be asked to read articles on gardening and write an essay on "Effective ways to do gardening".

5.19.9 In the article, "Non Native Literature: A Classroom Resource for Literature and Language Teaching in EFL/ESL Contexts", Batool Sarwar (Assistant Professor, University of Dhaka) [Sarwar, 2008-2009] argues for using post-colonial literature in EFL/ESL classroom.

The author maintains that the following three theoretical frameworks lend support for the use of non-native literature in ESL contexts: reader response theory, status of English as an international language [EIL], and post-colonial theories.

The author notes that 'reader response theory' deals with the interaction between the reader and text; in addition, this theory addresses readers' subjective experiences and socio-historical condition in which a text is produced. The author draws the following pedagogic implications of this theory in the context of ESL teaching: first, application of reader response theory can transform a teacher-centered classroom into learner-centered classroom, because this theory takes readers' subjective experiences into account. Second, reader response theory assumes that readers can easily decode those texts which are connected to their society and history. Therefore, use of postcolonial literature can improve reading skills of ESL students.

In the discussion of second framework to support the use of non-native literature in ESL classroom, the author contends that the use of non-native literature in teaching English language can be a means of fighting linguistic imperialism. Non-native varieties of English may gain prestige if teaching materials are developed using non-native literature. In addition, by using non-native literature in classroom, students can be made aware about the range (different contexts of using English) and depth (use of English in literary and emotional expression) of English. In particular, students can be made aware about the fact that Indian

English (including Bangladeshi English) can be used for literary and emotional expression in different contexts. Besides, "the use of locally produced [English] literature as resource gives students the advantages of experiencing English as part of their cultural identity" (p. 50).

In the discussion of post-colonial theory and use of non-native English literature, the author points out that post-colonial literature [in English] demonstrates how English language can be appropriated and can be a tool for resistance. Therefore, non-native literature can be used to teach ESL students to ignite their insurrectionary consciousness. Finally, the author suggests that literature syllabus should use contain post-colonial literature in English.

In a nutshell, post-colonial literature in ESL classroom offers the following benefits: (a) students can immediately respond to the text; (b) classroom becomes student-centered; (c) students can be exposed to different varieties of English; (d) consciousness can be made about the fact that English language can be an apparatus for resistance; (e) students can see that English language can be synthesized with their own culture.

5.19.10 In his essay, "The Use of Literature in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL)", Md. Enamul Hoque (Instructor (ELT) at Education and Training Wing, Ministry of Environment and Forest) [Hoque, 2006-07] explicates techniques of using literature in language classroom.

The author argues that short stories, poems, novels, dramas can be used in language classroom. The author mentions some principles of selecting literary texts and designing activities. First, literary text can be modified [to match the level of the students]. Second, texts that deal with universal themes (e.g. love, nature, death etc.) may be selected. Third, English texts that deal with students' own culture may be included. In other words, literary pieces in English produced by non-native writers may be used in the English classroom,

because culturally familiar texts would facilitate comprehension. The author points out that students can learn sentence structures, phrases, and vocabulary from literary texts.

The author notes that following activities that can be used to teach language using literary texts. First, students can be asked to paraphrase short story; they can read aloud the story; or they can learn vocabulary and syntax from the story. Besides, students can learn narrative technique and dialogs of the story. Students can also play different roles described in the story. Second, nursery rhymes or chants can be used to teach pronunciation. Third, poetry can be used to teach listening, speaking, reading, and writing. In particular, students can listen to recorded recitation of poems; students can discuss the theme of poems; students can transform poetic syntax into regular syntax; or students can read or recite poems. This apart, poems can be used to teach grammar as well (e.g. "If I were fire, I'd burn up the world; /If I were wind, I'd blow it away;" (Angiolieri, 1981)) [to teach conditionals]. Fourth, drama can be used to teach language because drama represents everyday language.

Finally, the author suggests that very long, linguistically and conceptually complex, and culturally distant literary text should not be selected. In other words, texts should be selected considering students' proficiency level and interest.

5.19.11 In their essay, "Using Literary Techniques in the Language Class: Focus on Science and Technology University", Md. Lutful Arafat (Lecturer (English), Dept. of Social science & Language, Hajee Mohammad Danesh Science & Technology University), K. M. Earfan Ali (Assistant Prof., Dept of Statistics, Hajee Mohammad Danesh Science & Technology University), and Nawsher Oan (Dept. of Social science & Language, Hajee Mohammad Danesh Science & Technology University) [Arafat, Ali, & Oan, 2012] argue that literacy texts can be used in teaching English Language.

The authors point out that literary texts can familiarize students with creative use of language. In other words, literacy texts embody syntactic variations and creative expressions. [Therefore, students can learn language by studying literacy texts]. The authors argue that literacy texts can be used to teach English language to science and technology students, because similarities can be found between literary text and technical text. For instance, descriptive language is used in both literacy text and technical text. To illustrate this point, the authors juxtapose O' Casey's play "Bedtime Story" (which describes a room) and an extract from the "Textbook of Veterinary History" (which describes Lymph Capillaries). The authors indicate that students should be engaged in analyzing style and [narrative] technique of a text. Besides, students may be asked to identify theme and setting of a story. The authors indicate that close reading of literacy texts may help science & technology students in writing research report or proposal. The authors write: "Without a primary idea...or point of view, a research proposal or a big report may lose the harmony and purpose. Being an essay, it has several parts and skills of narrative techniques" (p. 282).

5.19.12 In their article, "Teaching Language From Literature Background: Bringing the Best of Two Worlds", Shuchi Karim (Women's Studies Department, University of Dhaka, Bangladesh) and Tabassum Zaman (Department of English and Humanities, BRAC University) [Karim, & Zaman, 2006] argue that teachers with literature background [i.e. those teachers who majored in literature at undergraduate and graduate level] are capable of teaching English language effectively.

In the section entitled "Language and literature: Can there be a happy marriage?" the authors maintain that literary texts should be included in the English language course (Foundation Course) because literacy texts in language courses offer the following advantages. First, literacy texts can motivate students. The authors remark: "The presence of

literature on the syllabus...may be helpful for English teacher to keep the students interested" (p. 77). Second, literature can be used in the language classroom to build confidence of the students. For instance, teacher may appreciate students' interpretation of a literary text. This approach may generate self-confidence in learners. The authors remarks: "Once students find confidence in their own abilities, they automatically turn into life-long learners" (p. 77). Third, literacy texts are authentic language teaching materials. Fourth, since literacy texts carry multiple meanings, these texts can facilitate interactions among students. In other words, students can share their analysis of a literacy text with their peers.

In the section entitled "Literature teachers teaching English: asset or a burden?" the authors put forward the argument that a teacher with literature background is capable of teaching English language effectively. The authors mention the following points to support their claim. First, a teacher with literature background possesses knowledge about language. The authors write: "A person who has spent a considerable period of time studying literature must be equipped with the required knowledge of the intricacies of language and also has an inherent interpretive ability" (p. 79). Second, a teacher with literature background can improve her teaching by receiving training. A teacher with linguistics background may also need to receive training for professional development. Therefore, a teacher with linguistics background is not superior to a teacher with literature background. Besides, teachers of linguistics background and literature background are supposed to handle contents of Fundamental English (i.e. Basic English) courses with equal efficiency. The authors write: "As far as the contents of fundamental level English courses are concerned, there is hardly any scope of a person from a linguistic background having an upper hand over a literature person, because what is taught at this level are the basics of English, over which people from both streams are supposed to have command" (p. 79). However, the authors mention that teachers with literature background are generally leveled as 'de-motivated' people. The

authors defend these teachers by claiming that teachers feel de-motivated because students'

linguistic proficiency is below the expected level, and students are not motivated learners of

English are not motivated learners of English language.

In the "Conclusion" section, the authors suggests that English departments [of Bangladesh]

should contain teachers from both literature and linguistics stream. The authors remark:

"Teachers with literature background teamed with teachers with pure language background

are resources that add to the value of any language program" (p. 80).

5.19.13 In her article, "Teaching Poetry in the EFL Class: Making Language Learning an

Enjoyable, Interactive Experience", Tazin Aziz Chaudhury [Chaudhury, 2005] shares her

experience of using poetry as an instrument of teaching language.

The author mentions that she used poems in a language class of first year

undergraduate students of Arts Faculty. The duration of the course was 1 year. The author's

class contained 40 students. These students met the author for 2 hours per week.

The author points out that she selected the poems on the following criteria: appeal to

curiosity, students' level, universality of the theme, entertainment, and depth of thought. The

author divided her lesson into three phases: pre-reading activities, whilst-reading activities,

and post-reading activities. In the pre-reading phase, the author asked students some

questions about a poem. In particular, from the poem "Not Waving But Drowning" (by

Stevie) about the title ("what do you think the title means?") and character ("who is waving

to whom?"). In addition, the author also asked students to make predictions about the poem

(e.g. "Is the atmosphere going to be positive or negative?"). In the while-reading phase, the

author conducted the following activities. First, the students listened to the recitation of the

poem. Second, students were engaged in reading the poem. Third, the author picked up

some phrases from the text and explained them to students. For instance, from the text

"Dulce et Decorum Est" (by Wilfred), the author explained the following phrases: An ecstasy

of fumbling, [Men] marched asleep etc. (these are called 'One-line warmers). Fourth, the

author selected some key words from the text and asked students to discuss them. For

instance, from the poem "Ah are you digging on my grave?" (by Thomas Hardy) the author

selected the following words and phrases: "loved one," "one true heart", "death's gin" etc. In

the post-reading phase, the author conducted the following activities. First, the author

constructed some "comprehension questions" for the students. For instance, from the poem

"Arms and the Boy" (by Wilfred Owen), the author constructed the following questions:

"what weapons do animals have?", "what type of teeth are mentioned?" etc. Second, the

author engaged students in "language exercises". For instance, the author asked students to

write antonyms of the following words: permitted, assent, buoyancy (from the poem "Hawk

Roosting" by Ted Hughes). In addition, the author asked students to explain some lines from

the text (i.e. "And the earth's face upward for my inspection"). Third, students were asked to

select three points from the text to discuss in the class. This activity was designed to

facilitate communication and discussion. Fourth, students were required to "write down

anything that they strongly felt about the poem e.g. its theme, characters, language or imagery

and bring it the next day" (p. 59). This activity followed group discussion and peer feedback.

At this stage, the author explained the cultural properties of the poem. After the discussion,

students were asked to write a response essay on the text. In addition, the author tried to

relate the text with Bangladeshi culture). Fifth, the author engages the students in reading

aloud the poem. Sixth, students were asked to draw pictures of "Not Waving but Drowning"

and "Hawk Roosting". Seventh, students were asked to memorize a poem (according to their

choice), and to recite the poem in the class.

   Finally, the author recommends that teachers should choose poem according to the

level of the students. Second, teachers should give students sufficient time to prepare

themselves for performance, discussion, and written assignments. Third, teachers should take reflective notes on their teaching (i.e. what works and what does not work).

5.20.0 IT in ELT

5.20.1 In the essay, "Using Short Feature Films to Teach E.S.L.", Dr. Zia Hasan (Vice-President and Professor, Claflin University South Carolina, USA) [Hasan, 2005] explains techniques of using films in language classroom.

The author notes some criteria for selecting film for classroom. For instance, the film should be culturally appropriate, short (not more than 45 minutes) and unabiguous. In addition, the film should contain Standard English, and print and audio quality of the film should be good. With regard to activities, the author suggests that there might be controlled discussion and question and answer session on the film. Second, teachers may pick words/lexis form the film to teach vocabulary and pronunciation. Third, there might be comprehension question on the movie. Fourth, students may be required to take notes while watching the movie. Fifth, students may be assigned to write about the film. The author maintains that a film fulfils educational objectives because a movie/film might require students to interpret, identify analyze, synthesize and evaluate its content.

Finally, the author provides a sample of activates (derived from a movie titled *The Legend of Sleepy Hollow*. As discussion topics, the author mentions plot, themes, and characters. Second, the author notes some words (e.g. abode, rustic, witch) from the film for teaching vocabulary and pronunciation. Third, the author mentions some comprehension questions about characters, plots and incidents. Fourth, students are required to take notes about theme, plot and characters; in addition, students are asked to write about role of some characters of the film.

5.20.2 In his article, "Cell Phone Technology and Second Language Acquisition: An Action Research Experiment", Nicolas Gromik (English Lecturer, Qatar University) [Gromik, 2009-10] investigates benefits of cell-phone based video production in English language learning.

The participants of this study include 102 Japanese sophomore students from Education, Engineering, Arts & Law, and medicine discipline of a language course. The students were required to record 30 second video each week on such themes as 'self-introduction', 'the life of pi' etc. and to e-mail them to course instructor (in a 14-week course). However, 50 students out of 102 succeeded in sending all the videos required for the course. The researcher transcribed the video clips and counted words to trace improvement in students speaking skills.

The analysis of data suggests that the practice of producing video using cell phone did not have any significant impact on students' speaking skill. The average length of video produced in week-2 was 20.7 seconds and the average number of words was 36.2. In week-12, the average length of video was 21.3 seconds and the average number of words was 36.3. Thus, length or number of words did not increase throughout the semester. However, in the end of the semester 16 students were randomly asked to make an impromptu presentation in front of the camera in the class. In this case, the average length of video production was 27.1 seconds and the average number of words was 43.4. The author reasons that the increase in length and words in students' speech may be the result of their attachment with other courses where they might have acquired new syntax and vocabulary. In other words, the process of recording 30-second speech failed to contribute in developing speaking skills of the students. In a response essay in mid-term, out of 102, 69 students made positive comments and 21 students made negative comments about the task of producing video. In a response essay

about video production (post-test response), 79 students out of 102 reported that cell phone video production was beneficial in improving speaking skills.

Finally, the author remarks that cell phone video production was a useful task for the students. Majority of the students made plan, wrote their ideas, and practiced delivering speech before recording a video. Thus, video recording using cell phone develops thinking, writing, and facilities the practice of speaking skills.

5.20.3 In their essay, "Use of Mass Media in English Language Teaching: Some Reflections", Zakia Noor Matin (Lecturer in English, Stamford University Bangladesh) and Nadia Rahman (Teacher, Stamford University Bangladesh) [Matin & Rahman, 2009-10] discuss techniques of using text from TV, radio, internet etc. in language classroom.

The authors suggest that television programs in learners' native language (i.e. Bangla) may be used in teaching English language. For instance, topics for writing paragraph may be derived from Bangla TV series or music contests. Besides, writing exercises may be designed from recent advertisements as well (e.g. "what do you understand by the title of the advertisement of the washing powder "Surf Exel" ("Dug theke Jodi [darun] kichu…") (p.178). Grammar exercises may be created on popular sports show. For instance, students may practice using correct verb form on the theme 'Twenty Twenty World Cup 2009' (e.g. "In the last tournament, India—(be) the champion"). Besides, students may listen to English news or radio. The authors argue that English newspaper and magazines increase vocabulary knowledge of the students. In particular, teachers may engage students in reading letters to the editor published in local newspapers. In addition, student may be asked to compose individual letters [to be sent to the editor]. Internet can be used to involve students in practicing grammar. Further, email can be effectively utilized in teaching English. For instance, teachers may assign debate topic and require students to exchange email on the

issue. Besides, teachers may mail students about certain ideas from classroom text and invite opinion and reflection of the students. However, teachers may provide corrective feedback on grammar in response to students' email. The author recommends that educational institutions should provide access to newspapers and magazines. In addition, English movies may be played in the classroom.

5.20.4 In the essay, "Internet and the ESL Classroom", Shameem Ahmed (Assistant Professor, Dept. of English, IBAIS University) [Ahmed, 2008] discusses usefulness of internet in teaching English language.

Citing Grey (1999), the author notes four techniques of using internet in ESL/EFL classroom. First, students can use internet as a virtual library; second, students can publish their writing on web pages; third, students can interact with each other using e-mail or chat rooms; fourth, students can jointly publish writing on web pages which can encourage collaborative learning. In the section entitled "Benefits of internet", the author points out two types of communication in internet: 'asynchronous communication' which means communication trough email, e-cards, bulletin boards etc and 'synchronous communication' which occurs in chat rooms (real time). ESL/EFL students can engage themselves in both types of communication to improve their language skills. Students can find supplementary language learning materials such as reading tests, grammar exercise, pronunciation or vocabulary exercise etc. Besides, teachers can download lesson plan and relevant teaching materials from internet. However, since internet contains both high quality and low quality language learning materials, students should be trained how to chose materials considering credibility, authority, and reference. Finally, the author suggests that internet based activity such as e-mail or web browsing may be included in the curriculum.

5.20.5 In her essay, "Technology and the Language Teacher", Taslima Irine Ivy (Lecturer, Department of English, University of Dhaka) [Ivy, 2010-2011] explores possibilities of the use of technology in language teaching.

The author identifies the following options that teachers may use in language teaching: internet (i.e. journals, professional networks etc.), multimedia presentation, office applications for preparing handouts, worksheets etc., shared drives of academic institute, e-mail etc. In addition, CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning) has created opportunities for extensive use of technology in language learning. For instance, internet can be used in distant mode of education; spoken or written texts can be stored in computer or in websites to be used for language learning purposes; text-reconstruction software can be used to generate cloze exercise. Apart from CALL, MALL (Mobile-Assisted Language Learning), iphone, cellphone or mp3/mp4 player can be used for education purposes. In particular, mobile devices can be used to store and retrieve language learning materials and to facilitate communication between teacher, student and peers. Other technological tools for language learning are: 'electronic whiteboard' which can display computer screen on a board and 'web 2.0' technology which involves blog, wiki, podcasting and social networking sites. Blog can be used as an interactive tool for teaching learning reading and writing. Wiki software can be used for collaborative writing. Podcasting, (i.e. data stored on internet which can be downloaded anytime in computer) can be use for language learning purposes. In other words, authentic texts (e.g. BBC radio podcast) or semi-authentic texts (e.g. 'Real English' podcast of BBC world English) may be used to practice listening. Social networking sites such as Facebook, MySpace, Twitter may be used [to practice] reading, writing and communication. Besides, Virtual Learning Environments (VLE) provides scope for authentic interaction with virtual characters such as 'avatar'.

The author identifies the following obstacles in using technology in language teaching in the context of Bangladesh: lack of training in using technology; slow internet connection; high cost involved in the installation of technology; and frequent power failure. In addition, plagiarism may increase if students get access to essays in internet. Finally, the author suggests that teachers can learn how to use technology from tutorial CD; and teachers may use plagiarism detector to detect plagiarized assignment.

5.20.6 In their survey, "The Use of Computers and Multimedia in English Language Teaching Classes in Bangladesh: Preliminary Observations", Ahmed Bashir (Assistant Professor, Department of English, Dhaka University) and Md. Ziaur Rahman (Senior Lecturer, Department of English, Northern University, Dhaka) [Bashir, & Rahman, 2007-2011] explore teachers' and students' opinions regarding the use of multimedia in English language classrooms.

The participants of this study include 90 teachers and 215 undergraduate students (randomly selected) of 4 public and 26 private Universities of Bangladesh. The authors elicited data using a questionnaire (containing open-ended and closed-ended). The authors analyzed data using SPSS (version 11.5).

In the questionnaire, there were 10 questions for the teachers. In response to question (1) whether they [teachers] use computer and multimedia, 75.6% teachers answered positively. In response to question (2) regarding the benefits of using computer and multimedia in the classroom, 65% teachers reported that use of multimedia makes lecture "more structured and effective" (p. 146) and 55% teachers reported that "students can follow the lecture properly" (p. 146). In response to the question (3) regarding the problems of using computers in the classroom, 81.1% teachers reported that use of multimedia create problems. In response to question (4) about the types of problems that arise in using multimedia, 68%

reported about the wastage of time when computer does not work and 53% reported that students tend to copy form the screen and pay less attention to the teacher's lecture. In response to question (5) regarding the reasons behind not using computer in the class, 20% teachers reported that multimedia is unable in their institutions. In response to the question (6) whether teachers encounter any problem in taking class without multimedia support, 70.4% teachers reported that they face problems. In response to the question (7) regarding the types of problems that they face due to unavailability of multimedia in the classroom, 55% teachers reported that students find it difficult follow lecture. In response to the question (8) about the rate of advantages and disadvantages of using multimedia in the classroom, 74.7% teachers reported that advantages of using multimedia is more than disadvantages. In response to the question (9) whether problems of using multimedia can be avoided or not, 77.3% reported that the problems can be avoided. In the 10th question, teachers were asked to make comments about the use of multimedia in the classroom. 55% teachers responded: "without using computers and multimedia, English Language teaching is not possible at all" (p. 153).

Questionnaire for the students also include 10 questions. In response to the question (1) whether use of multimedia increases effectiveness of class, 96.7% students answered positively. In response to the question (2) about the benefits of multimedia, 80.5% students reported that they enjoy class that use multimedia and 72.6% students reported that they can take notes from the screen. In response to the question (3) whether multimedia creates any problem in ELT class, 63.7% responded affirmatively. In response to the question (4) regarding the types of problems that use of multimedia creates, 80.5% students reported that "sometimes teachers speak less" (pp. 157, 175). In response to the question (5) about the rate of advantages and disadvantages of using multimedia in the classroom, 60.5% students reported that advantages outweigh disadvantages whereas 39.5% students reported that

"problems [are] more than the benefits" (p.159). In response to the question (6) whether their teachers use multimedia in the class, 81.9% students answered positively. In response to the question about absence of multimedia in their classes, 45.1% students reported that their teachers are not interested in using multimedia and 44.2% reported that multimedia is not available in their university. In response to the question (8) whether they encounter any problem due to the absence of multimedia in the classroom, 57% students responded affirmatively. In response to the question about the types of problems that arise due to the absence of multimedia, 47.9% students reported that they "cannot hear the lecture properly" and 44.7% students responded that they "cannot copy the lecture properly" (p. 163). In response to the question whether teachers should use multimedia in the classroom, 94.4% students responded positively.

Finally, the authors recommend that universities should install multimedia and computer in the classroom. In addition, teachers should be trained so that they can use multimedia.

5.20.7 In their article, "Strength, Weakness, Opportunity and Threat (SWOT) Analysis of Using Technology in ELT at Primary Level", Md. Ashrafuzzaman (Researcher, M. Phil Program, IER, University of Dhaka), Rasel Babu (Research, M. Phil program, IER, University of Dhaka), and Mariam Begum (Associate Professor, IER, University of Dhaka) [Ashrafuzzaman, Babu, & Begum, 2010] investigate the effectiveness of using technology in teaching primary level students.

The authors evaluate the impact of EIA (English in Action) intervention in teaching English in Bangladesh. EIA uses mobile technology (e.g. iPod) in teaching English Language. The authors collected data from 7 Schools of Monohordi (Narsingdi district) and 7 Schools of Pabna (Rajshahi Division). 7 teachers and 42 students participated from the

schools of Monohordi, and equal number of teachers (i.e. 7 teachers and 42 students) participated from the schools of Pabna. The authors observed 7 classes of the schools of Pabna. The authors used classroom observation checklist (the authors observed classes of Grade-I and Grade-III), semi-structured interview schedule (for teachers), semi-structured Focus Group Interview (FGI) schedule (for students) (14 FGI's were organized. Each FGI consisted of 6 students) to elicit data. The authors used SWOT matrix to analyze strength, weakness, opportunity and threat of EIA activities.

The authors identified the following strengths of EIA intervention: Students prefer audio text; use of audio materials reduce students' fear in learning English; use of audio materials has increased attendance of the students; and audio texts are useful in improving pronunciation of the students. The authors detected the following weakness: video materials are not used in the classroom; teachers are not efficient in using technology; there are differences between audio materials and contents of the textbook; and use of mobile technology in the classroom is time consuming. The authors found the following opportunities: (a) Bangladesh government, schools and community hold positive attitude toward the use of technology in the classroom; (b) teachers are interested in using technology; and (c) students find it enjoyable to learn English using mobile technology. The authors identified the following threats: (a) use of technology may not continue in future; (b) electricity is not available in the schools; and (c) absence of monitoring and supervision (i.e. it might become difficult to ascertain quality of teaching in the absence of monitoring and supervision).

In the FGI, students reported that they enjoy listening to audio rhymes. In the interview, one teacher reported that audio texts encouraged students to participate in conversation in the classroom. One teacher reported that students from different grades gather and create noise during the use of audio text. Some teachers reported that they cannot

complete syllabus if they [regularly] use audio text in the class. The authors note: "Students liked the songs and rhymes very much" (p. 74). However, "teachers faced difficulty in finding lessons from the audio and to forward, and backward the programmes" (p. 75). In addition, students lose concentration and interest when they find mismatch between audio materials and their textbook.

The authors recommend that EIA should introduce audio materials in the schools of the whole country because students like listening to songs and rhymes. Second, EIA should involve all primary [English] teachers in teaching English using mobile technology. Third, more training sessions should be arranged to make teachers efficient in using technology in the classroom. Fourth, supervision and monitoring of teachers' performance should be ensured.

5.20.8 In her article, "EFL Learning Online: A Case of South Asia", Farzana Sharmin Pamela Islam (Senior Lecturer, Department of English, East West University, Dhaka) [Islam, 2010] explores some problems of online EFL courses.

The author suggests that online [English language course] in EFL context (e.g. Bangladesh, Malaysia) cannot teach "correct pronunciation". The author remarks: "Computer-based learning (CBL) and Computer Aided Learning (CAL) that include voiced pronunciation drills have indicated little success" (p. 149). Second, online EFL courses are concerned with content of interaction (i.e. intelligibility in communication) and overlooks development of linguistic accuracy. The author writes: "Sometimes when ill-formed English allows communication to proceed, learners feel complacent and do not target accuracy" (p.149). Third, the author indicates that reliability and validity of assessment system in online is low. In particular, proxy students can take online exam.

5.20.9 In her article, "Cultural Communication Through Social Media and the Second or Foreign Language Learning", Nipa Nasrin (Centre for Languages) [Nasrin, 2012] discusses the effectiveness of using internet in teaching/learning second or foreign language.

In this article, the author connects the concepts of 'critical literacy' and 'intercultural and interlinguistic communication' with foreign/second language learning. The author suggests that critical literacy involves critical interpretation of texts. Besides, critical literacy stresses on intercultural and interlinguistic communication. Citing Kern (2000), the author notes that literacy encompasses seven components: Interpretation, collaboration, conventions, cultural knowledge, problem solving, reflection and self-reflection, and language use, According to kern (2000), as the author notes, internet can be used to achieve literacy.

Citing Souzzo (1995) the author notes that "immediacy of communication" facilitates second or foreign language learning. Email, Skype, Facebook etc. can be used to establish communication between people from different culture. These media allow immediate and direct interaction. Communication through these media is anxiety-free and cost-effective. Besides, citing Kern (1996), the author points out that online communication creates opportunity to negotiate meaning and to receive contextualized linguistic input. In addition, the communicators can exchange cultural information.

Citing Souzzo (1995), the author records the benefits of using email communication as a tool of teaching foreign language. First, email communication does not generate anxiety. Second, dialogic characteristic of email communication motivates students to participate in interaction. Third, Students can learn about target language culture and value system through email communication. Fourth, students can learn new vocabularies and grammatical structure by writing emails. Fifth, email communication can help students gain critical literacy, because students read, reflect, interpret and respond while writing emails. However, teachers need to help students to initiate interaction with people from different linguistic

groups. In addition, teachers need to monitor the communication. Further, the teacher may ask students to discuss the contents of email interaction in the class. Citing Kern (2000), the author notes that chatting [on internet] is another form of dialogic interaction because (a) chatting involves "real time communication"; and (b) chatting occurs in social context. Besides, a teacher plays the role of a participant in chatting sessions. Another medium of social interaction is Skype. Students can practice speaking and listening using Skype, because Skype allows audio-visual communication. The author notes that students can create web page to begin a discussion forum [which can allow communication between people from different linguistic community].

The author notes that inclusion of online communication in a language course creates opportunities for informal learning of a foreign language. In addition, citing Kern (1996), the author points out two more advantages of using online communication as a tool for teaching foreign language. First, students become active learners of language because they ask question on interpret text while communicating through social media. Second, teachers become guide, counselor, and facilitator (i.e. teachers do not remain an authority).

5.20.10 In their article, "The Use of Information Technology (IT) in Language Teaching & Learning", Nusrat Jahan (Lecturer, Department of English, Faculty of Humanities & Social Science, Daffodil International University) and Anisur Rahman (Lecturer, Department of Computer Science & Engineering, Faculty of Science and Information Technology, Daffodil International University) [Jahan, & Rahman, 2009] investigate the attitude of tertiary level teachers and students toward the use of IT in English language teaching/learning.

The participants of this study include 32 English language teachers 100 students of some private and public universities of Bangladesh. The authors used a closed-ended questionnaire to elicit data for this study

Teachers' questionnaire carried 5 questions. When asked whether they think IT is helpful for language teaching, 87.5% teachers answered 'Yes' whereas 12.5% teachers answered 'No'. Second, when asked whether they often collect teaching materials form internet, 68.75% teachers answered 'Yes' and 31.25% answered 'No'. Third, when asked whether IT can help them improve their teaching style, 62.5% teachers responded 'Yes' whereas 37.5% teachers responded 'No'. Fourth, when asked whether they think students who use IT can perform better than others, 56.25% teachers answered 'Yes' and 43.75% teachers answered 'No'. Fifth, when asked whether they suggest their students to use internet, 81.25% teachers responded positively whiners 18.75% responded negatively.

The questionnaire designed for the students also contained 5 questions. In response to the first question, 85% students reported that they use computer and internet as a tool for their study whereas 15% reported that they do not use computer and internet as a tool for study. In the second question, students were asked whether they enjoy classes with technological equipments. In response to this question, 93% answered 'Yes' and 7% answered 'No'. In the third question, students were asked whether they think IT can help them improve their English language skill. In response to this question, 70% answered 'Yes' and 30% answered 'No'. In the fourth question, students were asked whether they find materials collected from internet interesting or not. In response to this question', 79% students answered 'Yes' and 21% answered 'No'. The fifth question was: "Do you like learning from web rather than book?". In response to this question, 52% students answered 'Yes' and 48% answered 'No'.

5.20.11 In his article, "Influence of Information Technology on Education and Language Teaching", Binoy Barman (Assistant Professor and Head, Department of English, Daffodil International University) [Barman, 2012] discusses the role of technology in education and [English] language teaching.

In the section entitled "Aspects of influence", the author describes the usefulness of IT in education. First, the author points out that multimedia projector can display animation and video which "makes learning more attractive to learners" (p. 36). Second, use of IT can enhance learner autonomy. Precisely, computer, as a learning aid, can lead students to learn actively. Third, students can use CD/DVD as learning tools. Fourth, teachers and students can collect teaching/learning materials from internet. In addition, teachers and students can access virtual libraries through internet. Fifth, internet can be used as a mode of communication in distance learning. In particular, teachers and students can use e-mail to send and receive teaching/learning materials. Besides, web cam can be used for face-to-face communication between teachers and students. Sixth, teachers and students can publish their teaching/learning experiences in blogs. Seventh, there are some computer-based examinations in which students can take exams using computers. Besides, computer can calculate correct answers from MCQ Sheet. Eight, IT can be used in education management. For instance, students' results may be published in websites. Besides teachers can store materials in [online] archive and students can access them when necessary.

In the section entitled "IT in Language Leaching (LT)", the author remarks: "Now-a-days teachers are taking increasing interest in the use of information technology (IT) for teaching language (LT), especially English Language Teaching (ELT) in our country as elsewhere in the world" (p. 39). The author points out the following utility of IT in English language teaching. First, computer can be used to detect spelling errors and grammatical errors. It can also differentiate between British and American English. Besides, thesaurus and dictionary installed in the word processor can help in editing texts. Second, CD and DVD can be used in language learning. In particular, CD/DVD [i.e. software] can be used to practice pronunciation. Besides, video materials can be used in Situation Language teaching. In other words, teachers can show real-life conversation from video CD, and can engage

students in simulation as a follow-up activity. Third, non-native students can chat with native speakers in internet using text-chat software.

In the section entitled "Some conceptual issues", the author explains CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning). Citing Levy (1997), the author notes, CALL refers to utilization of computer in language teaching/learning. Apart from CALL, NBLT (Network-Based Language Teaching) [another IT-based system of language teaching] uses computer networks in teaching language. The author notes that language learning theories lend support to CALL and NBLT. For instance, computer can help in learning linguistic structure by offering drill practice, tutorial exploration, and corrective feedback. [Thus, structuralist theory of language learning supports the use of computer in language learning]. Second, computer can offer analytic and inferential tasks which are encouraged by cognitive theories of learning language. Third, computer can demonstrate different contexts of using linguistic expression. Significance of context in using language is propounded by sociological theories [of learning language].

In the section entitled "Bangladesh perspectives", the author identified some challenges in the process of using IT in Bangladesh. First, training opportunity in the use of IT in language teaching is limited in Bangladesh. Second, a large number of students and educational institutions cannot afford the cost of using internet. Third, the attitude of policy makers toward the use of IT in language teaching is not positive. However, the author ends the article with a positive tone: "In Bangladesh, teachers have started to grasp the importance of IT-based education, and are thinking of ways to develop necessary skills to face the challenge of the day—modernizing LT with the maximum utilization of IT and other resources compatible with the technology" (p. 44).

5.21.0 Needs Analysis

5.21.1 In her article, "Analyzing 'Needs' for Designing a Specific English Language Course for Medical Students in Bangladesh", Liza Sharmin (Assistant Professor, Gono Bishwabidyalay) [Sharmin, 2011] discusses the process of needs analysis for ESP course.

In this article, the author explains two types of needs in language education: Target needs and learning needs. Target needs refer to the performative needs of the students in a target situation. On the other hand, learning needs relate to motivation, learning strategies, learning objective, learning style etc. Target needs can be categorized into three groups: Necessities, lacks, and wants. Necessity refers to required knowledge of learners in a target situation. Lack means common errors of students or lack of knowledge in a particular aspect of language. The author investigated lacks of 80 randomly selected students of Gonoshasthaya Somaj Vittik Medical College by examining their writing. The lacks of students involve tense errors, number errors, and incomplete answer. Wants refers to opinions of students about their language skills and needs. The author notes three instances of wants. First, Urmi Barua, an internee doctor of cardiology, was planning to go abroad for higher education. According to the author, Urmi needs to be fluent in speaking English whereas Urmi thinks that she should concentrate on learning grammar because she would take a [grammar] test as a prerequisite to get admission in foreign university. Rajat Bashak, another medical student, thinks that he needs to improve oral proficiency to project himself as a confident person though the author's analysis of Rajat's need indicates that reading skill is more important for him to handle books or journals written in English. Dr. Adnan Chowdhury, a Medical Advisor of a mobile phone company, believes that he speaks good English and does not need to attend any language course. The author points out that this person was recommended to attend spoken English course because his speaking was not accurate [i.e. grammatically correct]. Thus, analysis of wants reveals and resolves anomaly

between students' perceptions and teachers' analysis of needs. Finally, necessities of medical students include using jargons (e.g. pulmonary artery and vein, radiotherapy etc.) while interacting with teacher in the class.

5.21.2 In his article, "Target Needs of English for University Education and English Textbooks up to Class XII: An Evaluation", M. Shahidullah (Professor, Department of English, Rajshahi University) [Shahidullah , 2008] compares quantity of reading required at pre-university and university level, and surveys undergraduate students' proficiency of reading.

To compare amount of reading required and university and pre-university level, the author draw's data from Aminul Haque's (2006) study. Haque's syllabus analysis of 7 institutions (88 departments of 4 public universities and 2 government colleges) reveals that undergraduate students are required to read 18,825 English books (86.52% of total number of books) and graduate students are required to read 8,818 English books (93.28% of total number of books). Undergraduate students are required to read 5,625 pages per year. On the other hand, pre-university students read 500 pages from class I to XII (in twelve years), i.e. they read 42 pages per year.

The author cites Shamima Tasmin's (2001) study to show that students' 'lack' reading proficiency. In a survey study, Tasmin identifies 'huge' lack in the following [sub-skills of] reading: reading literary texts, literary criticism, understanding denotative and connotative meaning, interpreting figurative expressions, making inferences from the text, understanding text organization etc.

Haque's (2006) study indicates that there is no significant difference in the level of reading at pre-university and university education. In other words, book of XI-XII contains

intermediate level English whereas university texts encompass upper intermediate and advanced level English which indicates i+1, i.e. a level that can be easily reached.

In his analysis of sub-skills mentioned in HSC English syllabus, the author points out that the syllabus contains both lower order [i.e. understanding information] and higher-order [i.e. analytical and interpretive] sub-skills which are required at university level. However, teaching and testing at HSC level center around lower order skills. Therefore, students struggle to apply higher-order sub-skills in reading university texts.

The author conducted a survey using close-ended questionnaire among 65 students of 5 faculties (Arts, Science, Business, Social Science, Life and Earth, and Law) of Rajshahi University to identify perceived level of difficulty of reading text and amount of reading in English. Analysis of data suggests that recommended textbooks/references in the selected departments include above 70% English books. Students of Arts, Social Science, and Law faculties reported that their text/reference books are 'difficult' whereas students of Science, Business, Life and Earth reported that their books are 'not so difficult'. Students of all faculties reported that their text/reference books contain many jargons, and long and complex sentences.

Finally, the author recommends that quantity of reading texts should be increased at pre-university level (i.e. upto class XII). Second, pre-university level should cover both EGP and EAP. In particular, class I-VIII (stage 1) should deal with EGP; class IX-X (stage 2) should include 30-40% EAP and 60-70% EGP; and class XI-XII (stage 3) should focus on 60-70% EAP and [30%] EGP. In addition, supplementary texts such as rapid reader may be introduced form class IX to reduce the quantitative reading lack between university and pre-university level.

5.21.3 In her article, "Identifying the English Language Needs Of Humanities Students at Dhaka University", Dr. Tazin Aziz Chaudhury (Assistant Professor, Dept. of English, DU) [Chaudhury, 2009] presents the result of a needs analysis.

The participants of this study include 60 second year students of Arts faculty (Department of History, Philosophy, and Linguistics, academic session: 2006-2007) and 30 subject teachers of these three departments of Dhaka University. The author elicited data using closed-ended questionnaire. The author used SPSS to analyze data. Apart from questionnaire survey, the author observed classes to examine the reliability of data derived through questionnaire survey.

The first question of the questionnaire survey [as presented in the findings section] enquires about the frequency of the use of skills. Analysis of data reveals that the most frequently used skill is 'reading'. The second question asked students about the difficulty they encounter in dealing with different skills. Analysis of data suggests that majority of the students face difficulty in speaking in English. The third question asked students about the significance of different skills in academic success. In response to this question, majority of the students (i.e. 66.7%-96.6%) opined that four skills are important for academic success. However, a significant portion (33.4%) of the students reported that speaking skill is not important for them. In the fourth question, teachers were asked about their perception of students' competence in four skills. 50% teachers reported that students are 'very weak' in writings; and above 70% teachers reported that students are 'weak-very weak' in speaking skill; 70% teachers reported that students' listening skill is 'average'; 50% teachers reported that students' reading skill is 'good' whereas above 45% teachers reported that students' reading skill is 'average'. In response to the fifth question, all the teachers reported that English is a determining factor in the academic success of the students. The sixth question was designed to elicit response from students regarding their perception of their proficiency

in reading sub-skills (e.g. skimming, scanning, guessing meaning from the context, general comprehension etc.). Majority of the students (56.6%-91.7%) reported that their level of proficiency reading sub-skills is 'average'. The seventh question asked students about their perceptions of their writing sub-skills (use of correct syntax, use of appropriate vocabulary, developing idea etc.). Majority of the students (i.e. 58.4%-88.3%) reported that their level of proficiency in writing sub-skills is 'average'. In response to the eighth question, majority of the students (i.e. 71.6%-91.7%) reported that their level of proficiency in listening sub-skills (e.g. understanding lectures, understanding talks in seminars, understanding class discussions etc.) is 'average'. In response to the ninth question, majority of the students (i.e. 56.7%-83.3%) reported that their level of proficiency in speaking sub-skills (e.g. asking/answering questions, expressing opinions, making presentations, taking part in group discussion etc.) is 'average'. Tenth, when asked about the usefulness of the English course, 70%-90% teachers reported that the course was useful in developing reading sub-skills; 73.3%-90% reported that the course was useful in improving writing sub-skills; more than 65% teachers reported that the course was useful in developing listening sub-skills; and 63.4%-86.3% teachers reported that the course was useful in developing speaking sub-skills. Eleventh, majority of the students believe that the English course [they attended] was useful for them. However, some teachers were 'not sure' whether students "learnt language uses" (p. 83) and the "course was useful for students' studies & future career needs" (p. 83). When asked about the difficulty of the course (i.e. materials, task and activities, discussions in the class) 53.3%-65% students reported that the course was 'sometimes' difficult whereas 35%-40% reported that the course was 'often' difficult. However, majority of the teachers (40%-56.7%) opined that "the course was not difficult" (p. 85). This apart, students were asked about the teaching styles [modes] used in the classroom. 60% students reported that 'lecture' was the mode of teaching; 46.7% students reported that teachers arranged group discussion; and 45% reported that teacher

asked question and they answered. When asked about their preference of "teaching style", 85% students preferred group discussion; 75% preferred lecture; 88.3% preferred "teacher asking questions and students answering".

Finally, analysis of data indicates students' weakness [lack of competence] in the following sub-skills: Reading sub-skills: Critical reading, understanding author's attitudes and purpose in a text; writing sub-skills: Use of appropriate vocabulary, organizing a paragraph; listening sub-skills: Understanding seminars, understanding various English accents; speaking sub-skills: Describing process, making presentations. [This article deals with the 'English Foundation Course' offered to students of Humanities Faculty of Dhaka University].

5.22.0 Action Research

5.22.1 In their essay, "Importance of the Practice of Action Research for ELT Professionals in Bangladesh", Shaheda Akter (Lecturer, Department of English, North South University) and Rezina Nazneen Rimi (Lecturer, English Department, Independent University, Bangladesh) [Akter & Rimi, 2007-2011] discuss the process of action research and its implications in Bangladesh.

The authors point out that action research is a descriptive type of research which includes reflective, systematic and critical investigation. In addition, action speech is generally carried out by individual teachers to improve classroom teaching. The authors mention four stages of an action research: planning, action, observing, and reflecting. In planning stage, the teacher recognizes and problematizes a phenomenon. In the action phase, the teachers gathers data pertaining to the problem. In the observation phase, the teacher assigns meaning to collected data and constitutes a hypothesis. In the fourth phase, i.e.

reflection, the teacher applies teaching strategy/technique on the basis of her action research and reflects on the effectiveness of the new technique.

The authors mention some of advantages of action research. First, action research deals with practical or immediate classroom related problems. Second, action research is participatory, i.e. teachers, administration, students, and parents can solve a problem collaboratively through action research. Third, action research empowers teachers [since teachers strive to solve their own problems]. Fourth, finding of action research is tentative, i.e. outcome of an action research is context-specific. Fifth, action research involves critical thinking from the part of the researcher/teacher. Sixth, action research creates opportunities for reflective teaching.

In a small-scale survey, the authors explore the relevance of action research in Bangladesh. The participants of this study include 45 teachers from 6 public and private universities [of Bangladesh] and 4 schools of Dhaka City. The authors elicited data using a closed-ended questionnaire.

Analysis of data reveals that 95% teachers try to solve problems that emerge during teaching in the classroom. Besides, 83% reported that they try to solve their own problems and are not dependent on others. This apart, 65% teachers think that participation in seminars, workshops etc. can help solving classroom problems. However, only 5% reported that their classroom problems are discussed in the seminars and workshops; 57% reported that they can apply techniques explained in the seminars/workshops in their own classrooms; 61% reported that sharing ideas with colleagues may contribute to solving classroom problems.

The authors hold that action research is relevant in the context of Bangladesh because it would benefit students; it is effective in professional development; it is inexpensive to carry

out action research; teacher are interested in exchanging their views or findings or problems with each other "which is one of the important principles of action research" (p. 93).

5.22.2 In his article, "Action Research: Can't it Help an SL/FL Teacher Become an Extended Professional?", Dr. M. Maniruzzaman (Associate Professor & Chairman, Department of English, Jahangirnagar University) [Maniruzzaman, 2004] discusses definition, techniques, and limitations of action research.

The author notes the definition of action research proposed by Carr and Kemmis (1985) who hold that action research a self-reflective investigation intended to improve practices in a particular context. Reviewing definitions of action research as conceptualized by Cohen and Manion (1985), Kemmis and McTaggart (1988), Huberman (1992) and Nunan (1992) the author points out three characteristics of action research. First, action research is undertaken by classroom teacher. Second, action research might be collaborative. Third, data of action research is analyzed using reliable tools (e.g. statistical formula) to solve an [immediate problem].

The author mentions 7 steps of an action research: Initiation (i.e. identification of a problem), preliminary investigation (i.e. collection of data from the classroom), hypothesis formulation [on the basis of data], intervention (i.e. changing the classroom practice and assessing its impact), modification of intervention, dissemination of [findings], and follow-up action (i.e. exploring alternative techniques to solve the problem).

With regard to the selection of topic for action research the author mentions that topics can be teacher-related (e.g. method, teacher-student relationship), syllabus related (e.g. teaching items, content and learners' needs), and learners-related topics (e.g. individual learner differences and learning process, classroom anxiety). Citing Wallace (1998), the author notes the following factors that should be taken into consideration in topic selection:

purpose, topic (i.e. area of investigation), focus (i.e. research question), product (i.e. outcome), mode (i.e. method), timing (i.e. deadline to complete the research), resources [available], and refocusing/fine-tuning (i.e. modification of research question, if necessary).

The author identifies the following limitations that teachers may encounter while conducting action research: lack of expertise on conducting action research, lack of time, lack of administrative support, lack of financial assistance etc. However, the author suggests that the limitations of action research can be transcended by adopting the following measures. First, teachers should be formally trained so that they can conduct action research/ there should be opportunities for teachers to be formally trained on action research. Second, administration should provide financial support. Third, teachers should recognize their responsibilities to carry out action research.

5.22.3 In her study, "Action Research on Spelling: An Overview", Rumana Hossain (Lecturer in English, Jahangirnagar University) [Hossain, 2007-08] explores effectiveness of explicit teaching spelling.

The participants of this study involve 24 Grade-III (English medium) students of St. Margaret's School Dhaka City. This action research was divided into three phases: Pre-test, teaching spelling, and post test. The author used *Radiant Reading Part III* and *Harrap Spelling Book III* to develop lesson plan for teaching spelling. These texts are recommended texts for the students of grade-III. The duration of this study spread over [six] days (in June 2007). On the first day, students took a pre-spelling test. On the second, third, fourth, and fifth day, students were explicitly taught spelling. On the sixth day, students took post-spelling test. The researcher was not the original teacher of the class. She conducted the class for the purpose of this research.

In the article, the author mentions that ability to identify syllables (e.g. care-ful), prefixes (e.g. anti-) and suffixes (e.g. -less) is important in learning spelling. The author notes a method of remembering spelling: LOOK-THINK-COVER-WRITE-CHECK. The phase "LOOK" involves breaking the word into morphemes, and associating these morphemes with other words; the second phase 'THINK' involves anticipating problems/difficulties in spelling the word (e.g. double letters or unpronounced vowels). The third phase "COVER" means imagining the word in the mind's eye, closing eyes. The fourth phase 'WRITE' involves writing the word (without looking at the word). The fifth phase 'CHECK' involves checking whether learning has taken place.

Analysis of scores of pre-spelling test reveals that no student scored 20 (out of 20); 7 students scored between 15-19; 11 students scored 11-14; 3 students scored between 5-9; and 3 students scored below 5. In the post-test, 2 students scored 20 (out of 20); 12 students scored 15-19; 8 students scored 10-14; 2 students scored 5-9; and no student scored below 5. These data indicates that students improved after receiving explicit instruction on spelling.

In the section entitled "Reflection" the author points out that in the pre and post-test most of the spelling mistakes occurred due to the following reasons. First, misidentification of phonic sounds /a/, /e/, and /u/ (e.g. bachelor-bachelar; monument-monemant); second, problems with double vowels (e.g. special-spechal); and third, problems with silent letters (e.g. depot-depo; ridges-riges).

Finally, the author suggests that colored charts, pictures, cartoons, and realia may be used to teach spelling, [because] "learning to spell requires multi-sensory teaching that activates the ear, the mind, the eyes and the hand" (p. 72). In addition, spelling should be explicitly taught in the classroom.

5.23.0 Teaching Young Learners

5.23.1 In her article, "Use of Songs, Rhymes, Games in Teaching English to Young Learners in Bangladesh", Shaheen Ara (Lecturer, CFL (Center for language), BRAC university) [Ara, 2009] discusses effectiveness of songs, rhymes, and games in teaching English to young learners. In addition, she explores existing practice of teaching English to young learners in Bangladesh.

In the section entitled "Ways of getting children involved in learning English" the author points out that music can be used to teach English to young children because enjoy music. Besides, young learners can imitate and remember contents (i.e. vocabulary, expressions) of music easily. Apart from this, chants can be used to teach rhythm, structure, and vocabulary. In short, music can used to teach stress and intonation. Second, rhymes can be used to establish meaningful language learning context. Specifically, action rhymes offer the opportunity to link action with words/expressions. A rhyme repeats words/vocabulary. Therefore, students can mimic linguistic units in a rhyme and remember them naturally. Third, games can ensure students' active participation in an activity. Game is a fun activity which can motivate students. In games, students communicate with each other with a particular purpose. To put it another way, games create a context for interaction. Besides, games may require physical movement. By ensuring physical movement, games may eradicate boredom. Further, games encourage healthy competition.

The author conducted a case study to explore condition of teaching-learning English at primary level in Bangladesh. The author observed 15 primary level English classes of Banani Biddya Niketan and Banani Model School of Dhaka city. The author also interviewed 10 teachers who teach at primary level. These apart, the author examines primary level English textbooks (Grade I-V, 2007) to evaluate teaching/learning materials.

In her discussion on primary level English textbook, the author points out that the textbook does not contain 'interesting' and 'fun activities' (p. 168). In addition, teachers cannot use textbook effectively, because *Teacher's Guide* is not available. Classroom observation data discloses the following facts: (a) teachers used Bangla in the class to give instructions; (b) teachers encouraged memorization; (c) teachers explained grammatical rules to students; (d) 'fun activities' were not organized in the class. Interview data reveals the following facts: (a) teachers are not informed about the process of child language learning; (b) teachers cannot use textbook effectively; (c) teachers are not trained to teach English to young learners; (d) teachers encourage memorization; (e) teachers deduct scores if students make grammatical mistakes in the exam. The author observes: Their [i.e. teachers'] English teaching basically involved completing a syllabus before each exam by encouraging memorization" [p.169]. Further, "there is almost no practice for interesting activities to teach English in children's classes let alone using songs, rhymes and games" [p. 170].

Finally, the author recommends that teachers should be trained to teach English to young learners. Second, English curriculum should encourage teaching young learners using songs, rhymes and games. Third, testing system should not encourage memorization. Fourth, while evaluating students' exam scripts students' creativity should be appreciated. Fifth, English language classes at primary level should be stress-free.

5.23.2 In her article, "Teaching English to Children in a Multilingual Class", Jennifar Jahan (Lecturer, Department of Linguistics, University of Dhaka) [Jahan, 2010] describes some techniques of teaching children/young learners in a multilingual class.

The author elicited data through class observation and interview (both formal and informal). Precisely, the author observed classes of Grade-2, and interviewed teachers of [three] English medium schools of Dhaka city. The author also analyzed teaching materials

of some English medium schools. The purpose of this investigation was to explore teaching methods adopted to teach young learners (6-7 years) of English.

In the section entitled "Research Findings" the author points out that multilingual characteristic of the class motivated students to learn English at a greater speed. Since the students came from different L1 background, students became motivated to learn English to "make new friends" (p. 129). In addition, those students who could not communicate in English were laughed at by their classmates [This fact also accelerated the process acquisition of English]. The author observes: "Overall situation of the young language learners implied that multilingualism worked as a positive factor in teaching" (p. 129).

The author mentions that English medium schools (that the author investigated) use three methods to teach young learners: Task-based learning, CLT, and Total Physical Response. Besides, students' L1 was also used in the class to explain complex grammatical rules of English. Further, gestures and body language (e.g. raising eyebrows, nodding) were used as a means of communication between teachers and non-Bengali students.

5.23.3 In her article, "Problems and Misconceptions Facing the Primary Language Education in Bangladesh: An Analysis of Curriculum and Pedagogic Practices", L. F. Apnan Banu (Institute of Educational Development, BRAC University (IED-BU), Dhaka) [Banu, 2009] discusses problems and prospects of primary level language education (both Bangla and English) in Bangladesh.

The author used the method of participant observation to generate data. The author mentions that she was engaged in an intensive language education development project (i.e. she designed and developed program). Therefore, the author employed naturalistic inquiry method. The period of this study spanned over 4 years. The author notes: "I took a purely phenomenological stance in investigating the reality along with its context" (p. 2).

The author detects problems in 9 areas of language education pedagogy of Bangladesh. The author also offers solutions to these problems. The first area is: "Content focus versus skill focus". The author points out that language pedagogy [at primary level] is concerned with teaching content rather than skill. Therefore, students memorize facts, grammatical rule, and definitions. Eventually, students fail to become efficient users of language. The author observes: "In the realm of a content-driver pedagogy, teachers find themselves under greater pressure to cover all the lessons of the textbooks" (p. 2). As an alternative, the author suggests that teachers may select "fewer lessons" to teach linguistic skills. In addition, the author indicates that textbook should be viewed as a mediator for learning rather than a storehouse of knowledge. The second area is: "Correctness & accuracy versus meaning and communication". The author points out that language teaching in the classroom involves hand-writing drills, discrete vocabulary lessons, and grammar drills. In other words, the teaching-learning process is mechanical and decontextualized. Language teaching in the classroom does not encourage communication, reflection, and imagination. In addition, students receive negative feedback if they make mechanical mistakes (e.g. grammar, spilling). As a solution to this problem, the author recommends that language learning activities should address social, cultural, and emotional needs of the students. Besides, language teaching should focus on meaning nether than form. The third area is: "Comprehension, reflection and creativity". The author notes that pedagogies practices ignore comprehension, reflection, and creativity, and emphasize on reproduction of knowledge (i.e. contents of the textbook). In addition, teachers do not accept alternative answers generated by students. The author suggests that students should be allowed to use higher order cognitive skills while responding to a particular text. In addition, teachers should accept multiple interpretations of texts. The fourth area is: "Scarcity of appropriate materials and strategies". The author notes that material developers/textbook writers do not

consult with teachers and students while selecting contents or designing materials. [Consequently,] the textbook cannot appropriately address the level of the students. As an illustration, the difficulty level of "Shokher Mritshilpo" in 'Grade V' Bangla textbook is high. The theme, vocabulary, and length of this text is not appropriate for the students of Grade V. The author suggests that the textbook should be designed considering linguistic proficiency of the students. The fifth area is: "The textbook culture versus the use of multi or hypermedia". The author notes that teachers heavily depend on textbook to teach language. In other words, they do not use supplementary materials. Besides, "The NCTB textbooks mostly illustrate urban settings, characters and examples marginalizing the rural population" (p. 6). The author points out that in the English textbook of Grade V, settings such as shopping mall, library, apartments etc. have been used to teach ordinal numbers. The author recommends that supplementary materials can be created from local posters and leaflets. In addition, concrete objects [realia], chants, cultural themes etc. can be utilized to engage students in meaningful interaction. The sixth area is: "The pedagogy and instructional culture". The author observes that the language teaching pedagogy in Bangladesh is didactic and lecture oriented. Language classrooms do not involve discussion, dialogue, debate, or negotiation of meaning. The author suggests that teachers should help students to become autonomous life-long learners and critical thinkers. The seventh area is: "Assessment strategies for assessing skills". The author notes that the evaluation system tests content knowledge rather than linguistic skills. Besides, teachers are not provided with any assessment criteria. The eighth area is: "Teacher training curriculum and methods". The author indicates that teachers are not regularly informed about the changes in curriculum. The author suggests that teachers should be given opportunities to receive short-term and long-term training. The ninth area is: "Policy-practice fragmentation". The author notes that teachers and students are not involved in the process of developing curriculum. The author

writes: "All good policy intentions are there at the center in isolation" (p. 8). The author pedagogic policy should address the problems of the stakeholders. In addition, the author argues: "A minimum level of flexibility to adopt a range of effective instructional strategies aiming for 'fitness of purpose' and 'fitness of context' rather than a one-size, non-differentiated instructional prescription could improve the total educational scenario" (p. 8).

5.23.4 In her article, "An Evaluation of English Language Teaching at the Beginner's Level in Bangladesh From the Psycholinguistic Point of View", Iffat A.N. Majid (Associate Professor, Department of English, Institute of Modern Languages, University of Dhaka) [Majid, 2009] investigates teaching- learning condition of ELT at primary level in Bangladesh.

The participants of this study include 2 junior section teachers of 2 English medium schools; students' guardians of 3 Bangla-medium primary schools and 3 English-medium primary schools; 3 primary-level private tutors; 2 teachers from Bangla-medium primary schools (one from rural area and the other from urban area); and 1 primary-level Madrasa teacher.

The participants of this study informed that the class of English-medium schools generally consists of 20-25 students whereas the class of Bangla-medium schools (both rural and urban) and Madrasas generally contain 60-100 students. Second, the starting age for learning English at English-medium schools is 3+ (playgroup). The starting age for learning English in Bangla-medium primary schools is 6. The starting age for learning English in Madrasa ranges across 3-8 years. Third, [English language] teaching methodology in English-medium schools and Bangla-medium schools is different. In English medium schools, students "learn through playing" (p. 116). Teachers involve students in drawing, coloring, learning names of objects, numbers etc. Teachers sometimes use 'foreigner talk'

while interacting with students. Picture books are used to teach reading and writing numbers. Students learn articles, plural markers (at the age of 6+) by using them in context (e.g. this is a book). In other words, teachers avoid formal teaching of grammatical rules. In addition, teachers focus on meaning while teaching English. Besides, teachers give instructions in English (e.g. 'come here', 'don't talk') and encourage students to reply to teacher in English. Since class size in English-medium schools is small, teachers can pay attention to individual students, and can provide feedback on students' work.

In Bangla-medium primary schools, alphabet charts containing pictures are used in teaching English language. Teachers read aloud alphabet/words and students imitate the teacher. Sometimes, teachers assign comparatively advanced students to conduct the drill. One private tutor reported that a student of a Bangla-medium school encountered problem in copying text from the board since his writing speed was slow, but "the teachers was not bothered about checking if all the learners could manage copying from the blackboard" (p. 117). The guardian [of this student] made an attempt to communicate with the teacher, "but the teacher was not approachable at all" (p. 117). The author notes that some renowned private [primary] schools begin with teaching simple sentences, grammar (e.g. singular/plural, gender). These schools sometimes use grammar translation method. The students of these schools belong to post-beginner level. These students entered school after learning alphabets and some words. The author notes that students of private school receive additional support in [learning English] from private tutors. The author writes: "In any case, irrespective of whether the school is located in the rural or urban area, any kind of meaningful interaction in English is totally absent in Bengali-medium primary level English class" (p. 118).

The guardians and parents were asked about the right starting age of learning English. Most of the guardians opined that Grade I is the right age for introducing English. These

respondents believe that students learn foreign language faster at an early age. However, the author suggests that policy-makers should 'rethink' about the introduction of English at primary level taking [poor] logistic support and [low] quality of primary English teachers into account.

5.23.5 In his article, "Teaching English in the Primary School: Challenges and Options", Manzoor Ahmed (Director, Institute of Education and Development, BRAC University (BU-IED), Dhaka) [Ahmed, 2005] discusses problems and possibilities of teaching English at primary level in Bangladesh.

The author discusses the following five problems of primary English education in Bangladesh. First, though Bangladesh historically inherited English, introduction of Bangla in tertiary education in the 1970s led to the marginalization of English language. Second, outcome of teaching English at elementary level in Bangladesh is unsatisfactory for the following reasons: lack of proficient English language teachers, inappropriate teaching methodology, lack of instructional materials etc. Third, the author indicates that Bangla and English language do not receive equal importance in primary education of Bangladesh. Fourth, citing *Education Watch Report Vol. 1, 2000*, the author points out that less than 10% primary students attain proficiency in reading, writing, and listening in English. In addition, the author identifies the following problems of primary education: large class size, absence of sufficient contact hours, and lack of learning aid. Fifth, primary English education has failed to address the objectives of primary English curriculum (i.e. teaching four skills).

The author makes the following recommendations to improve the condition of primary English education in Bangladesh. First, primary education should emphasize on teaching mother tongue of the students. In this context, the author quotes Tagore: "The foundation of Bangla language should be laid first and then the launching of learning

English" (p. 17). Second, English language should receive attention in secondary education.
Third, educational institutions should adopt bilingual approach.

5.23.6 In his article, "Teaching English in Primary Schools: Pros And Cons", Harunur Rashid
Khan (Assistant Professor of English, East West University, Dhaka) [Khan, 2005] discusses
the condition of primary English education in Bangladesh.

The author records the following scenario of English teaching at primary level. Citing
Statistical Pocketbook Bangladesh (2003), the author notes that there are 90,000 primary
schools in Bangladesh. These schools contain 17 million (approximately) students and
2,64,177 teacher. Besides, teacher-student ratio at primary level is 1:56. The author notes
the following problems of primary English education in Bangladesh. First, referring to
Unicef's 1995 data, the author records that 84% primary level teachers are underqualified
(i.e. these teachers only completed SSC or HSC level education). Second, citing Bambar
(1999), the author records that 87,000 non-government primary level teachers did not receive
[in-service] training. Third, citing Bamber (1999), the author indicates that primary teachers
lack English proficiency, teaching skills, and motivation. Fourth, the author points out that
ELT projects in Bangladesh are "short-term necessity based rather than long-term policy
oriented" (p. 26).

The author suggests that age of introducing English is a contentious issue in
Bangladesh. In this context, the author refers to Phillipson's "early start fallacy" and
"maximum exposure fallacy". In other words, the author maintains that early start is
pedagogically and linguistically unsound. The author suggests introduction of English from
Grade 3. The author notes: "It would be better to introduce English from class 3 where more
qualified and trained English teachers can be engaged and then learning output will perhaps

better. Many countries (Indonesia, Vietnam, Russia and Thailand) have introduced English at secondary schools and are gaining better results" (p. 28).

The author investigates the perceptions of "more than 10" senior English professors regarding "early start". In an informal conversations, the professors pointed out both advantages and disadvantages of early start. The professors indicate that early start is better because children can learn language subconsciously. In addition, language learning can be a fun for children [i.e. children learn language effortlessly]. On the other hand, the professors indicate that late start is better because learning additional language may be a burden for children. In addition, secondary students might be more motivated in learning English in comparison with primary children. However, the author argues for bilingual policy in Bangladesh. The author writes: "It is obvious that there should be realistic policy interventions and detailed guidelines in order to form an effective system toward a meaningful bilingualism; its successful implementation can only yield satisfactory performance" (p. 31).

5.23.7 In their essay, "Teaching Paragraph Writing to Primary Level Learners", Begum Shahnaz Sinha and Tasneem Siraj Mahboob (both are Associate Professor, Department of English, University of Dhaka) [Sinha & Mahboob, 2010] describe techniques of teaching paragraph writing to primary level EFL students.

The author remarks that writings skill of tertiary level students is not satisfactory. According to the authors, students were not taught paragraph writing at primary level; therefore, students cannot write "well-structured paragraph which has a clear topic sentence with a logical development" (p. 38). In order to identify [existing] techniques of teaching paragraph at primary level, the authors interviewed students (from primary to tertiary level), guardians and teachers.

The authors interviewed 25 first year students of undergraduate level. The students informed the authors that their teachers did not explain them the components of a paragraph. The teachers used to aske them to write 10-12 sentences on a particular topic (e.g. My Pet, Natural Animal etc.). Teachers [at primary level] never discussed the concept of topic sentence or supporting details of a paragraph. Teachers were only concerned about grammatical correctness. In addition, teachers supplied students a list of paragraphs to be memorized for exam. Teachers also "explicitly instructed" students to get the paragraphs written by someone else.

The authors describe two approaches to teaching writing: Product approach and process approach. The authors argue that process approach should be adopted to teach writing paragraphs to primary level students. The authors mention the following stages of process approach to writing: Generating ideas/brainstorming, extending ideas, organizing ideal, writing first draft, exchanging drafts to receive peer feedback, revising drafts on the basis of feedback [of teachers and peers], writing final draft, and receiving feedback from the teachers.

The authors propose a process of teaching a paragraph on 'Our National Animal'. The authors suggests that a teachers can begin by asking some question on the national animal of Bangladesh (i.e. Tiger) (e.g. Do you know what our national animal is? What does it look like etc.). Second, the teacher can write some key words/phrases on the board related to tiger (e.g. 'ferocious', 'sharp teeth', 'man eater' etc.). Third, the teachers can design a mind map linking different concepts with the topic (e.g. characteristics, appearance, habitat etc. can be include in a mind map). Fourth, Students can be asked to construct sentence using words mentioned in the mind map (e.g. "The Royal Bengal Tiger is our national animal"; "It is found in Sunderbans; "It has black strips"; "Its colour is yellow" etc.). Fifth, students can be asked to choose a topic sentence. Sixth, the teacher should discuss "supporting details" of

a paragraph. Seventh, the teacher should explain the use of cohesive devices. Finally, the teacher should concentrate on teaching the technique of writing a concluding sentence. The authors remark: "Thus before writing the whole product ...we suggest starting from the basics that is words or vocabulary" (p. 46).

5.24.0 Miscellaneous

5.24.1 In his essay, "An In-Depth Comparative Study of British English and American English", Mohammad Shafiqul Islam (Lecturer, department of English, Metropolitan University, Sylhet, Bangladesh) [Islam, 2007] explores similarities and difference between British English and American English.

Differences between British and American English can be observed in the following areas. First, the use of present perfect tense is different in British and American English: for instance, "I have lost my diary. Can you help me look for it?" is a British expression; on the contrary, "I lost my diary. Can you help me look for it?" is an American expression. Second, the past participle of 'get' is 'gotten' in American English and 'got' in British English. Third, British English attaches suffix 's' with 'ward': forwards, towards, rightwards etc. whereas American English does not add 's' in such cases (e.g. forward, toward, rightward etc.) Fourth, some differences in vocabulary can be found in British and American English. For instance, 'railway' is British English; equivalent American English is 'railroads'. Similarly, 'autumn' is British English and 'fall' is American English; 'mobile phone' is British English and 'cellular phone' is American English. Fifth, 'Merry Christmas' is American English and 'Happy Christmas' is British English. Sixth, syntactically, "I'll go take a bath" is American expression whereas "I'll go and have a bath" is usually a British expression. Seventh, British English does not use dot after the following words: 'Mr', 'Mrs', 'Dr' etc. whereas American English uses dot (e.g. "Mr.", "Mrs.", "Dr." etc. Eighth, there are some differences in

pronunciation between British and American English. For instance, in British English 'dot' is pronounced as /dɒt/ whereas in American English it is /dɑːt/. Likewise, 'farm' is /faːm/ in British English and /fɑːrm/ in American English.

There are some similarities between British and American English. First, both British and American English use 'have' or 'have got' as possessive (e.g. she has a beautiful new car/she has got a beautiful new car). Second, both British and American English use "Merry Christmas" in greetings. Third, both British and American English use the word 'zero' and 'oh' for numeral '0'. Fourth, both British and American English accept two forms of past participle for the following words: Burn: burnt/burned; dream: dreamt/dreamed; learn: learnt/learned etc. Finally, the author holds that consistency should be maintained in using British or American English.

5.24.2 In his survey study, "EFL Learners' Beliefs About Language Learning: A Study of University Students in Sylhet", Md. Jakaria Habib (Assistant Professor & Coordinator, Dept. of English, Sylhet International University, Sylhet [Habib, 2008] investigates beliefs of undergraduate students about learning English.

The participants of his study include 50 fresh students of Business Administration, Law, Computer Science & Engineering, and English discipline from 5 public and private universities of Sylhet. The author elicited data using Horwitz's (1987) "Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI)" [a structured questionnaire].

Findings of the study are divided into five parts. The first part concerns beliefs about language learning appetite. In response to questions on "language learning appetite", 80% respondents opined that learning foreign language is easier for children than adults; 80% believes that some people have special ability for learning foreign languages; 28% thinks that

they have special ability for learning English which indicates that most of the students are not confident about their ability to learn English; 30 students out of 50 believe that everyone can learn to speak a foreign language. The second part of the questionnaire concerns difficulties of language learning. In this case, 80% participants believe that there are some foreign languages which are easy to learn. In this context, 55% believes that the difficulty of learning English is medium. In addition, 78% students believe that they would learn to speak English very well. The third part of the questionnaire concerns the "nature of language learning". In response to the questions on the nature of language learning, respondents reported about their belief. In particular, 72% participants believe that it is necessary to learn about English speaking cultures [while learning to speak] English; 62% believes that English-speaking country is the best place to learn English; 76% believes that vocabulary learning is the most significant aspect of foreign language learning; 46% believes that grammar is the most important part of language learning whereas 38% negated this idea; and 60% learners believe that translation is not a useful language learning strategy. The fourth part of the questionnaire concern beliefs about "learning and communication strategy". In response to the questions of this part, 86% students reported that "excellent pronunciation" is significant in speaking English; 54% responded that one may try to guess the meaning of a word; 56% opposes the idea that one must always speak correct English. The fifth part of the questionnaire concerns beliefs about motivation. In response to the questions related to motivation, 94% reported that they would get good job if they learn English; 34 respondents out 50 reported that they want to learn English to know about English people; and 38 out of 50 reported that they want to learn English to have English friends.

The author recommends that students should be motivated in the class to learn English. Second, CLT approach should be applied in the classroom. Third, lessons on English culture should be incorporated in the syllabus.

5.24.3 In his essay, "First Language Acquisition and its Theories", Mohammod Moninoor Roshid (Lecturer, department of education, Darul Ihsan University) [Roshid, 2005] discusses seven theories of first language acquisition.

In his discussion of Vygotsky's zone of proximal development, the author notes that Vygotsky puts emphasis on social interaction in language acquisition. Zone of Proximal Development is the gap between actual level of development and potential level of development. A second theory of language acquisition is "Skinner's Verbal Behavior". Theory of verbal behavior is an extended version of Skinner's operant conditioning theory of learning which assumes that reinforcement determines learning. In the context of language acquisition, positive reinforcement for correct imitation of language [correct utterance] accelerates learning. A third theory of language acquisition is derived from Piaget's view of psychological development. In Piaget's theory of intellectual development, language acquisition is placed in the third stage, i.e. concrete operational stage. Piaget believes that social interaction is essential for language acquisition. A fourth theory of language acquisition is "Cognitive Theory". Cognitive theory stresses on the significance of meaning and understanding. According to cognitive theory, language acquisition entails understanding language system (i.e. vocabulary, grammatical rules etc.). A fifth theory of language acquisition is "Discourse Theory". This theory emphasizes on discovering rules of interaction through communication. Del Hymes' notion of 'communication competence' [appropriacy, feasibility, formality, performance] encompasses principles of discourse theory. A sixth theory of language acquisition is "The Speech Act Theory". Speech Act Theory distinguishes between 'propositional meaning' and 'illocutionary meaning'. 'Propositional meaning' refers to literal meaning of an utterance whereas 'illocutionary meaning' refers to intended meaning. Speakers of a language develop understanding of these meanings. A seventh theory of language acquisition is "Universal Grammar Theory". This theory assumes

that humans are genetically equipped with LAD (Language Acquisition Device) to acquire language. The author indicates that UG Theory does not believe in the effectiveness of formal input [instruction] in language teaching/acquisition.

Finally, the author argues that "applied linguists, methodologists and language teachers should view the acquisition of a language not only as a matter of nurture but also as an instance of nature" (p.74). In addition, explorations in the field of "educational psycholinguistics" should be emphasized to improve syllabus and methodology of teaching language.

5.24.4 In his essay, "The Problems of English Studies in Bangladesh", Syed Manzoorul Islam (Professor, Department of English, University of Dhaka) [Islam, 2008] discusses challenges, problems, and prospects of English studies in Bangladesh.

The author identifies the following issues as central in the discussion of the condition of English studies in Bangladesh. First, the growth of ELT industry; second, incorporation of theory, media studies, and cultural studies into English discipline; third, faulty admission system; fourth, low quality academic publications; fifth, absence of theory, cultural studies, and linguistics in colleges; and sixth, emergence of cyber English or postmodern English. Besides, the author specifically points out that English department of Dhaka University is showing the symptoms of decline due to the influence of linguistics stream. In addition, theory and texts from 'other Englishes' are replacing canonical texts. According to the author, survival of English Studies depends on dealing with the following questions: emergence of theory/cultural studies; market value of linguistics and language studies; availability of new technology; and pedagogic problems.

The author enlists a number of possible innovations to maintain the status of English discipline. First, class size should be reduced; second, though theory such as new historicism and postmodernism are significant for political purposes, they should be used as apparatus for interpretation, rather than academic obfuscation. Third, there should be a combination of canonical text as well as texts form 'other Englishes'. Fourth, there should be two separate disciplines for literature and language studies. Fifth, a useful methodology for teaching and learning English has to be devised.

5.24.5 In her article, "The Role of English in a Bilingual Academic Context", Shayla Nahar Ahmad (Assistant Professor, Department of English, Dhaka University) [Ahmad, 2007-2011] investigates rate of publication in English and other languages, and the process of writing and publishing.

The author collected data from two faculties of Dhaka University: Faculty of Arts (History, Philosophy, Islamic Studies, English, Islamic History and Culture, Mass Communication and Journalism) and Faculty of Business Studies (Accounting and Information Studies, Marketing, Management Studies). The informants of this study include 24 teachers (20 males, 4 females) from the selected faculties of Dhaka University. The author elicited data using a questionnaire (containing both open-ended and closed-ended questions).

Analysis of data suggests that "very few" (p. 105) participants of this study published articles in Bangla language. Majority of the teachers of Business Studies faculty presented in conferences in English; on the contrary, majority of the teachers of Arts Faculty presented in Bangla in conferences. Apart from Bangla and English language, one teacher of Arts Faculty wrote articles in Arabic and Urdu and another one wrote in German. Besides, 1 respondent

of Business Faculty wrote article in Japanese. In discussion with colleagues in the department, majority of the respondents reported that they use both Bangla and English, and from the discussion, they gain insight about theoretical ides or methods. A large number of teachers of Arts Faculty reported that they use German, Arabic and Persian language as reference whereas only 1 respondent of Business Faculty reported that they respondent uses Japanese language. Besides,10 respondents out of 12 in Business Faculty and 5 out of 12 in Arts faculty reported that they do not get their articles (drafts) edited from English language exports. 6 out of 12 respondents in Business Faculty and 8 out of 12 respondents of Arts Faculty reported that they "try to produce a final draft" (p. 112) with linguistic accuracy [as they start writing]. As writing aids, teachers of both faculties use bilingual and monolingual dictionary and guidelines from the publishers. When asked about the thought process, majority of the respondents in both Arts and Business Studies Faculty reported that they formulate thoughts [idea] using both Bangla and English language. In response to the question about difficulty in writing articles in English, respondents of Business Studies faculty reported that 'hitting the night tone in the text' and 'finding the right words for the concepts' are difficult for them. In addition, teachers of both faculties identified 'vocabulary' as their major problem in writing. Data indicates that rate of refection of articles by the journals is low and majority of the respondents of both Arts and Business Studies Faculties were not asked by the journals to revise their articles. In both the Faculties, English appears to be the dominant language of publication. However, in case of book publications, teachers write in both Bangla and English. The author categorically mentions the use of language in different departments: English only: English, Finance and Banking; Bengali mostly: Islamic studies; Multilingual: Accounting and Information System, Marketing, Management Studies, Philosophy, Islamic History, Mass Communication and Journalism. Majority of the respondents do not have any international publications and the objective of publishing articles

for them is to enter a particular discourse community. Faculty of Business mostly publish in English because they intend to address international community whereas Faculty of Arts intend to address both local and international community. Therefore, they publish in both English and Bangla. Difficulties encountered by respondents of Arts and Business Studies Faculty include use of vocabulary, setting a tone, and rhetorical organization of article. Finally, on the basis of these data the author remarks that Bangladeshi academics do not "face any major difficulty while writing in English" (p. 128).

5.24.6 In her case study, "Investigation of a Learner's Second Language Development: A Case Study", Geetanjali Barua (Assistant Professor of English, Govt. Teachers' Training College, Dhaka) [Barua, 2012] investigates development of L2 (English) proficiency of a Chinese student.

The author analyzes linguistic proficiency of David, a Chinese student of Computer Science at University of Sydney. Medium of instruction for David was Chinese; however, he studied English as a compulsory subject from secondary level. David has been in Australia for 6 months when he participated in the study. The author conducted an open-ended interview for half an hour to generate data for this study. The author audiorecorded the conversation with David.

In her analysis of data the author maintains that [in certain cases] David demonstrated "native-like communicative competency" (p. 69). For instance, in response to the question "How long you've been in Australia", David replied "Half year", though a foreign language learner (who was taught through grammar-based method) is expected to utter "I've been in Australia for half a year". In addition, David shows discourse level communication strategies (e.g. "May I ask you some questions now? Because it's my turn"), clarification strategies

(e.g. "language is the practical…it is for use…it is tool), and repair strategy (e.g. "This method is not very success…successful").

However, David shows lack of competence in using lexis and correct grammatical form. In particular, he takes long time to search for appropriate words. In addition , his language contains the following grammatical errors: tense (e.g. "I start learning English 15 year's [sic.] ego [sic.]"), irregularities in the use of number (e.g. "I visit many many country"), syntactic errors (e.g. "I almost all of them visit"), omission of copula and auxiliaries (e.g. "you already the higher level …"), pronunciation errors (e.g. 'hav' instead of 'half'); other phonological problems include overuse of stress and lack of intonation.

The author explains David's errors (for instance, tense marker, use of plural, word order [syntax], use of preposition) as L1 transfer. Besides, Chinese students find it difficult to pronounce /θ/ and /ð/ which result in omission of 'ed' as past tense marker. Beside, stress is not significant for meaningful communication in Chinese language. The author remarks that the learners did not successfully 'acculturate' with the TL community to improve communicative competence.

The author concludes that David "couldn't develop L2 as much as a learner in TL environment after 15 years of using English. Conscious learning effort cannot help him other than to create over sensitivity towards 'errors'" (p. 76).

5.24.7 In his study, "Avoidance Behavior in EFL Learning: A Study of Undergraduates", Dr. M. Maniruzzaman (Associate Professor & Chairman, Department of English, Jahangirnagar University) [Maniruzzaman, 2005] investigates adoption of avoidance behavior, cause of avoidance behavior and effects of avoidance behavior on learning English.

The participants of this study include 75 Bengali speaking EFL students of English department (undergraduate level) of Jahangirnagar University. The author elicited data through questionnaire and interview. The author notes that the term "avoidance behavior" was developed by Schachter (1974). Citing Kleimann (1977, 1978) the author writes: "avoidance behavior is a strategy that the L2 learner may resort to when, with the knowledge of a target language word or structure, he/she perceives that it is difficult to produce" (p. 171).

Analysis of data shows that while speaking English 97.25% avoids using some words, 95.50% avoids using structures including relative clauses, passive, present progressive, infinitive complement, and 97.75% avoids using idioms and phrasal verbs. As reasons of avoidance, 94.50% reported that they "avoid using some words in speaking due to difficulty in pronunciation"; 88.50% "avoid using some words in speaking due to difficulty in use"; and 63% "avoid using some structures in speaking as they are absent from [their] L1". As consequences of avoidance, 84.25% reported that "avoidance of words hamper[s] fluency and spontaneity of... speaking"; 93.25% reported that "avoidance of structures hamper[s] fluency and spontaneity of...speaking"; and 72.75% reported that "avoidance of idioms and phrasal verbs hamper fluency and spontaneity of...speaking"

In response to questions related to writing, 89.25% reported that they avoid using some words in writing; 90.45% avoids using structures including relative clauses, passive, present progressive, infinitive complement; 85.50% avoids using some idioms and phrasal verbs. As causes of avoidance, 74.25% reported that they "avoid using some words and sentence structures...due to difficulty in use" and 69.25% reported that they "avoid using some sentence structures...as they are absent from [their] L1". As consequence of avoidance, 78.25% reported that "avoidance of structures reduce [their] ability and hamper

spontaneity of writing"; 73% reported that "avoidance of words reduce [their] ability and hamper spontaneity of…writing"; and 68.50% reported that "avoidance of idioms and phrasal verbs reduce [their] ability and hamper spontaneity of writing". Besides, 82.25% reported that they "avoid using some sentence structures in speaking due to difficulty".

Interview data reveals that 91% students avoid words, idioms, phrasal verbs and sentence structure in speaking and writing. 87.25% reported that they adopt avoidance strategy due to difficulty of these linguistic items. 83% reported that use of avoidance strategy negatively influence language learning and performance.

Finally, the author recommends that vocabulary items and sentence structure should be taught according to the needs of the students. Second, teachers should discuss similarities and dissimilarities between L1 and L2. Third, teachers should decrease debilitating anxiety of the students and develop self-confidence of the students.

[I have frequently used quotations in this article to maintain objectivity of the data presented by the author. In summarizing findings, I did not want to change the wording of the author that he used in the questionnaire. Therefore, many quotations appear in the summary of this article. Precisely, I did not paraphrase the content of the questionnaire to keep the conceptual implications of the words used in the questionnaire intact. There was a risk of changing the meaning of the words of the questionnaire if I paraphrased them].

5.24.8 In her essay, "The Spread of English: Linguistic Features of American English", Rubina Khan (Assistant Professor, Department of English, Dhaka University) [Khan, 1999-2000] discusses causes of spread of English and differences between British and American English.

In the section entitled "Reasons behind the spread of English", citing Quirk (1988) the author notes that three models can be used to explain the spread of English: Demographic model, econo-cultural model, and imperial model. Demographic model refers to the "mobility of population" (p. 21). In other words, migration of English speaking people to different parts of the world contributed to the spread of English. The econo-cultural model views the spread the spread of English as a consequence of international [intercultural] communication and international trade among nations. The imperial model means spread of English due to colonial occupation of British Empire.

The author points out the differences between British and American English in the following linguistic categories: pronunciation, spelling, vocabulary, and grammar. In her discussion of pronunciation, the author notes that British English pronounce the following words with /ɑ:/ phoneme: after, ask, fast, whereas American English use /æ/ phoneme in this case. In her discussion of spelling, the author points out that 'centre' is British spelling whereas 'center' is American. The author shows the following differences of vocabulary in British and American English: Candy (American English) - sweet (British English); gas (American English) - petrol (British English). In the section entitled "grammar", the author discusses verb, auxiliaries, adjectives, prepositions, and articles. In particular, American English uses the verb 'gotten' to mean 'obtain' or 'acquire' whereas British English does not use 'gotten' (e.g. American English: 'I wish we had gotten a new computer'; BE: 'I wish we had got a new computer'). There are differences in the use of modal auxiliary 'should' or 'would' between BE and AE. For instance, AE use 'would' in some cases whereas BE use 'should' (e.g. BE: "I should enjoy living here if I had the money"; AE: "I would enjoy living here if I had the money"). BE and AE use adjectives differently. For instance, BE uses 'different from' (e.g. "This is different from what I expected") whereas AE uses 'different than' (e.g. "This is different than what I expected"). The use of preposition differs between

BE and AE. For instance, AE uses 'over' as a temporal marker whereas BE uses 'at' as a temporal marker (e.g. AE: "What are you doing over Easter?"; BE: "What are you doing at Easter?"). The use of articles is different in British and American English. For instance, American English attach 'the' to the phrase 'next day' (e.g. "The next day the goods arrived") whereas BE does not use 'the' with the phrase 'next day' (e.g. "I saw her next day").

5.24.9 In his article, "Is Applied Linguistics Linguistics-Applied? A Critique of Recent Literature", Manmay Zafar (Lecturer, Department of English, University of Dhaka) [Zafar, 2001-2002] documents the debate surrounding scope and status of applied linguistics.

Referring to Grabe & Kaplan (1992) and Strevens [1989, 1992], the author notes that initially, that is, in the 1950s 'applied linguistics' applied linguistic theories to solve problems related to language teaching-learning; in that period, applied linguistics was 'linguistics applied'. However, gradually applied linguistics emerged as an independent and interdisciplinary field. British academia, American economic power and significance of English around the world contributed to enliven the status of applied linguistics as a separate discipline.

Citing Grabe and Kaplan (1992), the author mentions that the definition of applied linguistics is contentious. In particular, the definition is contingent on the professional identity of the persons who define it. For instance, R.L. Trask (1999) and P.H Matthews (1997) [linguists] in their definition of 'applied linguistics' emphasize on the application of [only or mainly] linguistic theories. Newmeyer (1983), [an applied linguist], contends that applied linguistics can function "without drawing, even vaguely, on what is considered to be 'linguistics'" (p. 139).

The author cites Markee (1990) detects 'strong' and 'weak' definitions of applied linguistics. 'Strong definition' of applied linguistics rigidly connects 'linguistics' with applied linguistics limiting the scope of applied linguistics. On the contrary, 'weak definition' of applied linguistics allows flexibility in the discipline of applied linguistics and accepts borrowings from different disciplines.

Finally, the author suggests that applied linguistics can receive insights from linguistics, psychology, education, management, sociology, ethnography or language planning to deal with language pedagogy related problems.

5.24.10 In their article, "MI in Action: Exploring the Possibilities", Nazia Hussain and Mohammad Mahmudul Haque (authors are Lecturer, Department of English, BRAC University, Dhaka, Bangladesh) [Hussain & Haque, 2007-08] describe the effectiveness MI theory in teaching English language.

The authors extracted data from the case study of a trainee teacher. This trainee teacher designed her lesson plan using MI theory to teach English language to fourth grade English medium students of a school located in Dhaka city. The class consisted of 50 students (age of students: 10-11, upper intermediate level). The trainee teacher took classes for 12 weeks (3 classes each week, each class spreading over 45 minutes). In order to examine the implications of MI theory in Bangladesh, the author examined the internship report of this trainee teacher. The authors also conducted a semi-structured interview to elicit data from the trainee teacher and the supervisor of the trainee teacher.

The authors point out that the trainee teacher designed the following activities to incorporate Multiple Intelligence. Lectures, reading activity, story writing, and debates were included to address 'linguistic intelligence'. Language tasks that were designed taking

materials from students' science and math books address 'logical/mathematical intelligence'. Pictures, charts, graphs, maps etc. address 'spatial intelligence'. Songs, poems etc. are included to address 'musical intelligence'. Mime and role-play have been included to address 'bodily/kinesthetic intelligence'. Peer teaching, group work, pair work have been included to address interpersonal intelligence. Journal writing and individual work have been included to address 'intrapersonal intelligence'. Besides, some activities designed by the trainee teacher covered more than one intelligence. For instance, in one task, students were required to write a response to a song [group task]. This task engages linguistic, musical, and interpersonal intelligence of the students.

The outcome of teaching the students using MI theory appeared to be positive. Particularly, students showed increased level of intrinsic motivation. In addition, students enjoyed the class and they "were relaxed in the class" (p. 154). Further, writing skills of the students developed significantly in the end of this teaching program. The students, who were previously marked as 'unmotivated', became motivated and managed to improve composition skills. They demonstrated their improvement by obtaining good marks in the final exam.

Finally, the authors suggest that teachers should design lessons to activate multiple intelligences of the students. Besides, teachers should be trained so that they can develop lessons using MI theory.

5.24.11 In the essay, "Relevance of General Semantics Premises in ELT Pedagogy", Vellikkeel Raghavan (Assistant Professor, Department o English, Central University of Kerala, India) [Raghavan, 2009-10] discusses four Aristotelian fallacies in Indo-European languages, and their implications in ELT pedagogy.

The author notes that Alfred Korzybski, a Polish thinker, introduced the notion of General Semantics [GS has very little to do with the linguistic subfield which is generally labeled as semantics" (pp. 141-142)] to contest the following Aristotelian fallacies of Indo-European language: (a) the *is of identity* or the *is of prediction*, (b) elementalism, (c) two-valued propositions, and (d) ignorance of abstraction . The author explicates these fallacies in the context of English language. First, the *is of identity* directly compares two objects. In this case, 'to be' verb such as 'is', 'are', 'am'—are used. For instance, the statement "Siddharthsangeet is a teacher" conceals Siddharthsangeet's multiple identity. The author points out that this process is an "unconscious reductionism" (p. 143). To avoid this reductionism, the author suggests reformulating the sentence in the following way: "Professionally, Siddharthsangeet is a teacher". The second Aristotelian fallacy in English language is 'elementalism' which refers to dichotomous perception of entities. In other words, 'elementalism' leads to disintegration of inseparable entities (e.g. emotion –intellect, economics-political, and thought-feeling etc.). The author observes: "This sort of unnatural division undermines the simultaneous multi-sensory perceptual faculty of human beings…[and] bring about an inescapable dissociation between the real world and our perception of it through language" (p. 144). General Semantics suggests to hyphen in such cases to integrate the inseparable entities: 'emotion-intellectual', 'socio-political' etc. The third Aristotelian fallacy is 'two-valued propositions' refers to the use of antonyms which favors binary oppositions such as right-wrong, true- false, either-or etc. To avoid such dichotomous expressions, General Semantics favors expressions such as 'it appears to me', 'it seems', 'almost'etc. Thus, the sentence "The work is complete" can be replaced by "The work is almost complete". The fourth Aristotelian fallacy in the English language is 'ignorance of abstraction' which means equating 'word' with the 'thing'. This fallacy upholds the belief that ''there is a perfect correspondence between the words and the things

they represent" (p. 145). General semantics maintains that exact linguistic representation of perception is unattainable. Therefore, General semantics advocates to raise awareness about the limitation of linguistic system. Korzybski terms this awareness as terms this awareness as 'consciousness of abstraction.'

Referring to Bykhovsky (1954) (a USSR linguist), the author points out the limitation of General Semantics. In particular, General Semantics tends to reduce concrete social contradictions into merely linguistic misunderstanding, thus obfuscates the material reality. The author draws the following implications of General Semantics for ELT pedagogy. First, teachers may create consciousness about the implication of 'to be' verb to avoid limiting the identity of an entity. Second, students may be encouraged to use non-elementalistic language. Third, awareness should be raised about the implications of two-valued propositions while teaching antonyms. Fourth, teachers may raise consciousness among students about 'abstractions' i.e. lack of correspondence between signifier and signified which "would tell the learners that English, like any other language, is only a tool designed to perceive the world. No tool can do all the work. Similarly no language can perceive the whole world in all its aspects" (p. 147).

5.24.12 In his article, "Varieties of English Around the World—A Linguistic Study", Molla Shahiduzzaman (Assistant Professor, Department of English, University of Dhaka) [Shahiduzzaman, 2007] discusses deferent varieties of English with specific examples.

The author notes that colonization is responsible for the spread of English and development of the varieties of English. The author argues that since "non-standard" varieties represent 'full linguistic systems' (i.e. systematic), these varieties deserve international status. In addition, since a particular variety is an integral part of its speech

community, one variety cannot claim to be superior to others. The author writes: "When a language spreads across different communities it is adapted to the environmental (natural) and socio-cultural demands of the communities, which is why different varieties of English have developed their own linguistic systems and are as efficient as the original variety, hence one variety can by no means be considered superior to others" (p. 108).

The author records distinctive features of the following varieties of English. In Scottish English, question is formed through subject/auxiliary inversion without using any 'do'. For instance, "Had you a good time last night ?" instead of "Did you have a good time last night?". Another instance of Scottish English is that the word 'need' is used in progressive form (e.g. "I'm needing a cup of tea"). A third feature of Scottish English is that long vowel and short vowel, i.e. /u:/ and /ʊ/ are pronounced as /ʊ/. For instance, the words 'pull' and 'pool' are pronounced using the short vowel /ʊ/.

Irish English exhibits the following feathers. First, stative verb is used in progressive form (e.g. "This is belonging to me"). Second do/does differentiates between habitual and non-habitual use of verb (e.g. "I do be drunk" (habitual); "I am drunk "(non-habitual)). Third, Irish English tend to omit relative pronoun (e.g. "It was Michael John saw yesterday" to mean "It was Michael who John saw yesterday"). American Black English demonstrates the following characteristics. First, Black English tends to omit 'be'. Second, it drops third person singular s (e.g. He know something). Third, it uses double negative (e.g. He don't know nothing). Hawaii English displays the following features: Omission of copula, omission of subject, difference in the formation of negative (e.g. "I no eat"), difference in the use of possessive (e.g. my sister friends). Jamaican English is different from Standard English since it is syllable-timed and 'flat' English. West Indian Creole-English demonstrates the following characteristics: Deletion of plural marker (e.g. "five book"),

deletion of possessive marker (e.g. "This man brother"), absence of tense marker (e.g. "He walk home last night"), formation of wh-question without auxiliary inversion (e.g. "who this is"). Trinidadian English exhibits the following characteristics: different use of 'does' (e.g. I does come here yesterday), He eatin (instead of He's eating (now)), He go eat it (instead of He will eat it), The man mad (instead of The man is mad). Singapore English can be divided into three categories: acrolect [closer to Standard English], mesolect [medium level of semblance with Standard English], basilect [highly deviates from Standard English].

5.24.13 In his article, "A Study on Causes of Failure in English at Higher Secondary Level of Bangladesh", Shamsur Rahman (Prof. of English, Director General, National Academy for Educational Management (NAEM)) [Rahman, 2010] explores the condition of ELT at higher secondary level in Bangladesh.

The Participants of this study include principles, English teachers and students of higher secondary level institutes. The author conducted an FGD among trainee teachers of English at NAEM. The author elicited data using questionnaire. The participants had been selected from different regions of the country through the process of random sampling.

In the section entitled "Findings of the study", the author notes that 96.43% English teachers who participated in this study came from literature background. Second, teacher-student ratio in the government institutions has been found 1:464. This ratio in the non-government institutions is 1:175. Third, the average class size is above 120 students [in both government and non-government institutions]. Fourth, 20% teachers did not move around the class while teaching (class observation data). Fifth, when asked about expected class duration, 46.43% teachers favored 60 minutes English class; and 73.64% students favored 45 minutes English class. Sixth, 17.86% teachers reported that they 'always' follow the

Teacher's Guide; 71.43% teachers reported that they follow lesson plan of the textbook. Seventh, teachers do not regularly engage students in pair-work, group-work, role-play, simulation, story-telling etc. Eighth, institutions do not have any language laboratory, OHP, and audio-visual equipment. Ninth, 89.29% teachers and 96.3% students remarked that speaking and listening test should be included in public examinations. Tenth, the following percentage of emphasis has been found on four skills: reading—75%, speaking—59.10%, writing—50%, and listening—20% [technique of eliciting these data is not explicitly mentioned in the paper]. Eleventh, 53.57% students do not communicate [in English] in the class due to 'shyness and phobia'.

Finally, the author recommends that teachers should receive training on teaching English language; second, teachers should play the role of a facilitator; third, institutions should organize tutorial classes for the students; fourth, grammar and translation should be taught in the class; and fifth, English debate and recitation session can be organized to motivate students in learning English.

5.24.14 In his article, "Enhancing Learners' English Language Proficiency Through Service Learning: An Investigation on BRAC University Perspective", Md. Mahbubur Rahman (Centre for languages, BRAC University, Bangladesh) [Rahman, 2012] evaluates the use of 'service learning' method in teaching foreign language (i.e. English language).

The author indicates that the concept of 'service learning' involves experiential learning, critical thinking, and learning through teaching others [i.e. peer teaching]. The purpose of service learning is to serve a community. In this article, the author assesses the efficacy of 'service learning' method in teaching English language in a residential teaching program of BRAC University. The participants of this study encompassed 556 students of

Summer 2011 and Fall 2011 semesters. In particular, the author conducted a questionnaire survey among 115 students of Fall 2011 to investigate their opinions on starboard activity. Starboard is a space in which students were required to post their writing. Students were expected to write on moral issues since students were attending an integrated course. Apart from the questionnaire survey the author observed 556 students who participated in an 'English Week'. In the 'English Week', students were required to speak English in the community. A card was used to observe students' use of English. Precisely, "a team of students, faculty members, house tutors worked to mark in the cards of those who did not speak in English" (p. 66).

Findings of the study reveal that starboard writing activity engaged students in a process of drafting, redrafting, re-editing texts. In addition, while writing for starboard, students asked their peers and teachers for cooperation. Students received feedback on both grammar and vocabulary. Apart from this, analysis of opinion survey data indicates that starboard activity was effective in improving language skills of the students. In particular, 76.5% students answered that starboard activity engaged them in critical thinking; 75.5% students reported that the activity emphasize on [the skill of] summarization; 72.9% students reported that starboard activity facilitated learning inside and outside the classroom; 87% answered that the activity improved their vocabulary; 63.5% reported that the activity created opportunity for peer checking (i.e. peer feedback); 74.6% students answered that they could teach others while working on starboard activity.

The author recorded the observatory data of Summer 2011 and Fall 2011. These data indicate the violation of 'English only policy' of English week. In the 'English Week' of Summer 2011 (from 3 July 2011-7 July 2011), 15 participants out of 281 participants received hangman card (i.e. they were caught using language other than English). On the

other hand, in the 'English Week' of Fall 2011 (from 25 September to 29 September) 36

participants out of 275 participants received hangman card. The author argues: "English

Week observance can make a difference in creating interest in speaking English and making

it a habit in the community...[and data] reflect[s] that most of the individual students helped

promoting an English speaking community" (p. 67). [Note: The residential semester of

BRAC University (Seven Campus) offers an integrated course on English language, Ethics

and culture, and Bangladesh studies.]

5.24.15 In his article, "Problems of Learning English in Bangladesh: A Student Perspective",

Munasir Kamal [Kamal, 2005] investigates challenges of English language pedagogy in

Bangladesh. The author elicited data by interviewing students (school, college and university

level) from both rural and urban areas.

On the basis of the interview with students, the author identified the following

problems. First, English language teachers of rural areas lack proficiency in English.

Second, teacher-student ratio at primary level is very high; therefore, teachers cannot pay

attention to individual students. Third, most of the educational institutions in Bangladesh

cannot provide access to English language learning materials. Fourth, rural students remain

uniformed regarding changers in curriculum for a long time. Fifth, many English teachers

cannot pronounce English words correctly. Sixth, teachers are not adequately trained in

communicative approach. Seventh, primary English is taught using grammar translation

method, and communicative approach is introduced at secondary level (from class VI).

Therefore, students find it difficult to synchronize with this abrupt change in teaching

method. Eighth, some schools encourage students to memorize paragraphs for school texts.

Therefore, students sometimes cannot answer uncommon questions in the Board [i.e. public]

exams. Ninth, the number of English classes is not sufficient to develop proficiency of the

students. Tenth, English language classes do not encourage interaction in the class. Eleventh, teachers provide negative feedback to students. In addition, teachers sometimes avoid providing any feedback.

The author also interviewed some [English language] teachers to devise solutions to these problems. The suggestions of the teachers are as follows. First, primary English book may use colorful illustration to motivate students in learning. Second, schools/colleges may arrange English film shows. Third, Board exams should test speaking skill of the students. Fourth, the number of lessons in SSC and HSC English textbook should be reduced.

5.24.16 In her essay, "The Performance of English and Bangla Medium Students at Tertiary Level—A Comparative Picture", Tahsina Yasmin (Teacher of English, Stanford University Bangladesh) [Yasmin, 2006] documents the results of English medium and Bangla medium students in some tertiary level courses and makes some general comments about Bangla medium and English medium Students). In addition, she investigates the perceptions of Bangla medium and English medium students about their own linguistic proficiency.

The sample size of this survey study is 56 students (52 Bangla medium and 4 English medium) studying BBA and English at Stamford University Bangladesh. To derive data about perception of linguistic proficiency, the author used a structured questionnaire.

Analysis of students' result indicates that in Spring-2003, average marks of BBA-English medium students in "Public Speaking" course was 84 and score of BBA-Bangla medium students was 60. In fall-2003, average marks of BBA-English medium students in Advanced Reading Strategies and Writing was 83.5 whereas score of BBA-Bangla medium students was 75. In The same trimester, average score of BBA-English medium students in "Business Communication" and "Financial Accounting" course was 57 and 63 respectively whereas

score of BBA-Bangla medium students in those courses was 66.5 and 74 respectively. In summer 2003, the average score of English-English medium students in "Composition Curse" and "Public Speaking" course was 71 and 91 respectively whereas the scone of English-Bangla medium students in these courses was 69 and 78 respectively. In Fall-2003, the average marks of English-English medium students in "Advanced Reading Strategies and Writing" and "Introduction to Fiction and Non-Fictional prose" was 80.5 and 79.5 respectively and the score of English-Bangla medium students in these courses was 70.5 and 61 respectively. On the basis of this analysis, the author argues that "the average standard of English medium students is better". In the survey about perception of linguistic proficiency, all the students of English medium background reported that they do not face any difficulty in understanding lecture in English whereas 38.5% Bangla medium students reported that they understand everything of English lecture; 59.5% reported that they partially understand; and 2% reported that they do not understand English lecture. In reading textbooks and reference, 69% Bangla medium students reported that they face problems in understanding vocabulary, 19.5% struggles with sentence structure, 7.5% faces problems in both vocabulary and sentence structure, and 2% does not have any problem in reading. On the other hand, no students of English medium face problem in reading. With regard to generating ideas, vocabulary , grammar and sentence construction in writing, no student of English medium face difficulty whereas 45 Bangla medium students face difficulty and 7 students of Bangla medium do not face any difficulty. With regard to academic discussion in English, 2 English medium students reported that they are confident whereas 6 Bangla medium students reported that they are confident. When asked to evaluate their own linguistic proficiency, 3 English medium students out of 4 claimed that their proficiency is good whereas 13 Bangla medium students reported that their proficiency is good.

The author makes some general comments about Bangla medium and English medium students. According to the author, Bangla medium students are shy, non - communicative, non- assertive, non- confident, non- imaginative, and cannot think critically. On the other hand, English medium students are assertive, confident, imaginative and outspoken.

5.24.17 In his article, "The Problems of Teaching the Speaking and the Listening Skills in English at the Tertiary Level in Bangladesh: A Case Study", Pankaj Barua (Lecturer, Department of English, Southern University Bangladesh) [Barua, 2011] identifies some obstacles in developing speaking and listening skills of students in Bangladesh.

The author elicited data using structured questionnaire from 100 undergraduate students (34 females and 66 males; age: 20-23) of BBA, English, Law and Pharmacy department from a private university in Chittagong. In addition, he observed classroom to detect problems in teaching speaking and listening.

From the analysis of data, the author identifies eight types of problems as obstacles in improving speaking and listening skills. First, the students whom he surveyed are not integratively motivated rather they are instrumentally motivated. In particular, 66% students are instrumentally motivated whereas 34% students are integratively motivated. Second, students are not exposed to English language outside the classroom: 56% students reported that they invest less than one hour every week outside the classroom in practicing spoken English. Third, education system in Bangladesh encourages students only in improving reading and writing skills. This study reveals that 70% students engage themselves in reading and writing for more than 20 hours per week. Fourth, class size in Bangladesh is unusually large consisting of more than 80 students. Fifth, duration of a course does not allow students extensive exposure to English language. Sixth, teaching aids such as cassette

players, computers, and tape recorders are not available in the classroom. Seventh, course instructors are not efficient. Therefore, classes are teacher-centered and teacher-dominated with limited types of speaking and listening activities such as describing places and things, and listening to news. Besides, testing system of spoken English involves faulty items such as translation, fill in the blanks, paragraph writing etc. Eighth, teachers are not properly trained to teach speaking and listening.

The author suggests that in order to improve listening and speaking skills students should be integratively motivated; classroom should be student-centered; teachers should create opportunities for authentic communication in the class; language classroom should not allow more than 20 students; and modern equipments on teaching aids should be made available in the educational institutions.

In Table 5.1 I have recorded source, title of the study, and method of the documented articles.

Table 5.1

List of documented journal articles

Theme	Serial No.	Source	Title of the Study	Method
Second Language Acquisition	1	Islam & Ivan, 2011	Metacognitive Language-Learning Strategies and Language-Learning Motivation: A Study on Bangla-Speaking Undergraduate EFL Learners	Survey
	2	Chowdhury, 2009-10	Motivation and Bangladeshi Tertiary Level Learners	Survey
	3	Sharmeen, 2008	Self-Motivation and its Role in the Context of Bangladeshi Learner's English Language Learning	Survey
	4	Quadir, 2011	A Comparative Study of English and Non-English Major University Students' Motivation to Learn English Oral Communication	Survey
	5	Maniruzzaman & Akter, 2011	The Impact of the Students' Attitudes Towards the Learning Situation on Their Achievement in EFL: A Case Study at the HSC Level	Survey
	6	Maniruzzaman,	Attitudinal and Motivational Impact	Survey

		& Haque, 2000	on EFL Proficiency of Undergraduates: A Preliminary Investigation	
	7	Majid, 2000	A Study of English Language Learners at the Institute of Modern Languages	Survey
	8	Maniruzzaman, 1999-2000	Attitudes, Motivation and Achievement in EFL: Does Sex Differentiation Matter?	Survey
	9	Basu & Bhowmik, 2005	Working With Learners' Motivation and Success in EFL Language Program: Tracing the Sources of Low Motivation and a Learner-Centred Approach	Survey
	10	Ahmed, 2009	Language Learning Motivation: What's on a Student's Mind When Learning English Language	Survey
	11	Gurung, & Abdullah, 2007	Motivation: Its Crucial Role in Teaching English in Classrooms	Expository Essay
	12	Sarwar, 2013	Motivational Strategies in the ELT Classroom: The Bangladeshi Context at the Tertiary Level	Expository Essay
	13	Maniruzzaman, 2006	A Study of the Interaction Between the Learning Situation and the Proficiency of EFL Learners	Survey

	14	Mahmud, 2010	Status of Students' Anxiety in English Learning as a Foreign Language at Secondary Level	Survey
	15	Urmee, 2011	The Role That Affective States Play in Tertiary Level Second Language Classrooms in Bangladesh: A Private University Scenario	Survey
	16	Shamsuzzaman, 2007-2011	The Critical Period Hypothesis: A Critical View.	Expository Essay
	17	Maniruzzaman, 2008	Relevance of the Study of Interlanguage to Teaching EFL at the Tertiary Level	Experimental
	18	Maniruzzaman, 1997-1998	The SL/FL Classroom and the Individual Learner	Expository Essay
	19	Yasmin, 2005	The Role of Age in Second Language Learning	Expository Essay
	20	Ahmed, 2007	Child Language Acquisition and "Universal Grammar"	Expository Essay
	21	Zafar, 2009	Monitoring the 'Monitor': A Critique of Krashen's Five Hypotheses	Expository Essay

Language Education Policy	1	Kabir, 2011	Controversies in English (Language Education) in Bangladesh: The Colonial Contexts	Expository Essay
	2	[Khan, 2002]	Language Planning in Bangladesh: A Case Study	Expository Essay
	3	Shahed, 2009	The 'Politics' of Language in the Bangladeshi Education System: A Deliberate Perpetuation of Obscurity and Chaos	Expository Essay
	4	Maniruzzaman, 2009	Rethinking the Status of English in Bangladesh: Why it Should be the Second Language, Not a Foreign Language	Survey
	5	Pincas, 2002	English Teaching at the Turn of the Century	Expository Essay
	6	Nasrin, 2008	Language Problems in Singapore and Hong Kong	Expository Essay
	7	Ahmad, 2008	Imperialism and English Education Policies in the Sub-Continent	Expository Essay
	8	Rahman, 1998	Perspectives on Current Uses of	Expository Essay

			English in Bangladesh	
	9	Nasrin, 2003	Language Policy and Planning for Bangladesh	Expository Essay
	10	Sultana, 2003	The Political Context of Pedagogical Practices in the EFL Classroom in Bangladesh	Expository Essay
	11	Das, 2008-09	The Reports of Education Commissions and English in Bangladesh	Content Analysis
	12	Yasmin, 2006	English Language Teaching in Bangladesh: An Overview	Expository Essay
Methods and Techniques	1	Rahman & Miah, 2011	Collaborative Learning and the Teacher's Role in an Interactive English Language Classroom	Expository Essay
	2	Islam, 2012	Teaching EFL in Bangladesh: A Comparative Analysis of Pair-Work and Individual Assignments in ELT Classrooms	Content Analysis
	3	Bhattacharjee, 2012	The Use of Bengali in English Classrooms in Bangladesh	Expository Essay

	4	Shahidullah, 2002	Developments in Learning Theories and the Concept of Appropriate ELT Pedagogy	Expository Essay
	5	Mahboob, 2002	Metamorphosis of an English Language Teacher	Experiential Essay
	6	Nayla, 2009	English Language Teaching at Undergraduate Level in the Private Universities of Bangladesh	Expository essay
	7	Islam & Ahsan, 2011	Use of Bangla in EFL Classes: The Reaction of the Secondary Level Students and the Teachers in Bangladesh	Survey
	8	Rahman, 2005	Classroom Teaching Techniques: Teaching "Introduction to English Literature" to Non-English Major Students	Experiential Essay
	9	Abedin, 2005	Gender Bias in ELT: How to Reform Settled Codes	Expository essay
	10	Sattar, 2005	English Teaching in the Internet Age	Expository essay
	11	Ara, 2005	Teaching of English in Bangladesh: Problems and Solutions	Expository essay
	12	Chowdhury, 2005	Elementary Reflections on the Teaching of English in Bangladesh	Expository essay

	13	Islam, Hossain, & Akter, 2005	Choosing an Appropriate Methodology for a Large Class	Expository essay
	14	Abedin, 2006	Curricular Conventions and Confusions: Contemporary Challenges	Expository essay
	15	Bashir & Ferdousy, 2006	Problems and Strategies of Teaching English in Large Classes at Universities in Bangladesh	Survey
	16	Rahman, 2008	"Humanistic Approaches" to Language Teaching: From Theory to Practice	Experiential Essay
	17	Chowdhury, 2012	Classroom Code Switching of English Language Teachers at Tertiary Level: A Bangladeshi Perspective	Survey
	18	Wasiuzzaman, 2012	Teachers' and Students' Attitudes to Pair/Group Activities in English Language Classroom in High Schools and Colleges in Bangladesh	Survey
	19	Pervin, 2007-2011	There is No "Correct" Way of Teaching English	Expository essay

	20	Chowdhury, 2012	L1 as 'Problem' and/or L1 as 'Resource' in L2 Classrooms: Reflecting Three Classroom Activities	Class Observation
	21	Das, & Dipte, 2005	English Language Teaching History With Special Reference to Bangladesh: An Analysis	Survey
	22	Rahman, Begum, & Zinnah, 2008 & 2009	Exploring EFL Teaching Strategy for Ethnic Children at Secondary Level of Education in Bangladesh	Experimental
	23	Chaudhury, 2001	An Exploration of Humanistic Education as a Solution to Language Teaching Blues	Expository essay
	24	Maniruzzaman, 2003	The Use of Mother Tongue in the EFL Classroom: Learners' Reaction	Survey
	25	Hamid, 2004	Seeing Oneself in Another Practitioner: The Ploughman Pulling the Plough	Experiential Essay
	26	Quayyum, Roy, Akhter, & Haider, 2006	Use of Pair Work and Group Work in the English Classroom	Class Observation
	27	Chowdhury, 2009	Professional English Language Course With Content	Experiential Essay

	28	Sultana, 2009	Peer Correction in ESL Classrooms	Survey
	29	Choudhury, 2005	Interaction in Second Language Classrooms	Experiential Essay
	30	Rahman, 2009	The Use of Visuals in Teaching EFL Classes in Bangladesh	Survey
	31	Maniruzzaman, & Rahman, 2008	The Use of Audio Aids in the EFL Class at the Tertiary Level: A Plus or a Minus?	Survey
	32	Saha, & Talukder, 2006	Strengths and Limitations of Different Teaching Modes: A Comparative Study	Survey
	33	Ara, & Akter, 2013	Cooperative Learning for a Real Student-Centered Language Classroom	Expository essay
	34	Bashir, 2013	Investigating Humanistic Methodological Characteristics in Teaching English to Bangladeshi Undergraduate Students	Survey
	35	Parvin, & Haider, 2012	Methods and Practices of English Language Teaching in Bangla and English Medium Schools	Survey
	36	Rahman, 2010	The Role of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) at the Higher Secondary Level in Bangladesh	Survey

Communicative Language Teaching	1	Akramuzzaman, 2011	Communicative Language Teaching in Rural Bangladesh: Teachers' Beliefs and Perceptions	Survey
	2	Tarannum, 2010	CLT Classrooms: Teachers' Role & a Bangladesh Perspective	Expository Essay
	3	Karim, 2004-2005	Post-Secondary ESL Teachers' Perceptions, Attitudes and Expectations About Communicative Language Teaching ([C]LT) in Bangladesh: Research Findings and Implementation Plan	Survey
	4	Shahidullah, 2007	From Communicative Competence to Communicative Language Teaching: Cultural Context of Origin and Clash of Cultures in Other Contexts	Expository Essay
	5	Nayla, 2008	Communicative Language Teaching in Bangladesh: Teachers' Beliefs and Practices	Survey
	6	Ansarey, 2012	Communicative Language Teaching in EFL Contexts: Teachers Attitude and Perception in Bangladesh	Survey

	7	Dutta, 2006	Grammar-Translation Method vs. Communicative Language Teaching: Objectives and Strategies	Expository Essay
	8	Khan & Lubna, 2007	Communicative Approach at Higher Secondary Level: Problems and Possibilities	Survey
	9	Ahmed & Tabsun, 2009-10	Defining and Re-Defining Communicative Competence: A Historical Overview	Expository Essay
	10	Abedin, 2012	The Present Mode of Teaching in the ELT Classes at the Higher Secondary Level in Bangladesh: Is it the Practice of CLT or Disguised GTM?	Survey
	11	Saleheen, 2010-2011	Teachers' Awareness and Current Practice of Communicative Activities in Bangladeshi Universities	Survey
	12	Ahmed, 2005-2006	The Application of Communicative Language Teaching in Bangladesh	Survey
	13	Begum, Begum, & Alom, 2004	The Effect of the Present Communicative Approach in the Teaching of English on Students Learning at Grade IX & X	Survey

	14	Yasmin, 2008 & 2009	Attitude of Bangladeshi Students Towards Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and Their English Textbook	Survey
	15	Roshid, 2008 & 2009	Performance of Teachers in Implementing the Communicative Approach in English Classes at the Secondary Level: An Evaluative Study	Survey
	16	Siddique, 2004	CLT: Another Assumed Ideal From the West ?	Expository Essay
	17	Hossain, Momtaz, Sultana, & Hossain, 2006	A Study on Effective Communicative English Teaching: Higher Secondary Level in Bangladesh	Survey
	18	Zereen, & Islam, 2010	Communicative Language Teaching in Bangladesh: An Overview on the Problems, Misconceptions and Probable Suggestions	Survey

	1	Shams, 2012	The Role of Teachers in ESP	Expository Essay
	2	Khan, 2007	Teaching English in Our Business Schools: A Misled Arrow	Survey
	3	Ansarey, 2008	Teaching Business English With Business Studies in Bangladesh: Initiating a Model Syllabus to Meet Challenges	Survey
English for Specific Purposes	4	Huq, 2010-2011	Opportunities and Challenges in Teaching ESP in Private Universities of Bangladesh	Expository Essay
	5	Chaudhury, 2010	Methods and Practice in the EAP Classrooms at Dhaka University	Class Observation
	6	Islam, 2000	ESP in Medicine: Bangladesh Perspective	Experiential Essay
	7	Rahnuma, 2008-09	Theory and Practice of Language Teaching: Significance of Needs Analysis in ESP	Expository Essay
	8	Jamil, 2012	Promoting Learner Autonomy on a University Course of English for Academic Purposes: A BRAC University Case Study	Survey
	9	Siddique, &	ESP Courses for Literature:	Expository Essay

		Sarwar, 2007	Exploring the Language-Based Approach	
Learning Strategy/Style	1	Khan, 2012	Language Learning Strategies: A Study of Teacher and Learners Perceptions	Survey
	2	Tahmina, 2007	Language Learning Strategies Used by Bangladeshi Learners: An Investigation	Survey
	3	Sultana, 2012	Language Learning Strategies (LLS) of EFL Learners in Bangladesh	Survey
	4	Islam, 2011	Language Learning Style Preferences: Bangladeshi EFL Learners	Survey
	5	Paul, 2012	An Investigation on the Use of Metacognitive Language Learning Strategies by Bangladeshi Learners With Different Proficiency Levels	Survey
Listening	1	Ali & Matin, 2004	The Importance of Listening in Second Language Acquisition: An Overview	Expository Essay
	2	Kaisar & Khanam, 2008	Listening Practice in English Language Learning: Bangladesh Context	Survey
	3	Saha, 2009	Teaching 'Listening' as an 'English	Survey

			Language Skill'	
	4	Tofail, 2011	Introducing Listening to Adult Learners—'The Fun Way'	Expository Essay
	5	Alam & Sinha, 2009	Developing Listening Skills for Tertiary Level Learners	Expository Essay
	6	Abedin, Majlish, & Akter, 2009	Listening Skills at Tertiary Level: A Reflection	Survey
Writing	1	Chowdhury & Islam, 2011	Journal Writing: A Silent Kit for Improving Writing Skills	Content Analysis
	2	Alam, 2007	The Development of L2 Writing Expertise: The Teacher as a Facilitator of Qualitative Changes in the EFL/ESL Classroom	Expository Essay
	3	Zaman & Azad, 2012	Feedback in EFL Writing at Tertiary Level: Teachers' and Learners' Perceptions	Survey
	4	Mumin & Haque, 2006	Teaching Composition: Approach and Experience	Survey
	5	Mohsin, 2007	Feedback in Writing: Problems and Solutions	Survey
	6	Rahman, 2009-	Approaches to Teaching Writing in	Expository Essay

	10	Higher Education: An Enquiry From the Applied Linguistics Point of View	
	7	Shah, 2009-10]	English Proficiency: Improving Under the Heading of Paraphrasing	Expository Essay
	8	Ferdouse, 2011	Application of Peer Editing Method in English Composition Class: A Positive Outcome	Survey
	9	Ferdouse, 2012	Learning From Mistakes: Using Correction Code to Improve Students' Writing Skill in English Composition Class	Content Analysis
	10	Buripakdi, 2011	ESL Students' Reflective 'Burning Experiences' at a Writing Workshop	Experiential Essay
	11	Bashir, 2005-2006	The Place of Grammar in EFL Composition Classes	Expository Essay
	12	Sarwar, 2010	The Role of Feedback in Teaching Process Writing: From Theoretical Considerations to Practical Implementation	Expository Essay
	13	Karim, 2007-	English as Second Language (L2)	Expository Essay

		2011	Academic Writing: Exploring its Nature, Processes and Approaches to Errors	
	14	Quader, 1995	Influence of Composition of Classroom Population on Language Learning by Immigrants	Class Observation
	15	Sultana, 2007-2008	Approaches to Teaching Writing	Expository Essay
	16	Khan, 2002	Responding to Students' Writing in the TESOL Environment: Some Feedback Options	Expository Essay
	17	Faruk, 2000-2001	Teaching Writing English at the Secondary Level in Bangladesh	Expository Essay
	18	Rahman, 2007-08	Culture and L2 Writing Development: A Search for Tuning	Survey
	19	Ara, 2008-09	The Contribution of the Communicative Language Teaching Approach to Teaching Writing in the English Classroom	Mixed Method
	20	Chaudhury, 2001	Ways of Responding to Students' Writing: Providing Meaningful, Appropriate and Effective Feedback	Expository Essay
	21	Sinha, 2011-	Developing Writing Skill for	Experiential Essay

		2012	Bangladeshi Tertiary Level Learners	
	22	Chowdhury, 2006	A Journey From the Paragraph to the Essay	Expository Essay
	23	Huda, & Kamal, 2011	Classroom Experience of Teaching-Writing to Undergraduate Students: Bangladesh Context	Experiential Essay
	24	Majid, 2011	A Study of the Writing Behaviors of Low Proficiency English Learners in Bangladesh	Content Analysis
	25	Ahmad, 2005	Discourse Analysis: Implications for Teaching Effective Writing	Expository Essay
	26	Basu, 2006	Providing Feedback of EFL Students' Written Assignments: Nature and Implications	Expository Essay
	27	Khan, 2013	The Effects of Written Corrective Feedback on L2 Students' Writing	Expository Essay
	28	Haider, 2008	Assessing "Communicative" Writing Skills: An Evaluation of the SSC English Examination	Content Analysis

Testing and Evaluation	1	Kabir, 2011	Backwash Effects of Examinations Upon Teaching and Learning of English	Survey
	2	Kabir, 2010	Necessity of Initiating Rating Scale for More Reliable Assessment of Writing Skill at HSC Level: A Case Study	Expository Essay
	3	Mohsin, 2006	Students' Assessment: Its Judgmental and Developmental Purposes	Survey
	4	Sattar, 2006	The Alternative Modes of Assessing Students at Tertiary Level: The ELT Perspective	Expository Essay
	5	Matin, 2012	Speaking Assessment at Secondary and Higher Secondary Levels and Students' Deficiency in Speaking Skills: A Study to Find Interdependence	Survey
	6	Kabir, 2009	How Much Reliable are Our Language Tests? A Case Study	Mixed Method
	7	Sinha, 2002	'Validity And Reliability'—Two Important Criteria of a Good Language Test: An Analysis of Some Test Items in Terms of Their Validity and Reliability, and Some	Content Analysis

			Suggestions	
	8	Islam, 2003	Testing Oral Skills: Selecting Appropriate Performance Criteria	Expository Essay
Error Analysis	1	Akhter, 2011	Analysis of the Students' Errors in Punctuation: An Empirical Study	Content Analysis
	2	Azad & Shanta, 2012	Teaching Grammar to the Undergraduate Bangladeshi EFL Learners: A Rethinking	Content Analysis
	3	Ahmed, 2006	Communicative English in Bangladesh: A Feedback	Content Analysis
	4	Maniruzzaman, 2003	The Contribution of Errors Analysis to Second/Foreign Language (SL/FL) Learning and Teaching	Expository Essay
	5	Ahmed, 2007	The Blame Game Over Tense Errors: Curriculum Versus Learners	Content Analysis
	6	Mahmud, 2009	Errors in the Free Composition of Undergraduates: A Linguistic Analysis	Content Analysis
	7	Mahmud, 2008	Correcting ESL Learners' Writing	Content Analysis
	8	Siddique, 2007	Learning From Learners: Constructing Evaluation and Feedback Methodology From Error Analysis	Expository Essay
	9	Ahmed, 2004	Error Correction and Speakers of	Expository Essay

			English as a Foreign Language	
	10	Huq & Mahmud, 2010	Investigation Into Errors Committed by the Secondary Students (Grade-VIII) in Writing English	Content Analysis
	11	Basu & Bhowmik, 2006	Errors and Mistakes in EFL Learners' Written Work: A Case Study	Content Analysis
Curriculum/Syllabus and Material Design	1	Hossain, 2003	ELT Issues at Tertiary Level: CU Perspective	Content Analysis
	2	Ali, 2010	Revisiting English Language Teaching (ELT) Curriculum Design: How Appropriate is Bangladesh Higher Secondary Level National ELT Curriculum as a Learner-Centered One?	Content Analysis
	3	Chowdhury, 2006	Lesson Plan and its Importance in English Language Classroom	Expository Essay
	4	Quaderi, Khanum, & Neazy, 2004-2005	English Language Courses of Private Universities in Bangladesh: Primary Observations	Survey
	5	Hamid, 2005	English Across the Curriculum at the Tertiary Level: Some Reflections	Experiential Essay

	6	Arju, 2005	Teaching Fundamental English Course for Undergrad Students: A Sample Course Design and its Practice	Expository Essay
	7	Alaghbari, 2009-10	Development of Materials Evaluation Checklist	Expository Essay
	8	Sultana, 2011	The Effectiveness of the ELT Component at the B. Ed. Programme in Bangladesh: A Critical Perspective	Survey
	9	Iftakhar, 2012	Teaching Speaking Through Public Speaking Course	Survey
	10	Saleheen & Khan, 2007	Teaching Reading Under Foundation English Course to Business Students: A Study of Relevance and Effectiveness	Survey
	11	Sultana, 2010-2011	The Effectiveness of the B.Ed. English Syllabus: A Textual Analysis of the Syllabus From a Critical Point of View	Content Analysis
	12	Jahan, 2012	Residual Cultural Imperialism in Primary Textbooks in Bangladesh: A Critique of the *English For Today* Textbooks	Content Analysis

	13	Sinha, 2005-2006	Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), and *English for Today (EFT)*: Our Dream vs. Reality	Survey
	14	Akter, Ara, & Chowdhury, 2010	Using Newspapers as Authentic Material in EFL/ESL Classroom	Expository Essay
	15	Quader, 1998	Development of Communication Strategies Tasks as the Means to an End	Class Observation
	16	Rahman, Sultana, & Khan, 2004	A Historical Perspective of English Language Education System With Special Reference to Bangladesh: An Analysis	Survey
	17	Hamid, & Jahan, 2001	Checking Learning and Learner Views: A Case Study	Case Study
	18	Farida, 2008 & 2009	A Comparative Analysis of English Language and English Literature Essay Topics	Content Analysis
	19	Shirin, 2010	The Representation of Women in *English for Today* (EFT) for Classes IX-X	Content Analysis
	20	Maniruzzaman, 1995-1996	An SL/FL Syllabus and the Rationale Behind its Design	Expository Essay

	21	Reshmin, 2011	Introducing Critical Thinking in EFL Classrooms	Expository Essay
	22	Hasan, 2009-10	Teaching ELT Course Materials at the Tertiary Level: Suitability and Challenges	Content Analysis
	23	Roshid, Haider, & Mian, 2008	A Comparative Study of Communicative English Courses Conducted by NAEM, ELTIP And BIAM	Survey
	24	Sultana, 2008	English Curriculum at Junior Secondary Level in Bangladesh: Components and Criticism	Content Analysis
	25	Sultana, 2009	English for Today of Class VI: A Review	Content Analysis
	26	Bilkis, Khan, & Ahmed, 2009	Analysis of Ethical Contents of Higher Secondary Level English Textbook (Grade 11-12)	Content Analysis
	27	Jahan, & Begum, 2013	How to Evaluate an EFL/ESL Textbook—A Problem and a Solution	Expository Essay
	28	Jahan, 2005	Cultural Incompatibility of ELT Materials: Evaluation of *Headway*	Content Analysis
	29	Sinha & Mahbub, 2007	ELT Materials in Use in Bangladesh: The Inside Story	Survey
	30	Hossain, 2013	A Corpus-Based Study of	Corpus Analysis

			Frequency and Syntactic Patterns in an EFL Textbook: The Case of Modal Auxiliary	
Reading	1	Mahmud, 2010	Classroom Situation in Reading Classes of the Foundation English Course (FEC) at International Islamic University Chittagong (IIUC): An Empirical Study	Survey
	2	Chowdhury, 2009	Schemata-Their Relevance in L^2 Reading	Expository Essay
	3	Tahmina, 2005	Schema and Teaching Reading Comprehension	Experimental
	4	Rahman & Mamun, 2008	Understanding Meaning Effectively: Pedagogical Approaches to the Reading Skill	Expository Essay
	5	Barman, 2013	Reading Comprehension: Strategies and Classroom Practice	Survey
	6	Abedin, Akter, & Uddin, 2009	Reading Skills of Undergraduates in Private Universities: A Schematic Perspective	Survey
	7	Rahman, & Rahman, 2005	Reading as a Basic Communication Skill	Expository Essay
	8	Das & Sadat, 2003	Roadmap for Effective Reading Pedagogy in the EFL Classrooms in Bangladesh	Expository Essay

	9	Tahmina, 2005	The Greater Effectiveness of Providing Collocational Cohesive Links Over Word Meaning List in Teaching Reading Comprehension	Experimental
	10	Chowdhury, 2009	Gaining Proficiency in the Reading Module in IELTS: A Study on the Efforts of Bangladeshi Students	Survey
	11	Ashraf, 2010	Teaching of Reading Comprehension Under Psychology Schemata Theory	Expository Essay
	12	Rahman, & Jahan, 2007	Strengths and Weaknesses of Teaching Fluent Reading: A Study at the Tertiary Level in Bangladesh	Survey
	13	Bashir, 2005	The Teaching of Reading Skills: Some Issues and Strategies	Expository Essay
	14	Mostafa, 2013	Extensive Reading: Why Bangladesh Should Adopt This Practice and How	Expository Essay
Pronunciation	1	Hossain & Tarannum, 2010	Teaching Stress to ESL Students	Expository Essay
	2	Hoque, 2010	The Influence of the Local Varieties on the Sound Patterns of English: A Case Study of Bangladeshi Tertiary Students	Survey

	3	Matin, 2006	The Role of Pronunciation in EFL/ESL Instruction	Expository Essay
	4	Zaman, 2008	Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis: Applicability to Teaching English Pronunciation in Bangladesh	Survey
	5	Howlader, 2010	Teaching English Pronunciation in Countries Where English is a Second Language: Bangladesh Perspective	Survey
	6	Howlader, 2011	Approaches to Developing Pronunciation in a Second Language: A Study in Bangladesh	Expository Essay
	7	Akter, 2005	Teaching Pronunciation to Non-Native English Speakers	Expository Essay
	8	Tamzida & Siddiqui, 2011	A Synchronic Comparison Between the Vowel Phonemes of Bengali & English Phonology and its Classroom Applicability	Expository Essay
	9	Rahman, 2008	A Comparison Between English and Bangla Vowel Systems	Expository Essay
	10	Maniruzzaman, 2012	"EFL Pronunciation: Why is it a Peripheral Skill?	Expository Essay
	11	Abedin, 2010-2011	The Effect of Regional Bengali Dialect on English Pronunciation of Bangladeshi Second Language	Survey

			Learners: A Reflection	
Context, Culture, and Politics	1	Kabir, 2010	The Role of Context in Teaching English to the Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL)	Expository Essay
	2	Matin, 2011	Problems of Using Texts With Unfamiliar Cultural and Social Context in English Language Learning	Expository Essay
	3	Anis, Hossain, Hassan, & Talukder, 2011	Cultural Imperialism and English Language Teaching in Bangladesh	Expository Essay
	4	Islam & Islam, 2010	Globalization, English Hegemony and Cultural Imperialism: The Bangladesh Context	Expository Essay
	5	Nasrin, 2009	The English Linguistic Imperialism	Expository Essay
	6	Ahmad, 2009	The Sociocultural Model: Mediation and English Language Teaching at the Tertiary Level	Expository Essay
	7	Rahman, 2010-2011	Effects of Imperialism and Cultural Hegemony on Learners of English as a Second or Foreign Language	Expository Essay
	8	Akhter, 2010	Authenticity in ELT Materials: Colourless Green?	Content Analysis
	9	Ara, 2010	Politeness Principle: Being Polite in	Expository Essay

			Language Use	
	10	Khan, 2000	Speech Acts of Apologizing and Complimenting: Some Awareness Raising Exercises	Expository Essay
	11	Siddique, 2002 & 2003	De-Hegemonising English	Expository Essay
	12	Shahidullah, 2001-2002	Diversity in the Teaching-Learning Culture of ELT Contexts and its Implications for ELT Programs	Expository Essay
	13	Majumder, 2009	Orchestrating Cultural Differences in Pedagogy: A Transformational Experience	Experiential Essay
	14	Howlader, 2010	Social Factors Affect Language Teaching (LT) and Language Learning (LL): A Sociolinguistic Perspective	Expository Essay
	15	Sarwar, 2005	The Spread of English: Causes and Implications	Expository Essay
	16	Basu, 2013	The Global Spread of English, "Linguistic Imperialism", and the "Politics" of English Language Teaching: A Reassessment of the Role of English in the World Today	Expository Essay

Speaking	1	Hosain, 2010	Teaching-Learning Situations of Speaking in English at the University Level: A Case Study	Survey
	2	Miah, 2005	Oral English and Basic Teaching Techniques	Experimental
	3	Rahman, 2006	Public Speaking Course: Teaching Students to Speak With Confidence	Expository Essay
	4	Bhattacharjee, 2008	Developing Speaking Skill at Secondary and Higher Secondary Levels: Problems and Few Recommendations	Content Analysis
	5	Jahan & Jahan, 2008	Teaching Presentation Skills to Tertiary Students in Bangladesh	Survey
	6	Chowdhury & Shaila, 2011	Teaching Speaking in Large Classes: Crossing the Barriers	Survey
	7	Islam & Islam, 2012	Effectiveness of Role Play in Enhancing the Speaking Skills of the Learners in a Large Classroom: An Investigation of Tertiary Level Students	Survey
	8	Kaisar & Khanam, 2007	Effects of Social and Psychological Constraints in Public Speaking	Class Observation
	9	Yasmin, 2009	Conversation Analysis: A Prospective Approach to Teaching Spoken English in the EFL and	Content Analysis

		ESL Classroom	
10	Rahman, 2009	Fears of Formal Speech Presentation in English: Some Thoughts and Practical Solutions	Expository Essay
11	Islam, 2009	L1 Influence on Learning Spoken English of Bangla Speakers	Survey
12	Khan, 2007	Problems of Oral Communication in English Among Bangladeshi Students	Survey
13	Bashir, 2011-2012	Investigating the Adjacency Pair Mechanism in Informal Conversations	Content Analysis
14	Akter, n.d.	Improving Speech Presentation: Report of an Action Research Study	Case Study
15	Jahan, 2008	Teaching Speaking Skill at Tertiary Level in Bangldesh: An Empirical Investigation	Survey
16	Mahfuz, & Flora, 2008-09	Teaching Speaking to Fossilized Adult Learners	Expository Essay
17	Amin, 2006	Learning to Speak English in Bangladesh: The Current State of Affairs	Expository Essay

	1	Sultana, 2003-2004	Can Formal Instruction on Grammar Help EFL Students in Bangladesh Develop Communicative Competence	Expository Essay
	2	Begum, 2003	Grammatical Repertoire in Context	Expository Essay
	3	Scott, 2005	Fun With Fundamentals: Grammatical Gaffes and Semantic Silliness in Teaching English	Expository Essay
	4	Bhowmik, 2010	Second Language Acquisition and Grammar Instruction	Expository Essay
Teaching Grammar	5	Bashir, 2008-2010	Our Learners' Dilemma and English Grammatical Number System	Expository Essay
	6	Islam, 2010	Effects of Item Complexity in Grammaticality of Judgment Testing	Test
	7	Saleheen, n.d.	Let Us Try to Make Grammar Teaching Effective	Expository Essay
	8	Rahman, 2010	Acquiring Grammatical and Lexical Competence in English Through Reading	Test

Teaching Vocabulary	1	Hossain, 2007	Teaching Vocabulary Using News Reports: A Reflection	Survey
	2	Arju, 2011	A Study on ESL Vocabulary Acquisition Needs and Classroom Practice: A Bangladeshi Context	Content Analysis
	3	Choudhury, 2010-2011	Use of Thesaurus in the Creative Writing Classroom	Survey
	4	Quaderi, Jahan, & Khanum, 2007 & 2008	Teaching English Vocabulary at the Tertiary Level: A Preliminary Study	Mixed Method
Teacher Education	1	Sultana, 2003	Second/Foreign Language (SL/FL) Teachers: Why Should and How Can They be Extended Practitioners?	Expository Essay
	2	Sultana, 2005	Towards Organizing a Teacher Development Movement: Bangladesh Perspective	Survey
	3	Khan, 2005	Perceptions of Trainee Teachers: Implications for Effective Teaching of English	Survey
	4	Khan, 2005	The Weak Link in English Language Teaching Practices	Experiential Essay
	5	Barua, 2008	Putting Our Words to Work: Rethinking Teacher Talking Time	Expository Essay

	6	Aziz, 2009-10	Achieving Professional Competence Through Reflective Teaching	Expository Essay
	7	Chowdhury, 2002-2003	The Cultural Disillusionment Factor in International TESOL Training	Survey
	8	Yasmeen, 2005	Theoretical Approaches to Teacher Education and Supervision	Expository Essay
	9	Sarwar, 2004	Reflective Thinking Implications for ELT Teacher Training Programmes	Expository Essay
	10	Rahman, & Bhuiyan, 2007	ELTIP: The Problems and Prospects of a Teachers Development Project	Evaluation
	11	Akhter, & Haider, 2010	Reflective Tools Practiced by the English Language Teachers of Secondary Level Institutions in Bangladesh	Survey
	12	Khatun, 2010	Developing Teaching Philosophy: The Understanding of Teaching and Learning SL/FL as a Student-Teacher	Expository Essay
	13	Harun, & Amin, 2013	Continuous Teacher Development Through Reflective Teaching and Action Research	Survey

	14	Majid, 2009	Second Language Teaching: Teachers' Beliefs and Realities	Survey
	15	Majid, 2011	A Critical Evaluation of Teacher Development in a Teacher Training Course	Case Study
	16	Huda, 2009	Reflective Teaching Through Continuous Assessment: Developing Speaking Skill in an EFL Context	Expository Essay
	17	Akhter, 2006	Reflective Teaching: Professional Development Through Self-Inquiry	Expository Essay
	18	Afroze, Kabir, & Rahman, 2008	English Teachers' Classroom Practices in Rural Secondary Schools: An Exploration of the Effect of BRAC Training	Mixed Method
Teaching Language Through Literature	1	Yeasmin, Azad, & Ferdoush, 2011	Teaching Language Through Literature: Designing Appropriate Classroom Activities	Case Study
	2	Alam, 2005	Using Postcolonial Literature in ELT	Content Analysis
	3	Chowdhury, 2005	The Role of Literature in the Teaching of English	Expository Essay
	4	Rahman, 2006	Using Drama Texts in Language Classrooms	Expository Essay
	5	Rahman &	Exploiting Short Stories in the EFL	Expository Essay

		Arju, 2008	Classroom	
	6	Islam, 2011	Using Shakespearean Drama for Creative Writing in ESL Classroom: Some Techniques and Suggestions	Experiential Essay
	7	Ainy, 2010	Introducing Poetry in the Language Classroom to Help Develop Learner's Speaking	Expository Essay
	8	Farida, 2003	Applying ELT Methodology for Literature Classes in Bangladesh	Expository Essay
	9	Sarwar, 2008-2009	Non Native Literature: A Classroom Resource for Literature and Language Teaching in EFL/ESL Contexts	Expository Essay
	10	Hoque, 2006-07	The Use of Literature in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL)	Expository Essay
	11	Arafat, Ali, & Oan, 2012	Using Literary Techniques in the Language Class: Focus on Science and Technology University	Expository Essay
	12	Karim, & Zaman, 2006	Teaching Language From Literature Background: Bringing the Best of Two Worlds	Expository Essay
	13	Chaudhury, 2005	Teaching Poetry in the EFL Class: Making Language Learning an	Experiential Essay

			Enjoyable, Interactive Experience	
	1	Hasan, 2005	Using Short Feature Films to Teach E.S.L.	Expository Essay
	2	Gromik, 2009-10	Cell Phone Technology and Second Language Acquisition: An Action Research Experiment	Experimental
	3	Matin & Rahman, 2009-10	Use of Mass Media in English Language Teaching: Some Reflections	Expository Essay
	4	Ahmed, 2008	Internet and the ESL Classroom	Expository Essay
	5	Ivy, 2010-2011	Technology and the Language Teacher	Expository Essay
IT in ELT	6	Bashir, & Rahman, 2007-2011	The Use of Computers and Multimedia in English Language Teaching Classes in Bangladesh: Preliminary Observations	Survey
	7	Ashrafuzzaman, Babu, & Begum, 2010	Strength, Weakness, Opportunity and Threat (SWOT) Analysis of Using Technology in ELT at Primary Level	Survey
	8	Islam, 2010	EFL Learning Online: A Case of South Asia	Expository Essay
	9	Nasrin, 2012	Cultural Communication Through Social Media and the Second or Foreign Language Learning	Expository Essay

	10	Jahan, & Rahman, 2009	The Use of Information Technology (IT) in Language Teaching & Learning	Survey
	11	Barman, 2012	Influence of Information Technology on Education and Language Teaching	Expository Essay
Needs Analysis	1	Sharmin, 2011	Analyzing 'Needs' for Designing a Specific English Language Course for Medical Students in Bangladesh	Expository Essay
	2	Shahidullah , 2008	Target Needs of English for University Education and English Textbooks up to Class XII: An Evaluation	Content Analysis
	3	Chaudhury, 2009	Identifying the English Language Needs Of Humanities Students at Dhaka University	Survey
Action Research	1	Akter & Rimi, 2007-2011	Importance of the Practice of Action Research for ELT Professionals in Bangladesh	Survey
	2	Maniruzzaman, 2004	Action Research: Can't it Help an SL/FL Teacher Become an Extended Professional?	Expository Essay
	3	Hossain, 2007-08	Action Research on Spelling: An Overview	Action Research

Teaching Young Learners	1	Ara, 2009	Use of Songs, Rhymes, Games in Teaching English to Young Learners in Bangladesh	Case Study
	2	Jahan, 2010	Teaching English to Children in a Multilingual Class	Mixed Method
	3	Banu, 2009	Problems and Misconceptions Facing the Primary Language Education in Bangladesh: An Analysis of Curriculum and Pedagogic Practices	Participant Observation
	4	Majid, 2009	An Evaluation of English Language Teaching at the Beginner's Level in Bangladesh From the Psycholinguistic Point of View	Survey
	5	Ahmed, 2005	Teaching English in the Primary School: Challenges and Options	Expository Essay
	6	Khan, 2005	Teaching English in Primary Schools: Pros And Cons	Expository Essay
	7	Sinha & Mahboob, 2010	Teaching Paragraph Writing to Primary Level Learners	Survey
Miscellaneous	1	Islam, 2007	An In-Depth Comparative Study of British English and American English	Expository Essay
	2	Habib, 2008	EFL Learners' Beliefs About Language Learning: A Study of	Survey

			University Students in Sylhet	
	3	Roshid, 2005	First Language Acquisition and its Theories	Expository Essay
	4	Islam, 2008	The Problems of English Studies in Bangladesh	Expository Essay
	5	Ahmad, 2007-2011	The Role of English in a Bilingual Academic Context	Survey
	6	Barua, 2012	Investigation of a Learner's Second Language Development: A Case Study	Case Study
	7	Maniruzzaman, 2005	Avoidance Behavior in EFL Learning: A Study of Undergraduates	Survey
	8	Khan, 1999-2000	The Spread of English: Linguistic Features of American English	Expository Essay
	9	Zafar, 2001-2002	Is Applied Linguistics Linguistics-Applied? A Critique of Recent Literature	Expository Essay
	10	Hussain & Haque, 2007-08	MI in Action: Exploring the Possibilities	Content Analysis
	11	Raghavan, 2009-10	Relevance of General Semantics Premises in ELT Pedagogy	Expository Essay
	12	Shahiduzzaman, 2007	Varieties of English Around the World—A Linguistic Study	Expository Essay

	13	Rahman, 2010	A Study on Causes of Failure in English at Higher Secondary Level of Bangladesh	Survey
	14	Rahman, 2012	Enhancing Learners' English Language Proficiency Through Service Learning: An Investigation on BRAC University Perspective	Survey
	15	Kamal, 2005	Problems of Learning English in Bangladesh: A Student Perspective	Survey
	16	Yasmin, 2006	The Performance of English and Bangla Medium Students at Tertiary Level—A Comparative Picture	Survey
	17	Barua, 2011	The Problems of Teaching the Speaking and the Listening Skills in English at the Tertiary Level in Bangladesh: A Case Study	Survey

Chapter Six

Critique

A science only progresses, i.e., lives, by the extreme attention it pays to the points where it is theoretically fragile. By these standards, it depends less for its life on what it knows than on what it does not know (Althusser, 1968, p. 30).

This critique is the outcome of a symptomatic reading of ELE research articles of Bangladesh. Precisely, this critique is the result of a *first reading* and a *second reading* of symptomatic reading. In the *first reading*, I have tried to detect the sights/presence and oversights/absence of ELE research establishment. In the *second reading*, I have tried to construct the *problematic* or *framework* of ELE research establishment. Consequently, the *second reading* led to the discovery of both philosophical and extra-theoretical problematic of ELE research. The philosophical problematic of the ELE research establishment includes positivism and structuralism, and the extra-theoretical problematic includes English-legitimation discourse, anti-bilingual ideology, early start fallacy, linguicism, orientalism, native speakerism, oppressive testing ideology, and mechanical reproduction. (For sources in the tables of this chapter, see references in Chapter 5).

6.1 English-Legitimation Discourse

Phillipson constructed three sets to explicate English-legitimation discourse: capacities (English-intrinsic arguments), resources (English-extrinsic arguments), and uses (English-functional arguments). Statements pertaining to richness, variation, nobility,

adaptability etc. have been defined as English intrinsic arguments; statements regarding resources of English such as textbooks, dictionaries, grammar books, rich literature, trained teachers etc. have been defined as English-extrinsic arguments; and statements that connect English with modernization and access to science and technology have been defined as English-functional arguments. Phillipson's idea of English legitimization discourse is premised on Galtung's theory of power. Galtung (1980) explains three categories of power: innate power, resource power, and structural power (Phillipson, 1992, p. 272). Innate power refers to persuasion; resource power refers to bargaining; and structural power refers to force.

6.1.1 English-Intrinsic Arguments

Phillipson tabulates English intrinsic power as innate power; English extrinsic power as resource power; and English functional power as structural power. Phillipson writes:

> This structure is an imperialist world order, in which English is the dominant world language. The supremacy of English needs to be constantly reasserted in the hierarchical reordering of languages, in which there are competing dominant languages, both internationally and intranationally, and in which even dominated languages may be able to assert their rights, especially intra-nationally (1992, p. 272).

Phillipson supplies the following examples of English intrinsic arguments. First, Nutford House conference in 1961 asserted the superiority of English literature in comparison with Asiatic literature. Second, Jepersen (1905) defined English language as rich, pliant, expressive, and interesting. Third, Strevens (1980) appreciated the adaptability of English language, and argues that English contains flexible rule to construct new words. Fourth, *English Today: the international review of the English language* (1984) defined English as 'global' and 'non-national' language. Fifth, Wardhaugh (1987) appreciated value-free quality of English language. Sixth, Crystal (1984) defined English language as universal. Phillipson observes:

If one conflates the English intrinsic arguments, one can conclude that English is God-given, civilizing, noble, a vehicle of the entire developing human tradition, well adapted for change and development, not ethnic or ideological, the world's first truly global language, of universal interest (1992, p. 276).

Phillipson dispels English intrinsic arguments by arguing that "linguists are trained to see any language as potentially fulfilling any function, hence not intrinsically superior or inferior to any other language" (1992, p. 276). English-intrinsic argument appears to be an integral part of ELE research establishment. In table 6.1, I have listed instances of English-intrinsic arguments from the documented articles.

Table 6.1

English-Intrinsic Arguments

Source	Text
Khan (1999-2000, p. 19)	*English has some inherent qualities which has facilitated its acquisition and contributed towards its expansion and attainment of unrivalled position. The assets of English are its cosmopolitan vocabulary, inflectional simplicity, and possession of natural gender.*
Maniruzzaman (2009, p. 68)	*It is further true that this language owes something of its wide appeal to certain qualities and characteristics inherent in itself.*
Miah (2005, p. 118)	*English, therefore, mustn't be imposed as a compulsory subject for the sake of learning to impress their perspective* [prospective?]

	bosses, but for the experience of a vibrant culture, knowledge, subject with the idea to developing the urge to improve it.

6.1.2 English-Functional Arguments

English functional arguments relate to structural power of English and assert the capacity of English to offer access to different domains. Phillipson quotes Makerere report (1961) which puts forward English functional argument. Makerere report asserts that English language is "a gateway to better communications" and "better education" (in Phillipson, 1992, 280). Besides, UNIN (United Nations Institute for Namibia) (1981, p. 40 in Phillipson, 1992, p. 280) asserts that English gives access to all streams of science and technology. This apart, Nalumino Mundia, Prime Minister of Zambia stated that English can function as a 'neutral' language in multilingual Zambia. Ansre (1979, p. 11 in Phillipson, 1992, p. 281) mentions two arguments of English legitimation discourse that relate to English functional arguments. First, English is defined as an 'international' language which is thought to be essential language for students; second, English is defined as a language to attain 'national unity' in multilingual society. Ansre dismantles these arguments by stating that 'international' language is irrelevant for primary students; and there is no correlation between tribalism (divisiveness) and proficiency in African languages.

The following labels are ascribed to English language which Phillipson defines as English-functional: world language, international language, language of wider communication, auxiliary language, additional language, link language, window onto the world, and neutral language. English language is also designated as the language of: national identity, literary renaissance, cultural mirror, modernization, liberalism, universalism,

technology, science, mobility, and access. Phillipson refutes the English-functional arguments. For instance, English does not solely function as a 'language of wider communication'. Other languages (e.g. Serbocroatian in Central Asia, and Finnish in Northern Norway) can function as 'language of wider communication'. Besides, different languages in the world play the role of an 'international' language. Therefore, English cannot claim to be exclusively containing these properties. Phillipson writes: "The labels currently used in political and academic discourse to describe English are almost invariably positive ascriptions. By implication other languages lack these properties or are inferior" (1992, p. 281).

Phillipson further suggests that 'international' or 'global' characteristic of a language is relevant for elites rather than for the mass. In addition, no language can confirm 'national unity'. Phillipson points out that "false arguments are articulated by representatives of the periphery as well as the Center, by elites who share common interests" (1992, p. 286). I have detected the following English-Functional arguments in the documented papers (Table 6.2).

Table 6.2

English-Functional Arguments

Source	Text
Khatun (2010, p. 156)	*English language is creating better job opportunities for our people both in Bangladesh and the overseas.*
Roshid, Haider & Mian (2008, p. 34)	*English as a lingua franca is becoming increasingly important in the changing socio-economic contexts of developing countries. As in some other parts of the world, now, English is a decisive element of socio-economic development in Bangladesh.*
Rahman & Bhuiyan (2007, p. 94)	*English as a subject is of paramount importance in*

	equipping the secondary level students to take up the challenges of the competitive survival and growing globalization.
Rahman, Sultana, & Khan (2004, p. 163)	*Bangladesh's success in trade and commerce is closely linked to the education and English fluency of its citizens.*
Ahmed (2007-2011, p. 129)	*It [English] is not only an important language of education but has become a language of everyday use. It also plays a vital role in the economic development of the country and aids in world-wide communication.*
Anis, Hossain, Hassan, & Talukder (2011, p. 115)	*English is, no doubt, a necessary language for survival in the modern times.*

6.2 Linguicism

   Linguicism can be defined as ideologies/structures that ensure and reinforce uneven distribution of power and resources (Phillipson, 1992. p. 55). For instance, linguicism may lead to the expulsion of students' mother tongue from the [English] classroom. Precisely, linguicism refers to the beliefs associated with language (Phillipson, 1992, p. 56). Table 6.3 demonstrates some instances of linguicism.

Table 6.3

Linguicism

Source	Text
Chowdhury (2012, p. 49) [Throughout the article, the author tries to portray a negative and inferior image of Bangla medium students by constantly comparing them with English medium students on the basis of an assumption of the "superior" linguistic proficiency of English medium students.]	*In Bangladesh as most of the tertiary level students come from Bangla medium background, they feel inhibited in the classroom when a class is entirely taken in English, especially at the very beginning of the undergraduate courses.*
Chowdhury (2009-10, p. 122)	*A person with good skills in English is considered as smart, knowledgeable and respectable in the society.*
Yasmin (2006, pp. 205-206)	*Generally, in this sort of mixed class Bangla medium students feel shy of having reciprocal communication with the instructor. They fear asking questions if they do not understand something, thinking they might fall into an odd position by asking questions in English in front of their classmates. On the other hand, English medium students are bold in expressing themselves, as seen in most cases they are quite fluent in speaking English. The reason*

	*is in Bangla medium schools the effort given for improving English listening and spoken skill of the students is less than the effort for improving the reading and writing skill. It can be said in a point-blank way that in most of the Bangla medium schools there is no scheme for the betterment of the listening and spoken skill of the students, **which ultimately obstructs their way of critical thinking**. As a result, Bangla medium students tend to lag behind in terms of speaking English during their higher studies….Moreover, English medium students also take an upper hand in giving feedback to the teacher. If a question is asked, an English medium student will volunteer himself/herself in answering while the Bangla medium students keep silent. Students from English medium appear to be more outspoken and confident than others in the class. This is not an over-generalized statement, because the psychological settings of the mind of the students are different. The learning environment in schools of the students creates these psychological differences. Individuality and self-assertion*

	mark English medium teaching which makes the students confident and highly verbal. In a combined class at tertiary level there is always a thin air of superiority, which can be marked in English medium students while Bangla medium students remain uncertain of themselves. In case of writing, it is noticeable that English medium students can come up with more imaginative ideas than other students.

6.3 Orientalism

Edward Said, an acclaimed Arab intellectual, in his text *Orientalism* (1978), develops his theory of orientalism to unmask a false consciousness of the West. Said (1978) defines Orientalism as "a way of coming to terms with the orient that is based on the Orient's special place in European Western experience" (p. 1). Orient represents the image of 'other' of Europe, because orient was used as a counterpart to explicate the characteristics (e.g. image, idea, personality, experience) of Europe. Orientalism employs institutions, vocabulary, scholarship, and imagery to culturally and ideologically represent the Orient. Precisely, Orientalism is an academic practice. Therefore, the person who is engaged in teaching, writing, or researching orient is an orientalist, and the activities of this person are called Orientalism. An anthropologist, sociologist, historian, or philologist can be an orientalist. In Said's words: "Orientalism is a style of thought based upon an ontological and epistemological distinction made between "the orient" and (most of the time) "the occident"" (p. 2).

A large number of writers (poets, novelists, philosophers, political theorists, economists etc.) formulate theories, social descriptions, political accounts pertaining to people, mind, or custom of orients presupposing a difference between East and West. A large number of authors have subscribed to the ides about the fundamental difference between East and West. Said writes:

> Orientalism can be discussed and analyzed as the corporate institution for dealing with the orient—dealing with it by making statements about it, authorizing views of it, describing it, by teaching it, settling it, ruling over it: in short, Orientalism as a Western style for dominating, restructuring, and having authority over the orient (p. 3).

Orientalism is a discourse through which Europe manage and represent orient. Besides, Orientalism has disciplined and delimited statements that can be made about Orient. Thus, Orientalism restricted the movement of independent thought on Orient. Said notes that Orientalism evolved in the hands of Britain and France; America, later on, followed the footsteps of Britain and France in doing Orientalism. Said presumes that 'Orient' is not a natural or material reality; Orient is an 'ideational' construct— constructed through imagery, vocabulary, and Western style of thought. To put it another way, Orientalism is the product of power relation between Orient and Occident. It was possible to orientalize (i.e. creating truth about orient through academic activities) the orient, because Occident exercised domination over orient. Said records that Orientalism is exemplified in Flaubert's representation of an Egyptian woman (Kuchuk Hanem) who is uncommunicative and non-assertive; a woman who hid her emotion and history. Flaubert positioned himself as a powerful subject in relation to the typical oriental women he represented. Said maintains: "I myself believe that Orientalism is more particularly valuable as a sign of European-Atlantic

power over the orient" (p. 6). Orientalism produced theory about orient and established itself as a system of knowledge regarding Orient.

According to Said, Orientalism refers to "a collective notion identifying "us" Europeans as against all "those" non-Europeans" (p. 7). Orientalism projects European identity as superior to non-European identity. In addition, Orientalism hegemonized different field of inquiry about orient and established "European superiority over oriental backwardness" which precludes the formation of alternative views about orient. Scientists, scholars, missionaries, traders encountered hardly any resistance from orient while making statements or describing orient. In other words, since European construction of orient went unchallenged, they could continue the construction of orient (through texts). Gradually, at the end of the 18th century, a 'complex orient' evolved. This Orient became an object of academic study, exhibition in the museum, and theoretical reference in anthropology, biology, linguistics etc. Depiction of orient was based on both empirical input and non-empirical input (i.e. desires, repressions, projections). Said writes:

> Western consciousness out of whose unchallenged centrality an Oriental world emerged, first according to general ideas about who or what was an oriental, then according to a detailed logic governed not simply by empirical reality but by a battery of desires, repressions, investments, and projections (1978, p. 8).

Orientalism asserts the superiority of Europe and follows the logic of racism and imperialism. In other words, Orient evolved as means of consolidating Europe's power.

Said contends that production of knowledge is essentially political, because the producer of knowledge cannot dissociate herself from everyday social phenomena and experience. Besides, knowledge is likely to be imbued with its producer's value system and class characteristics. Said maintains:

No one has ever devised a method for detaching the scholar from the circumstances of

life, from the fact of his involvement (conscious or unconscious) with a class, a set of

beliefs, a social position, or from the mere activity of being a member of a society

(1978, p. 10).

Thus, a producer of knowledge in human science cannot bypass his engagement as a human

subject. The historical existence of European or American influenced production of

knowledge about orient. "It meant and means being aware, however dimly, that one belongs

to a power with definite interests in the orient" (1978, p. 11). Said holds that Orientalism is

not simply a political enterprise manifested in scholarly activities and institutions; it is not

simply a large body of texts representing orient; and it is not western imperial conspiracy to

rule over orient. Orientalism is the "distribution of geopolitical awareness" in scholarly,

sociological, economic or historical texts. Orientalism is also an elaboration of geographical

difference and interests—through scholarly discovery, psychological analysis, landscape and

sociological description. Orientalism creates the orient and maintains it. Orientalism is a

'will' or 'intention' to comprehend, control, or incorporate the orient. Orientalism is a

discourse constructed through the mediation of power political (e.g. imperial/colonial power),

power intellectual (e.g. discipline such as comparative linguistics or anatomy), power cultural

(e.g. canons of texts or taste), and power moral (conception about the distinction between the

ability of Orient and Occident). Orientalism refers to an "intellectual authority over the

orient within Western culture" (Said, 1978, p. 19). Orientalism, as an authority, constructs

taste, value, traditions, and perceptions. Orientalism brings orient into existence through

western systems of representation.

Said begins 'Section I' ("Knowing the Oriental") of Chapter 1 ("The Scope of

Orientalism") by referring to the orientalist arguments of Arthur James Balfour, a member of

parliament in England who asserted that Egypt lacks the ability to govern itself. In Balfour's

words: "You may look through the whole history of the orientals in what is called, broadly speaking, the East, and you never find traces of self-government" (quoted in Said, 1978, p. 32-33). Thus, Balfour covertly affirmed the superiority of Europe over Orient, because Europe possesses knowledge about the civilization of the Orient. Said writes:

England knows Egypt; Egypt is what England knows; England knows that Egypt cannot have self-government; England confirms that by occupying Egypt; for the Egyptians, Egypt is what England has occupied and now governs; foreign occupation therefore becomes "the very basis" of contemporary Egyptian civilization; Egypt requires, indeed insists upon, British occupation" (1978, p. 34).

Lord Cromer, a representative of England in Egypt and India (late 19th century to early 20th century) described the essential characteristics of Orient. According to Cromer, oriental mind lacks accuracy, logic, and precision. On the other hand, European mind is naturally logical and skeptic. In addition, Oriental mind is ambiguous and self-contradictory whereas European mind is unambiguous and symmetrical. In Cromer's words:

Want of accuracy, which easily degenerates into untruthfulness, is in fact the main characteristic of the oriental mind…The European…is a natural logician…he is by nature sceptical…The mind of the oriental, on the other hand, like his picturesque streets, is eminently wanting in symmetry. His reasoning is of the most slipshod description…They are often incapable of drawing the most obvious conclusions from any simple premises of which they may admit the truth. Endeavour to elicit a plain statement of facts from any ordinary Egyptian. His explanation will generally be lengthy, and wanting in lucidity. He will probably contradict himself half-a-dozen times before he has finished his story (quoted in Said, 1978, p. 38).

Said argues that Cromer projects Orientals as gullible and lethargic (p. 39). Cromer affirmed a binary opposition between thought, speech and action of Orientals and Europeans.

Besides, Balfour and Cromer designated Orientals as "irrational", "depraved" and "childlike" and Europeans as "rational", "virtuous" and "mature" (Said, 1978, p. 40). Said states that Orientalism affected both Orientals and Occidentals. In particular, Orientalism created an epistemic boundary surrounding the Orient. Said writes:

> Orientalism imposed limits upon thought about the orient. Even the most imaginative writers of an age, men like Flaubert, Nerval, or Scott, were constrained in what they could either experience of or say about the orient...My argument takes it that the orientalist reality is both antihuman and persistent: Its scope, as much as its institutions and all-pervasive influence, lasts up to the present (1978, p. 44).

Orientalism was a local interest of specialists and a general interest of imperialism. The absolute demarcation line drawn by Orientalism between Orient and Occident projects the power of Occident and catalyzes the production of knowledge. In other words, presupposition regarding the distinction between Orient and Occident influences research activities and output. In Said's words:

> Orientalism can also express the strength of the West and the Orient's weakness— as seen by the West...When one uses categories like Oriental and Western as both the starting and the end points of analysis, research, public policy (as the categories were used by Balfour and Cromer), the result is usually to polarize the distinction— the Oriental becomes more Oriental, the Westerner more Western—and limit the human encounter between different cultures, traditions, and societies" (pp. 45-46).

However, Said argues that the condition of human existence cannot be divided. Said refers to Kissinger who asserted that Westerners are better thinkers than Orientals. Besides, in an article published in the *American Journal of Psychiatry* (February 1972 issue), Harold W. Glidden described Arabs as aberrant, irrational, illogical, illiberal and conflictual, conformist

and authoritative (i.e. non-democratic). In addition, Glidden maintains that Arab culture is characterized by patron client relationship between people.

Said analyzes the following two literary texts that ascribed negative quality to orient: Aeschylus's *The Persians* and Euripides's *The Bacchae*. In *The Persians* Europe (Greek) defeats Asia. In particular, Asia is endowed with a sense of loss, emptiness, and disaster. In *The Bacchae*, Orient (Asia) is depicted as mysterious. In these two plays, West is projected as victorious and articulate whereas Orient is represented as defeated and silent. Said notes:

> A line is drawn between two continents. Europe is powerful and articulate; Asia is defeated and distant...It is Europe that articulates the orient; this articulation is the prerogative, not of a puppet master, but of a genuine creator, whose life-giving power represents, animates, constitutes the otherwise silent and dangerous space beyond familiar boundaries (1978, p. 57).

Said maintains that Orientalism devalues orient by treating it as an object of study. Said (1978, p. 97) quotes Anwar Abdel Malek ("Orientalism in Crisis" (1963)) who illustrates Orientalist conception of Orient. Orientalism, as Malek points out, views Orient and Orientals as passive, non-participating, non-active, non-autonomous, and non-sovereign. In Malek's words:

> The orient and orientals [are considered by Orientalism] as an "object" of study, stamped with an otherness— as all that is different, whether it be "subjec" or "object"—but of a constitutive otherness, of an essentialist character...This "object" of study will be, as is customary, passive, non-participating, endowed with a "historical" subjectivity, above all, non-active, non-autonomous, non-sovereign with regard to itself: the only Orient or Oriental or "subject" which could be admitted, at the extreme limit, is the alienated being, philosophically, that is, other than itself in

relationship to itself, posed, understood, defined—and acted—by others (in Said,

1978, p. 97).

Thus, Orientalism essentializes countries, peoples, nations [of orient] to discover historical generality among them, and transfixes this generality ignoring the law of historical evolution. Said (1978, pp. 100-101) records that some authors expressed their disappointment as they discovered the mismatch between textual Orientalist's orient and real/experienced orient. For instance, Gerard de Nerval (author of *Voyage en Orient*) was disheartened when Nerval's direct experience of Egypt replaced imaginative Egypt (in 1843). For Orientalism, Oriental is despotic and fatalistic. However, *anti-colonial struggle of orient destabilized Orientalist's projection of Orient as "passive" and "fatalistic"* (Said, 1978, p. 105).

Said (1978, pp. 108-109) points out the following limitations of Orientalism. First, Orientalism essentializes and dehumanizes the orient. Second, Orientalism views orient as static— unchanged across time and space. Third, West is regarded as active agent whereas Orient is viewed as passive respondent. Said writes: "The West is the actor, the Orient a passive reactor. The West is the spectator, the judge and jury, of every facet of Oriental behavior" (1978, p. 109). Said maintains that Orientalism is truth constructed through language in Nietzsche's sense (1978, pp. 203-204). In addition, Orientalism was an ethnocentric, imperialist, and racist enterprise (1978, p. 204). According to Said, there is no correspondence between real orient and Orientailst's orient (1978, p. 203).

A symptomatic reading reveals Orientalism (a problematic) in ELT articles. In Table 6.4, I have recorded some Orientalist statements.

Table 6.4

Orientalism

Source	Text
Sultana (2009, p. 17)	*Learners of most of the Asian countries are taught in traditional settings, where the teacher is considered to possess all the knowledge and students, like sponges, only play the roles of receivers. Learners of Bangladesh too live with a strong belief that knowledge is the prerogative of the teacher. This belief conflicts with the idea of collaborative learning and learner autonomy. As long as such orientation of students' is not altered, it is very unlikely that they would welcome contributions from their peers.*
Siddique (2004, p. 19)	*Teachers and students alike are reluctant to accept the change from teacher-centred classes to learner-centred classes.*
Sultana (2003, p. 121)	*Students [in Bangladesh] ...prefer teachers with authoritative attitude.* *In fact, students of EFL classrooms in Bangladesh represent the picture of the most wanted 'docile' image of the colonised mass.*
Shahidullah (2001-02)	*The differences can be summarised by referring to Liu (1998) who says that an unconditional obedience to authority and a perception of the teacher as the source*

	of knowledge which must impart through lecture are common characteristics of teaching-learning culture in most of the non-western contexts is still dominantly didactic, product-oriented and teacher-centred….On the contrary, teaching and learning in the western contexts is process or discovery-oriented. Group work, pair work and student-centredness are some common aspects of modern western teaching-learning culture (p. 118). *The experience of learners in these [non-western] teaching-learning cultures predispose learners to a view of learning which puts emphasis on processing of knowledge by rote learning, comprehending, storing and relating facts. A passive understanding is emphasized, and a relevant reproduction is tested in most non-western contexts. Learners in these contexts are socialized into a model of education that became known as the transmission model, and is also called the traditional model of education* (p. 117).
Chowdhury (2002-2003, p. 30)	*In Bangladesh, students expect teachers to be authority figures and the teaching methods to conform to the traditional 'lock-step' teacher-centred approaches where teachers give orders to students, who then comply.*

Tahmina (2007, p. 116)	*The usual learning style of the Southeast Asian countries is that the students are being fed by their teachers all the necessary information. They do not prefer to learn a language cooperatively, e.g. doing pair work or group work.*

6.4 Native Speakerism

Phillipson defines the statement "the ideal teacher of English is a native speaker" (1992, p. 193) as "the native speaker fallacy". This tenet distinguishes between native-speaker proficiency and non-native speaker proficiency, and maintains that a native speaker of English is the ideal teacher of English language. Makerere report also endorsed the supremacy of native speaker in teaching English sounds. 'Native-speaker' tenet assumes that a native speaker is inherently superior to non-native speaker of English because a native speaker is better equipped to demonstrate fluent and idiomatically appropriate use of language. In addition, a native speaker possesses knowledge about cultural connotations of language. Phillipson argues that these qualities are not native-speaker-specific. In particular, non-native speakers can attain these qualities. A teacher is expected to possess knowledge on language learning process, structure and usage of a language, and analysis of language. These skills are learned. Phillipson states: "The untrained or unqualified native- speaker is potentially a menace—apparently many of the products of the British education system recruited currently into ELT do not know much about their own language" (1992, p. 195). Phillipson argues that a non-native speaker is superior to native speaker—because (a) non-native speakers of English have experience of learning an additional language (i.e. English), and (b) non-native speakers of English are better informed about cultural and linguistic needs of their students. Phillipson dispels native-speaker tenet by arguing that good qualities of

teacher is not linked with being native speaker. Phillipson writes: "The ideal teacher of English is a native speaker is ludicrous as soon as one starts identifying the good qualities of a teacher of English. The tenet has no scientific validity" (1992, p. 195).

Kachru's (1986a in Phillipson, 1992, p. 195) notion of 'nativization' of English has implications for native-speaker ideal. Nativization means indigenization of English language characterized by distinctive local norms and forms. In addition, Ottawa, in 1964, argues for the recognition of African variety of English, because African English carries African cultural values (in Phillipson, 1992, p. 196). In the same year, Halliday, McIntosh and Strevens described the evolution of multiple norms of English (e.g. 'Educated West African English' and 'Indian English') (in Phillipson, 1992, p. 196). These authors argued that local norms can be accepted if these are internationally intelligible. According to Kachru (1986a), nativized varieties of English are important because (a) nativized varieties evolved in specific cultural and geographic space; (b) nativized varieties are integrated into academic, administrative, and legal domains; and (c) nativized varieties carry creative energy of local writers [who write in English]. Therefore, ELT has to address the existence of multiple norms, i.e. 'World Englishes'. Phillipson distinguishes between 'exo-normative model' and 'endo-normative model' of English. Exo-normative model refers to standard British or American English. On the contrary, endo-normative model refers to nativized/indigenized variety of English. Phillipson raises question regarding target of non-native speakers in learning English (exo-normative or endo-normative). Quirk (in Phillipson, 1992, p. 197) supports exo-normative model whereas Kachru (1991 in Phillipson, 1992, p. 197) argues for the use of endo-normative model. Kachru (1986a in Phillipson, 1992, p. 198) points out that 'core English-speaking norms' are challenged by local norms. Phillipson writes: "The shift is therefore towards both linguistic and cultural emancipation, and signifies the end of the era with the British and the Americans as guardians of monopolistic global norm" (1992, p. 198).

Besides, Kachru (1986a in Phillipson, 1992, p. 198) distinguishes between 'international intelligibilty' and 'local/national intelligibilty'. According to Kachru, majority people may target local intelligibility rather than international intelligibility. In other words, needs of majority of the people in periphery countries may be endo-normative.

Rampton (1996) presents a different dimension of native speakerism. Phillipson's native speaker fallacy centers around the issue of teachers and teaching. On the other hand, Rampton contends that the term 'native speaker' is an ideological construct—that is, 'native speaker' does not exist. In particular, At the beginning of his essay, Rampton problematizes the term 'native speaker'. Rampton notes the following implications of the term 'native speaker'. First, the construct 'native speaker' assumes that language is an inheritance. Precisely, linguistic inheritance is a result of genetic endowment or membership in a particular group. Second, the person who inherits a language can speak that language well. Third, a person is a native speaker or is not a native speaker. Fourth, a native speaker of a language essentially possesses a comprehensive proficiency in that language. Fifth, 'native speaker' construct equates membership in one particular country with membership in one linguistic group. In other words, the native speaker construct believes that a person is a native speaker of one mother tongue as the person is a citizen of one particular country. Rampton refutes these assumptions of native-speakerism in the following way. First, Rampton argues that the ability to speak language may be a question of genetic endowment, but a particular language is learned from the society. Second, a person may not be a member of a single linguistic community. Therefore, belongingness to one mother tongue is a sociolinguistically false proposition. Third, birth into a particular linguistic group does not guarantee proficiency in that language. For instance, many native speakers of English are not capable of writing or telling stories whereas many non-native speakers are capable of writing or telling stories. Fourth, nobody can claim a 'functional', 'total', or 'comprehensive'

command over a language. Proficiency in a language varies according to domains of language use. Fifth, most of the countries in the world are multilingual in which a child begins to learn two or more language simultaneously from the early age. Nevertheless, the arguments in favor of the 'native speaker' are repeatedly endorsed to maintain the authority and power of the UK and the USA in the field of ELT.

Rampton argues that mere recognition of 'World Englishes' or 'nativized varieties' cannot annihilate the authority of Anglo-English. Therefore, new terminologies are necessary to resist the authority of Anglo-English. Rampton argues for the replacement of the terms 'native speaker' and 'inheritance' with 'language expertise' and 'affiliation' respectively. Rampton points out the following advantages of the term 'expertise'. First, the term does not imply any emotional identification with a particular language. Second, expertise is not innate; rather, it is learned. Third, expertise is a 'relative' construct. Fourth, expertise cannot be complete; rather it is partial—an expert is not an omniscient person. Fourth, attainment of expertise involves the process of certification. In addition, 'expertise' can be challenged, and instrument for assessing expertise can be disputed and reviewed. According to Rampton, the term 'expertise' is fair for learners and teachers in the field of language education. Rampton indicates that 'expertise' is an inclusive, pedagogically verifiable and rational term. In Rampton's words:

> If native-speaker competence is used to set targets and define proficiency, the learner is left playing a game in which the goal-posts are being perpetually moved by people they cannot often challenge. But if you talk about expertise, then you commit yourself to specifying much more closely the body of knowledge that students have to aim at. Learning and teaching become much more accountable. In addition, the notion of expert shifts the emphasis from 'who you are' to 'what you know' (1996, p. 19).

However, Rampton identifies a problem in the use of the term 'expertise'. The term 'expertise' does not carry any symbolic value whereas 'native language' or 'mother tongue' implies group identification. To transcend this limitation of the term 'expertise', Rampton proposes the terms 'language loyalty' or 'language allegiance'. Rampton discusses the terms 'inheritance' and 'affiliation' as variants of 'language loyalty. Rampton contends that the term native language/inheritance connotes shadowy authority and pride. According to Rampton, the term 'inheritance' is not superior to the term 'affiliation', because both 'inheritance' and 'affiliation' are socially negotiated. For instance, both 'affiliation' and 'inheritance' are the result of a social process that include the act of requesting, applying, granting, agreeing, breaking off etc. In case of 'inheritance', government constructs laws about 'inheritance', members of a particular group makes agreement about cultural and material legacies, and one group may be rejected by other groups.

However, Rampton points out one distinction between 'inheritance' and 'affiliation'. The term 'affiliation' is used to mark difference between people whereas the term 'inheritance' is used to mark similarities [lineage] between people. According to Rampton, "inheritance occurs *within* social boundaries, while affiliation takes place *across* them" (p. 20, italics in original). Rampton argues that since both 'inheritance' and 'affiliation' are socially negotiated, it is difficult to claim one language as 'language of inheritance' and the other as 'language of affiliation'. Rampton contends that attachment with a particular language does not depend on inheritance. In other words, inheritance cannot guarantee attachment. Rampton writes: "Wherever language inheritance is involved, there tends to be a sense of the permanent, ancient, or historic. It is important, however, to underline the fact that affiliation can involve a stronger sense of attachment, just as the bond between love partners may be more powerful than the link between parents and children" (1996, p. 20).

The documented ELE research articles exhibit native speakerism in their statements. Some articles proclaim the superiority of native speakers, and some others oversight the existence of non-native-non-native communication in English around the world. In Table 6.5, I have recorded some statements that contain the germ of native speakerism.

Table 6.5

Native Speakerism

Source	Text
Jahan (2008, p. 166)	*Teachers can even invite native speakers of English to motivate the students.*
Maniruzzaman (1999-2000, p. 55) [The author used 'Oxford Placement Test' as an instrument of data elicitation in his research]	*In this test [Oxford Placement Test] the testee's performance is dependent on the knowledge of the sound and writing systems of the English language and the ability to make use of this knowledge at a task-speed well with the competence of a native speaker.*
Islam (2010)	*Simplicity of test items for very advanced learners can produce higher scores imparting the idea that those learners are nativelike in their proficiency in L2, which may not be the case though* (p. 141). *Further research on it includes comparing native speaker's proficiency with L2 learner's ultimate proficiency in the target*

	language in order to decide whether nativelike proficiency is at all attainable by L2 learners or not (p. 154).
Chaudhury (2010, p. 32)	*Owing to minimum exposure to the target language and contact with native speakers, adult EFL learners in general are relatively poor at speaking.*
Saha (2009)	*Anyway, recording must be of a native speaker (p. 203).* *So, we strongly recommend that language instructors should help the learners to be introduced with native speaking…(p. 204)*
Matin (2006)	*Placing the stress where it should be when you're speaking helps native speakers understand you better as well (p. 164).* *In order to achieve speaking skills and be able to communicate well with the native speakers of English, first of all the learners need to understand which words are generally stressed and which are not (p. 165).*
Hossain (2013, p. 238)	*In this study, I have made an attempt to show the need to write/develop textbooks in an EFL context based on native corpus data.*

	With reference to my research questions, I believe I have been able to show in my result the discrepancy between a native corpus data and an intuition-based data. The idea is simple: Writing/developing textbook/s based on a native corpus data to avoid such discrepancies.

6.5 Early Start Fallacy

Phillipson (1992) defines the statement "the earlier English is taught the better the results" "the early start fallacy". This tenet holds that children should start learning English at an early age. Phillipson mentions that Gatenby propounded the belief that children can learn language naturally from birth to age 10. Makerere conference also endorsed this belief. In addition, Makerere report promoted English as a medium of education rather than as a separate subject. Phillipson writes: "The report assumes that English will be a medium for education for all children at some point, and instrumental arguments in favor of English are given" (p. 201). Makerere report equates English and technological advancement, and tries to devalue indigenous/native languages by associating them with traditionalism. Phillipson (1992, p. 202) quotes from Makerere report:

> Where a community has decided to participate as speedily as possible in the technological and other advantages of a wider society, a decision to use English as a medium is likely to be inevitable, and the pressure to introduce it fairly early may well be heavy. A society which lays more stress on the preservation of a traditional way of life will not introduce English as a medium until later in the school life of the child.

Therefore, those who implicitly appreciate English as a medium of instruction and systematically construct negative images of Bangla medium students echo Makerere report. Their stance appears to be linguicist and *anti-multilingual*, because they tend to glorify students' knowledge/skill of English, ignoring students' ability in any other language. They reductively evaluate students' English skill and cannot recognize students' multilingual/bilingual skill. UNESCO (1953 in Phillipson, 1992, p. 203) argues in favor of providing educational instruction in students' own language and of extending use of mother tongue at later period of life. Phillipson points out that in Ghana, English as a medium of instruction (introduced in 1958) failed. Besides, 'Special Centre' at Nairobi, Kenya introduced English as a medium of instruction from the first year of schooling in mid 1950s. This project also yielded negative results. Phillipson (1992, p. 206) refers to Cleghorn, Merritt and Abagi (1989) who found that prohibition on using students' L1 led to low intellectual development of students. In particular, students who were taught through English as a medium of instruction encountered difficulty in contextualization. On the other hand, schools that allowed students' L1 (i.e. Luo language) performed better.

Phillipson defines the statement "the more English is taught, the better the results" is defined as "The maximum exposure fallacy". This tenet holds that increased quantity of teaching lead to better learning. Phillipson (1992, p. 210) refers to Trappes-Lomax who discussed the futility of the slogan 'longer means better' in the context of Tanzania. Phillipson quotes Pattanayak to explicate maximum exposure fallacy in Indian context. Pattanayak (1981 in Phillipson, 1992, p. 210) notes that India has internalized maximum exposure fallacy. According to Pattanayak 'trained teachers', 'well written textual materials', and 'improved methods of teaching' determine learning outcome rather than quantity of exposure. Phillipson points out that the tenet of maximum exposure overlooks the significance of 'appropriacy' and 'comprehensibility' of input. In addition, this tenet does

not address holistic academic-cognitive development of students. Phillipson cites Cummins (1984) to argue that research on bilingual education invalidated maximum exposure fallacy. Phillipson notes: "Such research shows that there is no correlation between quantity of L2 input, in an environment where the learners are exposed to L2 in the community, and academic success" (1992, p. 211). In Cummins's (1984, p. 110 in Phillipson, 1992, p. 211) words:

> Students taught through a minority language for all or part of the school day perform at least as well (and in many cases better) in majority language academic skills as equivalent students taught through the majority language for all or most of the school day.

Phillipson points out that Anglo-American stream of ELT has failed to internalize the theories of bilingualism. Besides, periphery ELT is dependent on the theories produced in the West. Phillipson writes:

> It is arguable that mainstream Anglo-American ELT has not yet absorbed theories of bilingual language development. Theories of language learning in many underdeveloped countries are heavily influenced by theories elaborated in the West, a reflection of cultural and scientific imperialism, and of the educational imperialism that the Makerere conference played a key role in (1992, p. 211).

Phillipson argues that abandonment of this fallacy may lead to better learning, if highly trained teachers teach English:

> Ironically, dropping the tenet might result in improved standards of English. This is because less English, taught by better qualified teachers, to learners who have already developed high cognitive-academic proficiency in their mother tongue, may provide better conditions for learning English (1992, p. 212).

Table 6.6 shows instances of early start fallacy from the documented articles.

Table 6.6

Early Start Fallacy

Source	Text
Chowdhury (2005, p. 65)	*The childhood is the "receptive age" so emphasis should be given on the commencement of early ESL learning…. Without the exposure to a second language in the most appropriate period it will be impossible to pick a second language in the later part of the life. In Bangladesh about 80% of the grass-root level students are not properly exposed to the second Language English at a proper age and that is why they remain ever weak in oral communication as well as in writing.*
Pincas (2002, p. 110)	*Children need to be given the opportunity to acquire English through play activities at kindergarten age. Only in this way will they develop the kind of native speaker competence that they are going to need in the modern world to deal with the extensive range of varieties and styles of spoken and written English that they will be called upon to handle.*

6.6 Anti-multilingual Ideology

Early start fallacy, maximum exposure fallacy, and linguicism, a trilogy constitutes—what I would like to call—*anti-multilingual ideology*. Early start fallacy and maximum exposure fallacy both ensure the exclusive use of English. In addition, these fallacies promote English as a (or the only) medium of instruction. Besides, these fallacies negate the existence and value of other languages. Linguicism, the third component of the trilogy, constructs a superior image of those people who are proficient in English language, and inferior image of those people who are less proficient in English language. Table 6.7 shows the presence of *anti-multilingual ideology* in the documented research articles.

Table 6.7

Anti-Multilingual Ideology

Source	Text
Hamid (2005, p. 9)	*Currently I am teaching a compulsory English foundation course to some Lab Technology and Physiotherapy students at the undergraduate level in a private university. In my class most students want me to speak Bengali occasionally so that they can make sense the simple English I use. I usually don't want to respond to their desire and try my best to build the foundation which 12 years' of teaching and learning English has failed to do. But my conscience also tells me that I am doing injustice to the one student in the class from English medium*

	background. I am sure she doesn't find anything new and/or interesting in my class. For her, my class is simply a waste of her time and money. And yet she has to attend the class because it is compulsory. She has to attend the course for the failure of those who haven't learned English properly in their schools and colleges. What a reward for successful learners!
Saleheen (2007, p. 102)	*And as the foundation of Basic English of the business students who come from different Bangla medium schools and colleges (generally) is supposed to be very poor…*
Kaisar & Khanam (2008, p. 134)	*English medium schools are generally ahead in providing facilities to build the listening skills of their students.*

6.7 Discursive Violence against Bilinguals

Anti-Multilingual ideology and *Discursive Violence* appear to be intricately connected. In other words, Anti-multilingual ideology leads to a discursive violence against bilinguals/multilinguals. In this context, by the term *Discursive Violence,* I mean negative representation of bilingual/multilingual people. Some articles (that I documented) depicted a negative image of Bangla medium (i.e. bilinguals/multilinguals) students. There are psycho-political consequences of discursive violence. For instance, discursive violence constructs a binary opposition between English medium education (which is loaded with monolingual

ideology) and Bangla medium education (a bilingual-democratic model of education). In this binary, English medium education is ascribed a superior status; on the contrary, Bangla medium education is ascribed an inferior status. The discursive violence in the documented articles is an outcome of unscientific generalization, anti-multilingualism, and linguicism. The researchers (who committed discursive violence) have learned not to see any possibility in Bangla medium students. Table 6.8 shows some instances of discursive violence.

Table 6.8

Discursive Violence

Source	Text
Jahan (2008, p. 162)	*Most of the students at tertiary level are from Bengali medium who, are **naturally** weaker in English language than those coming from English medium.*
Farida (2003, p. 36)	*Although these students have studied English for almost twelve years before coming to the universities, their English language proficiency is very poor. Most of these students come from Bengali medium schools, and hence, are unable to cope with the skills and strategies needed specifically for effective higher level academic purposes.*
Quader (1998, p. 13)	*Our students have been doing it [learning English] for 1600 hours and still have not learnt English.*
Tofail (2011, p. 74)	*Thus for the majority of learners, especially for Bengali medium learners, coping with class lectures and texts written in English imposes an added burden to the already challenging and uphill task of coping with university studies.*
Rahman (2009, p. 212)	*Students who come from English medium schools, perform*

	better in this sort of speaking courses as they are exposed more frequently to English.
Islam & Islam (2012, p. 218)	*Most of the students are from Bengali medium. As a result, when students are given a task in classroom, they find it difficult to express their feelings in the target language as their native language stands as a barrier.*

6.8 Linguistic Consciousness

A good number of articles have represented Bangladesh as a monolingual country which I would like to define as a *politico-empirical blunder*. It is a *political blunder* because it oversights (consciously or unconsciously) the existence of more than 40 indigenous languages. It is an *empirical blunder* because huge number of literature is available in Bangladesh (see Sikder, 2011) which deals with indigenous languages of Bangladesh. This politico-empirical blunder represents linguistic-insensitivity of ELE researchers. In Table 6.9, I have recorded some statements which represent Bangladesh as a monolingual country.

Table 6.9

Linguistic Consciousness

Source	Text
Chowdhury (2012, p. 41)	*Bangladesh is a monolingual country where Bangla is the national language which is used as the mode of instruction at the primary, secondary and higher secondary levels in most of the educational institutions.*
Barua (2011, p. 55)	*Though Bangladesh is a monolingual country where people speak Bangla as their mother tongue now a day's [sic.] English is used as a medium of*

	communication in the fields of trade and commerce, higher studies, international relations, electronic and print media and also in some other areas.
Anis, Hossain, Hassan, & Talukder (2011, p. 115)	*Although Bangla is so widely used in Bangladesh and it appears to be a monolingual country, yet English, today, is used for both international and intranational purposes in the society.*
Maniruzzaman (2009, p. 67)	*Bangladesh is a monolingual setting on the ground that this country is notoriously homogenous linguistically and that all the people (including some tribes speaking both Bengali and their respective tribal languages) speak Bengali as their first language.*
Mahmud (2009, p. 150)	*Bangladesh, being a monolingual country, practice of English language by learners outside the English classroom is absolutely absent.*
Maniruzzaman & Haque (1999-2000, p. 5)	*Moreover, the present researchers were not aware of available studies conducted to investigate the relations between these variables in a monolingual setting like Bangladesh.*

6.9 CLT as a Totality

A Glossary of Cultural Theory (Brooker, 2003, p. 253) maintains: "The idea of totality is thought to represent the residual, arrogant mastery of a Eurocentric intellectual, economic and

political tradition". In other words, totality refers to a complete and all-encompassing system. For many ELE researchers, CLT is a totality. They tend to avoid questioning the ontology of CLT. ELE researchers appear to be concerned with the application of CLT in Periphery countries. If CLT does not work somewhere, ELE researchers begin to identify the administrative constraints of that particular space. In other words, CLT never fails; only Periphery countries fail. Thus, the politico-epistemic problematic of CLT remains unquestioned. It is to note that CLT itself tends to totalize itself. CLT claims that it offers everything—reading, writing, listening, and speaking. In addition, CLT is an "approach", and adaptable framework. Hence, there should be no question regarding the power of CLT. Thus, CLT hides its ontological properties. Precisely, CLT does not say that (a) it is distracting, i.e. it diverts Periphery countries' attention to listening and speaking (from reading and writing); (b) that it deals with trivial lower level skills; (c) that free market economy needs 'real life' speaking and listening skills what it aims at, and Periphery nations needs higher level thinking skills for national self-reliance; and (d) that it is an apparatus of academic and educational imperialism. Therefore, the critique of CLT in ELE research establishment centers around implementation of CLT (i.e. how it can be adapted) and spatial specificity (i.e. it is produced in the West and requires adjustment). However, the advantages of CLT (as ELE researchers proclaims) announce its totalitarian character. The following two advantages are generally proclaimed: (a) CLT is adaptable; and (b) CLT emphasizes on four skills—therefore, nothing else is needed. Thus, both criticism and appraisal of CLT precludes theory building in the Periphery countries. My point is that a politically and anthropologically informed critique of CLT is warranted.

Table 6.10

CLT as a Totality

Source	Text
Rahman (2007-08, p. 108)	*A communicative approach of teaching is inevitable.*
Yasmin (2008 & 2009, p. 51)	*The immediate challenge for current Bangladeshi ELT is to illuminate these misconceptions and mismatches in order to resist the formation of any resistance and to build people's trust in CLT*
Ahmed (2007, p. 8)	*The communicative approach teaches students the four skills of English [through] the application of the language. The government made the right decision [by] introducing the approach to SSC and HSC levels. But unfortunately, [the] government did not ensure suitable academic and socio-economic environment for the proper implementation of the approach.*
Tamzida & Siddiqui (2011, p. 269)	*Pronunciation has inseparable link with listening and speaking which are two important language skills, but these two skills are still having less importance in spite of the arrival of the communicative language teaching framework in the Bangladesh context.*
Bhattacharjee (2008, p. 23)	*Making a way out of this speaking problem is difficult, if not impossible. With the view to developing speaking along with other skills, like writing, reading and listening, CLT has been imported to Bangladesh and various speaking activities have been adopted for the improvement of the learners. The*

	changes in the curriculum are obvious. But what is more needed is effective implementation of these activities in the classroom alongside in practical field.
Khan & Lubna (2007, p. 11)	*The phenomenal success of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) throughout the world in the years following 1980s made imprints, though quite late, on the education system of Bangladesh. The national curriculums of secondary and higher secondary level of Bangladesh went through the much awaited changes in 2001.*

6.10 Unaddressed Problems

Symptomatic reading intends to explore unaddressed problems or oversights in a text. Symptomatic reading holds that a text avoids addressing a problem because its problematic does not allow it to address the problem. In the documented article, I detected some unaddressed problems in literal sense. Precisely, some articles did not answer the problem(s) that they posited. For instance, Abedin (2012) mentions in the abstract that his purpose is to explore whether "current mode of CLT…[is a] modified CLT" (p. 1) or not. This issue remains unaddressed in the essay. A second instance of unaddressed problem can be found in Ahmed (2006). Ahmed promises that he would identify the roots of students' errors; but he ends up with superficial and shallow conventional analysis of errors. A third instance can be found in Begum (2003). In her abstract, Begum mentions that she would explain how contextualized teaching of grammar reduces [L1] transfer errors. In the essay, this question remains unanswered. A fourth instance can be found in Alam (2007). In the abstract of his paper, Alam states that Freire's concept of education, i.e. 'conscientization' and 'critical consciousness' can be used in teaching writing. However, the author does not elaborately

examine and explain the possibility of applying Freire's concept in a writing classroom. In the "Conclusion" section, the author abruptly brings Freire, and abruptly mentions such concepts as "communities of practice", "banking concept of education", "conscientization", "critical consciousness". In particular, Alam failed to connect these concepts with writing pedagogy.

6.11 Positivism

Positivism is a branch of epistemology. Therefore, positivism deals with the process of the attainment of knowledge. Some key features of positivism include: (a) it seeks to discover 'universal laws' of the universe; (b) it believes that knowledge is the outcome of observation; (c) it exclusively depends on senses to construct knowledge; (d) it believes that knowledge is objective; (e) it applies methods of natural sciences to social/human sciences; (f) it alienates observer and observed; (g) it dehumanizes and objectifies individuals, i.e. it views humans as "puppets" and uses 'stimulus-response model' (e.g. closed-ended questionnaire) to generates data; (h) positivism oversights creativity and agency of humans ; (i) positivism captures a fragmented image of humans; and (j) positivism is Eurocentric: it believes that European society is superior to non-European society (Cohen et al., 2007; Macey, 2000, p. 303) (for details on positivism see chapter 2 of this work). The *second reading* of a symptomatic reading reveals that the underlying problematic (framework) of the documented articles is positive. I have detected the following characteristics of the documented articles: (a) the articles used stimulus-response model; (b) the articles show the symptom of alienation between researcher and the researched; (c) the articles tried to discover general laws or rules; (d) majority of the articles adopted survey method; (e) the articles oversighted creativity and agency of individuals; and (e) the articles uncritically used Western theories on the basis of their face value (see chapter 5).

6.12 Dogmatic Structuralism?

Barry (2002), in his book *Beginning theory: An introduction to literary and cultural theory,* offers a comprehensive discussion on structuralism and post-structuralism/deconstruction. Structuralism, a school of analysis, originates from the works of Ferdinand de Saussure (1857-1913), a Swiss linguist. Saussure was concerned with the analysis of structure and pattern in language. In other words, Saussurean linguistics intends to discover general rules that govern langue and parole. Structuralism derived its principles from the following three proposition of Saussure. First, Saussure maintains that there is no intrinsic connection between signifier and signified. Therefore, meanings of words are arbitrary. Second, Saussure maintains that meanings of signifiers are relational. In particular, meaning of one word depends on the existence of another word. For instance the word 'male' attains meaning by negating the presence of 'female'; 'day' attains meaning by negating the presence of night; 'good' attains meaning by negating 'bad'. Third, Saussure holds that language is constitutive. Humans construct the world by ascribing meaning to it. Taking impetus from Saussure's structural linguistics, anthropologist Claude Lévi-Strauss and critic Roland Barthes (1915-1980) founded the school of structuralism. The central premise of structuralism is that "things cannot be understood in isolation—they have to be seen in the context of the larger structures they are part of" (2002, p. 39). Barry observes:

> Saussure's thinking stressed the way language is arbitrary, relational and constitutive, and this ways of thinking about language greatly influenced the structuralists, because it gave them a model of a system which is self-contained, in which individual items relate to other items and thus create larger structures.

In short, structuralism intends to discover (a) underlying universal structure of a text and (b) pay attention to systematic pattern of a text. The documented journal articles tried to discover pattern, structure or system. Precisely, analysis of the authors (of documented

articles) appears to emphasize only on structure in human behavior. The analysis oversights ruptures and irregularities in data. Instruments of data elicitation (i.e. structured questionnaire and interview schedule) of the documented articles also indicate the presence of a dogmatic structuralism in the ELT research establishment of Bangladesh. Therefore, post-structuralist or deconstructive analysis in ELT research may add a creative dimension in ELT research. The founders of post-structuralism are Roland Barthes and Jacques Derrida. Barthes's essay "The Death of the Author" (1968) marks his transition from structuralism to post-structuralism. This essay affirms that context cannot determine the meaning of a text. Rather, meaning of a text is independent, free and floating. Another text that established post-structuralism is Derrida's "Structure, Sign and Play in the Discourse of the Human sciences" (1966).

In this lecture, Derrida identifies an epistemological break in the works of Nietzsche, Heidegger and Freud who deviated from the earlier schools of philosophy. Derrida maintains that works of these authors decentered the intellectual universe. Precisely, in the pre-Nietzschean philosophy Western 'man' and 'norms' were centers and non-Western was 'other' and 'margin'. Barry writes:

> Prior to this event the existence of a norm or centre in all things was taken for granted: thus 'man', as the Renaissance slogan had it, was the measure of all other things in the universe: White Western norms of dress, behaviour, architecture, intellectual outlook, and so on, provided a firm centre against which deviations, aberrations, variations could be detected and identified as 'Other' and marginal (2002, pp. 66-67).

Nietzsche decentered this intellectual reference point by asserting that there is no fact, there is only interpretation. In other words, Nietzsche rejects the existence of any

authoritative center. In post-structuralism, text is viewed as fragmented, self-contradictory, and centerless.

Post-structuralism is a reaction against structuralism. Post-structuralism maintains that since reality is constructed by language (which structuralism asserts as well) reality is inaccessible. Since reality is inaccessible, it is impossible to gain certain knowledge of anything. To put it another way, meaning of things is uncertain. Barry (2002, pp. 63-65) describes the differences between "structuralism" and "post-structuralism" in terms of 'origin', 'tone and style', and 'attitude to language'. In his discussion of 'Origin', Barry writes that structuralism originated from linguistics and post-structuralism originated from philosophy. Specifically, linguistics emphasizes on method, systematic collection of data, and logical deduction. On the other hand, post-structuralism, as a school of analysis, is skeptical. In his discussion on "Tone and style", Barry records that structuralism on structuralist analysis leads to generalization and it contains "scientific coolness"; on the contrary, post-structuralist analysis is emotive and euphoric. In Barry's words: "Overall it [post-structuralism] seems to aim for an engaged warmth rather than detached coolness" (2002, p. 64). In his discussion of "Attitude to language", Barry records that structuralism accepts the fact that reality is constituted through language and reality is not accessible; nevertheless, structuralism holds that language is orderly and systematic. Contrarily, post-structuralism holds that signs are floating, fluid, and unstable—which lead to uncertain knowledge. In addition, meaning is subjected to 'slippage' or 'spillage'. In Barry's (2002, pp. 64-65) words: "This linguistic liquid, slopping about and swilling over unpredictably, defies our attempts to carry signification carefully from 'giver' to 'receiver' in the containers we call words…Linguistic anxiety [indeterminacy of meaning], then, is a keynote of the post-structuralist outlook".

The method of analyzing texts deployed in post-structuralism is called deconstruction. Precisely, post-structuralism 'deconstruct' a text. Barry defines deconstruction as 'applied post-structuralism'. According to Terry Eagleton (in Barry, 2002, p. 71), deconstruction means "reading the text against itself" and "knowing the text as it cannot know itself". In addition, deconstruction intends to uncover the unconscious of a text. In *Of Grammatology*, Derrida (in Barry, 2002, P. 71) defines deconstruction in the following way: Deconstruction "must always aim at a certain relationship, unperceived by the writer, between what he commands and what he does not command of the patterns of language that he uses...[It] attempts to make the not-seen accessible to sight". Barry also quotes the definition of deconstruction from Cuddon's *Dictionary of Literary Terms*:

> A text can be read as saying something quite different from what it appears to be saying...it may be read as carrying a plurality of significance or as saying many different things which are fundamentally at variance with, contradictory to and subversive of what may be seen by criticism as a single 'stable' meaning. Thus a text may 'betray' itself (in Barry, 2002, p. 72).

Barry points out that deconstructive reading is a form of oppositional reading which seeks to unravel internal contradictions, inconsistencies, and disunity of a text. In a nutshell, structuralism pays attention to parallels, balances, repetitions, symmetry, patterns, unity, and coherence. On the contrary, post-structuralism concentrates on contradictions, breaks, shifts, conflicts, absences/omissions, aporia, and disunity in a text. I would like to assert that ELT research in Bangladesh should not limit itself to structuralist analysis; it should deploy deconstruction to discover unconscious/multiple meanings of ELT data.

6.13 Testing Ideology and Dehumanization

By *testing ideology,* I mean belief systems regarding the *telos of testing*. The testing ideology of the documented articles appears to be coercive, dehumanizing and mechanical. The

testing ideology is *mechanical,* because it celebrates the notion of "backwash effect", and

invokes the mechanical-behaviorist model (i.e. reward-punishment) of humans (see Feldman,

2005, pp. 184-209). This testing ideology is *dehumanizing* because it oversights creative

energy, dignity, and craving for fulfillment in humans (see Rahman, 2003). In other words,

this ideology negates—what Tagore calls—*atmoshakti* (self-strength) (see Rahman, 2003, p.

4) of people. Rahman (2003, p. 1), a globally acclaimed political economist of Bangladesh,

writes: "Tagore viewed human beings fundamentally as a species that seeks fulfillment in

creative acts". On the contrary, the notion of "backwash effect" presumes a utilitarian model

of human. Precisely, *the coercive testing ideology* of the documented articles maintains that

administrative coercive apparatus must be used to ensure learning. Thus, coercive testing

ideology reads humans reductively (see 'determinism' in Chapter 2 of this work). In other

words, this ideology appears to hold that humans only respond to reward and punishment.

Besides, this ideology does not address the significance of *human teaching/learning*

condition. By *human teaching/learning condition*, I mean non-hierarchical relationship

between teacher and students, and the recognition of creative energy of humans. Thus,

coercive testing ideology does not nurture creative energy of humans and does not pay

attention to improve teaching-learning condition; it tries to motivate humans through

coercion. In Table 6.11, I have recorded some instances of coercive testing ideology form the

documented articles.

Table 6.11

Coercive Testing Ideology

Source	Text
Alam & Sinha (2009, p. 21)	*The most commonly offered rationale for the neglect of listening [in Bangladesh] is the difficulty of teaching listening in the context*

	of large classes with almost no logistical support. This has led to the absence of testing listening in final exams which in turn results in further neglect of this skill.
Rahman & Bhuiyan (2007, p. 100)	*The existing examination system is mostly based on writing and reading skills. Unfortunately, the two important skills, listening and speaking, are being completely left out in the English examination system….as there are no marks allocated for speaking skill in the examination system, students are not motivated to practice speaking. In any internal as well as public examination on English, there must be a component on speaking: and at least 5-10% of the total marks can be allocated for speaking. Students will have to face a viva board where they will be asked to speak in English.*
Hossain, Momtaz, Sultana, & Hossain (2006, p. 142)	*The test of listening and speaking skills is not included in public examinations and as a result practice of that two skills are mostly ignored in the class.*
Roshid (2008 & 2009)	*Indeed, listening was the most neglected skill of English language at the secondary level in*

	Bangladesh. Even there was no examination or tests for evaluating listening skill (p. 181). *Undeniably speaking skill was also one of the most neglected skills of English language at the secondary level in Bangladesh. There was no test or examination for evaluating speaking skill. So, teachers and students both did not get interest in practicing speaking skill* (p. 182).
Sinha (2002, p. 15)	*By improving the test items in this way the constructors can achieve the objectives mentioned in the syllabus and a test can have a good backwash effect and contribute a lot in the teaching programme.*
Tofail (2011, p. 74)	*The prime reason for this neglect [of listening skill] is that it is not separately tested at any level (secondary, higher secondary or tertiary) of education.*

6.14 Mechanical Reproduction

"The eccentricity of the circus, peepshow, and brothel is as embarrassing to it [culture industry] as that of Schonberg and Karl Kraus" (Adorno and Horkheimer, 1944).

In their essay "The Culture Industry: Enlightenment as Mass Deception" Adorno and Horkheimer (1944) define and explain their theory of "mechanical reproduction". Adorno and Horkheimer begin their essay with a description of the politics of uniformity in different segments of culture industry. For instance, films, radio, and magazines—the constituents of culture industry—strives for uniformity. Another instance can be found in the architecture of the housing projects for workers. The architecture of the housing projects for workers exhibits the power of capitalism, specifically, capitalism's power of management. In particular, the sameness of their dwelling space of the workers erodes their individuality and ascribes a singular identity. Resultantly, workers become easily controllable and manageable. To put it another way, monopoly capital produces a uniform mass culture. Adorno and Horkheimer write:

> Because the inhabitants , as producers and as consumers, are drawn into the center in search of work and pleasure, all the living units crystallise into well organized complexes. The striking unity of microcosm and macrocosm presents men with a model of their culture: the false identity of the general and the particular. Under monopoly all mass culture is identical, and the lines of its artificial framework begin to show through.

Workers are drawn to the city and are put in standardized [similar] housing projects; eventually, the individuality and distinctive identity of the workers erode. Thus, architecture is employed as a regulatory weapon, a weapon to mitigate any insurrectionary possibility among the workers. Films and radio do not claim themselves art—they produce 'rubbish' and explicitly call themselves 'business'. The [identical] products of film and radio (which are socially useless) just increase the revenue of their producers. The production of identical goods is legitimated by invoking the reason of identical demand— and thus the process of mechanical reproduction is established. It is claimed that the commodity is standardized in

accordance with the needs of the consumers. The claim about the consumers' needs, technical reproductive process, and standardization establish a system of domination and oppression. Adorno and Horkheimer contend: "It has made the technology of the culture industry no more than the achievement of standardization and mass production, sacrificing whatever involved a distinction between the logic of the work and that of the social system". The technology of culture industry (system) and the domination of standardized products control individual consciousness. The process of centralized control can be exemplified by the invention of 'radio' and 'telephone'. Telephone is a device that allows dialog and subjective intervention. On the contrary, radio reduces humans into passive listener of the centrally controlled information. In Adorno and Horkheimer's words: "It [radio] turns all participants into listeners and authoritatively subjects them to broadcast programs which are all exactly the same". The consumers are also part of the system of culture industry. Therefore, the claim regarding the demand of the public is a myth. Cheap imitation of a musical note, adaptation of a Beethoven symphony, and adaptation of a Tolstoy novel are claimed as the products of public will (which is a false claim). These 'adaptations' are an economic mechanism. This economic mechanism protects the rules of production and of mechanism reproduction. This economic mechanism deters deviations from the rules of standardization. Adorno and Horkheimer maintains: "There is the agreement—or at least the determination—of all executive authorities not to produce or sanction anything that in any way differs from their own rules, their own ideas about consumers, or above all themselves". Heavy industries [i.e. corporation] such as steel, petroleum, electricity and chemicals control the production of cultural commodity. For instance, broadcasting company is dependent on electrical industry, and movie industry is dependent on banks—thus, culture industry and non-industry is intertwined. Though the culture industry categorizes (economically) consumers and produces commodity (value-differentiated commodity), the intrinsic quality

and content of commodity are similar. In other words, culture industry manufactures uniform and standardized products. For instance, there is hardly any difference between the products of Warner Brothers and Metro Goldwyn Mayer. The distinction between automobiles can only be observed in the number of cylinders, cubic capacity and details of patented gadgets. The differences between films can only be observed in the number of stars, excessive use of technology, and deployment of psychological formulas. Technical media (e.g. television) operates under the law of uniformity. In other words, the cultural product of television is a combination of the product of film and radio. This technical media degrades aesthetic material. The sensuous component of audio-visual technology (or television) projects the surface of the society. In addition, cultural product is subservient to the logic of capital. In other words, in culture industry, aesthetic experts (or artists) are obedient to capital.

Therefore, aesthetic matter no longer remains an essential component of cultural product. Adorno and Horkheimer writes: "This process integrates all the elements of the production, from the novel (shaped with an eye to the film) to the last sound effect. It is the triumph of invested capital". The consumers of the culture industry do not actively participate in the production of culture-product. As consumers, people are incapable of synthesizing reason with experience in Kantian sense, because the culture industry "robs the individual of his function. Its prime service to the customer is to do his schematizing for him". Kant contended that a 'secret mechanism' ensures the victory of reason. In the present age, that 'secret mechanism' is disclosed. The culture industry supplies the sense-data and the alliance of capital and power control the mechanism. Adorno and Horkheimer maintain: "While the mechanism is to all appearances planned by those who serve up the data of experience, that is, by the culture industry, it is in fact forced upon the latter by the power of society, which remains irrational, however we may try to rationalize it". The consumers are expected to remain passive. The consumers do not need to apply their thinking capacity to

consume; producers have done that for the consumers. The hit songs, stars, and soap operas demonstrate a cyclic existence—that is, hit songs, stars, and soap operas of one temporal space are similar to that of another temporal space. The content of the cultural product rarely displays any change. Hero's momentary fall, rough treatment allotted for a beloved, and male star's defiance are "readymade clichés to be slotted in anywhere; they never do anything more than fulfil the purpose allotted them in the overall plan". The plot (whole plot) and ending can easily be anticipated from the beginning of a film. It can easily be guessed who would receive reward and who would receive punishment. The notes of the hit songs can also be anticipated from the hit songs. A short story does not deify the formula [of the culture industry] as well. Precisely, formula and technical detail instead of idea dominate the culture industry. In the culture industry, formula is considered more important than the cultural product. The formula generates indistinguishable 'parts' and 'whole' in the cultural product which does not contain any antithesis. The central idea of a cultural product determines its order or stages of progression; it does not offer coherence. In Adorno and Horkheimer's (1944, n.p.) words:

> Though concerned exclusively with effects, it crushes their insubordination and makes them subserve the formula, which replaces the work…The so called dominant idea is like a file which ensures order but not coherence. The whole and the parts are alike; there is no antithesis and no connection. Their prearranged harmony is a mockery of what had to be striven after in the great bourgeois works of art.

Adorno and Horkheimer state that the reaction of audience to the films is also mechanical and automatic. They have learned not to expect anything (desire anything) which the culture industry does not offer. The culture industry defines the boundary and style (and jargon) of production. The opposite of culture industry is avant-garde art. However, the culture industry also tries to generate new effects. Nevertheless, it produces and reproduces

the same thing—it cannot go beyond the convention. The culture industry cannot produce avant-garde but it pretends to produce novel products. The culture industry values technical efficiency over imagination and creativity. The style in culture industry is a negotiated productive system between the expert and the authority. Therefore, the style of culture industry is a negation of style, a compromised technical specificity. To elaborate, imitation is the absolute outcome of culture industry. In addition, the style culture industry is rigid and it is an instrument of capitalism. Further, the style of culture industry schematize, catalog, and classify distinctive cultures to erase their distinctive identity and to subsume them into a uniform culture. Adorno and Horkheimer maintain: "And so the culture industry, the most rigid of all styles, proves to be the goal of liberalism, which is reproached for its lack of style". In other words, culture industry/liberal administration controls and regulates every territory of intellectual-creative production. Adorno and Horkheimer (1944, n.p., my italics) write:

> By subordinating in the same way and to the same end *all areas of intellectual creation,* by occupying men's senses from the time they leave the factory in the evening to the time they clock in again the next morning with matter that bears the impress of the labor process they themselves have to sustain throughout the day, this subsumption mockingly satisfies the concept of a unified culture which the philosophers of personality contrasted with mass culture.

The culture industry would never allow any change. In particular, the culture industry produces predictable material. "Sameness" is an essential characteristic of culture industry. Adorno and Horkheimer (1944, n.p.) write:

> For only the universal triumph of the rhythm of mechanical production and reproduction promises that nothing changes, and nothing unsuitable will appear…The ossified forms—such as the sketch, short story, problem film, or hit song—are the

standardized average of late liberal taste, dictated with threats from above…One might think that an omnipresent authority had sifted the material and drawn up an official catalogue of cultural commodities to provide a smooth supply of available mass-produced lines.

The culture industry is a syndicate. It domesticates 'nature'—i.e. creativity, energy, and imagination. The formula of the culture industry involves repetition. In addition, "the interest of innumerable consumers is directed to the technique, and not to the contents—which are stubbornly repeated, outworn, and by now half-discredited". In culture industry, criticism becomes a mechanical expertise, and positivism reduces the world into blind and dumb data. In short, culture industry produces cliché; the culture industry is totalitarian; and the culture industry is uncomfortable with deviations from its standards.

I would like to call the ELT research establishment of Bangladesh a "culture industry"—an *ELT research industry*. I would like to assert that this nomination is legitimate for two reasons. First, Adorno and Horkheimer hold that culture industry concerns "all areas of intellectual creation". Second, features of culture industry can be traced in the *ELT research industry* of Bangladesh (i.e. in the documented journal articles). To recapitulate, key characteristics of culture industry include: (a) uniformity/sameness, (b) mitigation of insurrectionary possibility, (c) reproduction of socially useless goods, (d) reification and ossification of reality, (e) subservience to the logic of capital, (f) authoritativeness and negation of dialogic, (g) predictability, (h) rigidity, (i) dogmatic empiricism/positivism, (j) negation of style (i.e. avant-garde), (k) cheap imitation/repetition, (l) production of cliché, and (m) standardization and crystallization. The documented journal articles demonstrate the characteristics of culture industry/mechanical reproduction. To put it another way, the *ELT research industry* of Bangladesh contain the following characteristics. First, the documented articles are similar in form (questionnaire survey) and content (issues). Second, the journal

articles deal with shallow and cliché topics (e.g. superficial discussion on four skills, attitudinal study etc.). Third, majority of the articles appears to be theoretically and practically useless (i.e. ELT research industry produces socially useless goods). Fourth, the journal articles are positive. Fifth, a large number of articles uncritically reproduced theories/findings of previous researches. Sixth, the articles are non-creative and the findings of the articles are predictable. Seventh, the articles negate a dialogical relationship (between researcher and the research subjects). Eighth, the articles appear to ossify the reality, i.e. the research articles appear to provide a fragmented, static, and passive version of reality. Thus, the symptoms in the documented journal articles indicate that the ELT research establishment is suffering from—what I would like to call—*creative impotency*.

6.15 Alienation in the ELT Research Industry

A Dictionary of Marxist Thought (Bottomore, 1991, p. 11) maintains:

> In Marx's sense an action through which (or a state in which) a person, a group, an institution, or a society becomes (or remains) alien (1) to the results or products of its own activity (and to the activity itself), and/or (2) to the nature in which it lives, and/or (3) to other human beings, and—in addition and through any or all of (1) to (3)—also (4) to itself (to its own historically created human possibilities).

> In other words, *alienation* means alienation from self, society, creativity, and history.

I observe (on the basis of my reading of the symptoms of the articles) the presence of alienation in the ELT research industry of Bangladesh. Researchers are alienated from self, i.e. human qualities; therefore, they dehumanize others. Researchers are alienated from society; therefore, they oversight the significant problems (i.e. research questions of ELT in Bangladesh). Researchers are alienated from the researched (i.e. teachers, students, and pedagogic reality); therefore, the research articles fail to demonstrate any dialogical relationship between researcher and the researched. Researchers are alienated from their own

history; therefore, the ELT research articles do not appear to be anthropologically informed. Researchers are alienated from their own creativity; therefore, they produce and reproduce clichés. A symptomatic reading (second reading) indicates that Positivism and Eurocentrism have alienated researchers from their self, society, history, and creativity.

6.16 Sightings/Oversights

Documentation and analysis of the journal articles show that ELE establishment of Bangladesh sees (i.e. deals with) the following themes/issues: Second Language Acquisition, Language Education Policy, Methods and Techniques, Communicative Language Teaching, English for Specific Purposes, Learning Strategy/Style, Listening, Writing, Testing and Evaluation, Error Analysis, Curriculum/Syllabus and Material Design, Reading, Pronunciation, Context, Culture, and Politics, Speaking, Teaching Grammar, Teaching Vocabulary, Teacher Education, Teaching Language Through Literature, IT in ELT, Needs Analysis, Action Research, Teaching Young Learners, and Miscellaneous. However, I should note that only a small number of these issues (e.g. Methods and Techniques, Writing [mechanics], Curriculum/Syllabus and Material Design, Teacher Education, Speaking) received maximum attention. On the other hand, ELT research establishment of Bangladesh does not see the following domains: Critical Pedagogy, Emancipatory Pedagogy, Interdisciplinarity in ELT research, Post-colonial/Anti-colonial issues, Multilingualism, Applied linguistics, Semiotics and Language Learning, Cultural Linguistics, Cognitive Linguistics, Anthropological issues in ELT, English for Research Purposes, Learner Autonomy, Autochthonous issues in ELT, Language Policy and Planning, EIL Issues, Sex/Gender in Language Teaching/Learning, Young Learners, Rural/Urban Differential, Class (for a discussion on 'class' and ELT see Ramanathan & Morgan, 2009) etc. In addition, ELT research in Bangladesh appears to deal exclusively with lower order mechanical skills. In other words, the articles did not address the development of higher

order thinking skills. This oversight indexes toward the vocational-mechanical-reified characteristic of ELT discourse. This apart, ELT research in Bangladesh also oversights creative and useful research methodologies (e.g. Ethnography, Conversation Analysis, Case Study, Critical Discourse Analysis) (as Table 5.1 shows). In particular, ELT researchers of Bangladesh predominantly use 'survey' method—which hardly offers any valuable insights. In addition, one may find it difficult to designate 'expository' and 'experiential' essays as 'research' (see Chapter 5 of this work). Further, analysis/interpretation of data in the documented articles does not seem to be systematic. Precisely, numerical, textual, or unsystematic experiential data follows a general observation in these articles.

6.17 Validity and Reliability

In his book, *Research Methods in Language Learning,* Nunan (1992) discusses validity and reliability in ELT research. Nunan defines "reliability" as consistency and replicability of research. There are two types of reliability: internal reliability and external reliability. Internal reliability refers to the consistency of data collection, analysis, and interpretation. The central question of internal reliability is: "Would an independent researcher, on reanalyzing the data, come to the same conclusion?" (Nunan, 1992, p. 17). On the other hand, external reliability concerns the reproduction of the same result when an independent researcher replicates a study.

According to Nunan, validity refers to the correspondence between the objective of research and objects of investigation. In Nunan's (1992, p. 14) words: "Validity…has to do with the extent to which a piece of research actually investigates what the researcher purports to investigate". There are two types of validity: internal validity and external validity. Internal validity means interpretability of research. Beretta (1986a in Nunan, 1992, p. 15) maintains that internal validity is concerned with the factors that might influence research findings/results/output. Nunan provides an example of research which lacks internal validity.

In this instance, a researcher trains three teachers on three different methods. The three teachers are required to apply the method in their own classes. One teacher taught three mixed ability classes; the second teacher taught four mixed ability classes; and the third teacher taught two homogenous groups. At one point, students were given a test. Finally, the mean score of each group was calculated and compared. Nunan argues that the outcome of this research is uninterpretable, because the scores of the students might be the outcome of the method, teacher's skills, or students' proficiency. Nunan defines external validity as generalizability [a *positive* and *structuralist* criterion of validation]. Nunan documents an example to clarify external validity as well. In a study on "the effect of length of visual exposure on the ability to memorise and recall nonsense words" (Nunan, 1992, p. 16), 10 postgraduate students of psychology voluntarily participated. The participants were distributed to five groups (2 participants in each group). There were five different lengths of exposure for the five different groups. Nunan argues that the outcome of this study is not generalizable to different types of population (e.g. primary and secondary students, young adults). Apart from internal and external validity, Nunan describes 'construct validity', a third type of validity. Nunan notes that the word 'construct' refers to psychological phenomena such as intelligence, proficiency, motivation etc. Construct validity is concerned with the precise definition and explanation of constructs in a research. Nunan writes: Researchers "need to describe the characteristics of the constructs in a way which would enable an outsider to identify these characteristics if they came across them" (1992, p. 15). For instance, a study on 'listening comprehension' may use 'a written cloze text' as dependent variable. In this context, the definition of the construct 'listening comprehension' would be: "The ability to compete a written cloze passage" (1992, p. 15). One may question the validity of this construct. Thus, the central question of construct validity is: "Is the study actually investigating what it is supposed to be investigating?" (p. 16).

The documented articles appear to be valid and reliable. In particular, the articles managed to maintain internal validity and construct validity. However, the articles seem to lack external validity, because they dealt with a small number of data. Besides, the documented articles appear to be reliable, because they adequately explained methodology and research process. However, by the term "reliable" I do not mean that the findings and analysis of the documented articles are acceptable. I define the documented articles as reliable because they adequately explained the research process. It is to note that all the articles deal with *simple research questions* and *simple research design*. By *simple research question*, I mean predictable facts (i.e. answers pertaining to the research questions are obvious). On the other hand, by *simple research design* I mean cause-effect analysis and non-interpretive design. Therefore, a rigorous analysis of validity and reliability of these articles appear to be unwarranted.

Chapter Seven

Toward a Paradigm Shift

In the critique (Chapter 6 of this work) of the documented articles, I have shown some of their characteristics. In particular, the documented research articles are *positive*, *mechanically reproductive*, *dehumanizing*, *Eurocentric*, *Orientalist*, *shallow*, *non-rigorous*, *non-interdisciplinary*, *non-creative*, and *alienating* (i.e. detached from concrete reality). In addition, a large number of articles are fallacious (i.e. these articles contain professional fallacies). Besides, these articles revolve around a small number of technical issues. In other words, these articles failed to synchronize with the dynamicity of the global academia and local reality. I would like to define the documented articles as *First Generation Research*. In addition, I would like to propose a *South Asian Paradigm* to resist Eurocentric-Positive paradigm of ELE research. Precisely, a South Asian Paradigm contains three key features: *dialectic materialism*, *anti-colonial struggle*, and *socialist democratic humanism*. In addition, a South Asian Paradigm would be *creative* and *interdisciplinary*. In the following sections of this chapter, I would describe the features of *South Asian Paradigm*.

7.1 Dialectic Materialism

The *South Asian Paradigm* adopts dialectic materialism as its philosophy. This paradigm accepts dialectic materialism because dialectic materialism leads to human emancipation. In his book, *Marxio Darshan* [Marxist Philosophy], Rashid (2007) explains the origin and features of dialectic materialism. Rashid writes that Marx invented dialectic materialism by removing the limitations of Hegel and Feuerbach. In other words, the sources of Marx's dialectic materialism are Hegel's dialectic and Feuerbach's materialism. According to Hegel, dialectics is the mechanism of evolution. The objective of Hegelian Dialectic was to discover

an Absolute Consciousness. Hegel holds that the world is a manifestation of this Absolute consciousness. Thus, Hegel discovers his dialectic from an Absolute Consciousness, not from the contradiction and evolution of nature. Hegel defines dialectic as the law of evolution. According to Hegelian Dialectic, the process of evolution continues in nature and history. However, this dialectic ends as it reaches an Absolute Idea/Absolute Consciousness. Thus, Hegelian Dialectic stops the process of evolution at one point. Hegel's Dialectic celebrates the process of evolution whereas his Absolute Idea terminates the evolutionary process at one point. This acceptance and denial of evolution created a contradiction in Hegel's philosophy. For Hegel, evolution means evolution of the Consciousness, not of the nature. Thus, according to Hegel, evolution of nature is the manifestation of the evolution of consciousness. In response to Hegelian philosophy, Feuerbach contends that Hegelian Idealism is a new version of theology. Feuerbach identifies the following limitations of Hegelian philosophy. First, Hegel begins his philosophy from a Static-Absolute-Abstract Idea; therefore, Hegelian Philosophy begins from theology. Second, Hegel's dialectic denies Absolute Idea or theology. Third, his Absolute Idea accepts theology and denies the existence of concrete reality. Thus, Feuerbach maintains that Hegel's Philosophy contains a self-contradiction. Feuerbach completely rejects Hegel's Philosophy. However, Feuerbach failed to understand the revolutionary dimension of Hegelian philosophy i.e. Hegel's dialectics. In contrary to Hegel's Philosophy, Feuerbach's Philosophy begins from matter. Nevertheless, Feuerbach's philosophy also contains self-contradiction. In other words, Feuerbach's Philosophy contains both materialism and idealism. Precisely, Feuerbach did not want to uproot religion; he wanted to enrich it. Specifically, he proposed the religion of "humanism". According to Feuerbach, human history has to be divided according to the presence of humanism [love and unity of hearts]. For Feuerbach, love is the only key to human emancipation. Thus, he oversighted the significance of production relation as a

catalyst of historical change. Therefore, Feuerbach's materialism is mechanical which fails to recognize the creation of new matter through dialectic. According to mechanical materialism, change and evolution means the expansion and contraction of existing-static matter. Another limitation of mechanical materialism is that it views matter merely as an object, and ignores the subjective dimension of matter. Thus, mechanical materialism fails to understand the dialects of matter and consciousness. These are Marx and Engel's critique of Feuerbach's mechanical materialism. However, Marx and Engels did not completely reject Hegel and Feuerbach. They removed idealism from Hegel's philosophy and accepted Hegelian Dialectic; on the other hand, they obliterated mechanical dimension of Feuerbach's philosophy and accepted Feuerbach's materialism. Thus, Hegel's 'dialectic' and Feuerbach's 'materialism' constitute "dialectic materialism".

Dialectic materialism holds that matter precedes consciousness. Marx's materialism is dialectic because it examines material world according to its motion, change and evolution. Marx's philosophy is materialist, because it examines and interprets matter [e.g. nature, society, thought] of the material world. According to dialectic materialism, motion is the internet characteristic of matter. In other words, continual motion is an internal feature of matter. Dialectic materialism views change and evolution in matter as an outcome of interconnections between matters. Dialectic materialism not only interprets the world, it also intends to change the world. Precisely, dialectic materialism contains the following characteristics. First, dialectic materialism vies the world as dynamic—i.e. the world is constantly changing. The matters of the world are the product of evolution. Second, in dialectic materialism, evolution does not merely mean change; evolution means creation of new thing which is qualitatively different from the old. Third, dialectic materialism opposes the concept of Absolute Being, and holds that evolution is not metaphysical; evolution is dialectical. Fourth, according to dialectic materialism, evolution means qualitative change

(which is the results of quantitative change). In addition, qualitative change means revolutionary transformation. Fifth, matters/facts of the world are interdependent. Sixth, dialectic materialism celebrates the evolution of new things.

There are three fundamental laws of dialectic materialism: unity of contradiction and law of struggle; law of qualitative change from quantitative change; and law of negation of negation. Unity of contradiction and law of struggle, the first law of dialectic materialism, is the central source of evolution. This law maintains that contradiction is an instinctive feature of matter and incidents. The struggle/battle lies in the structure of the unity of contradiction. The battle of contradiction destroys the old unity of contradiction and creates a new unity of contradiction. Thus, the process of evolution continues. Qualitative change from quantitative change, a second law of dialectic materialism, maintains that quantitative changes lead to qualitative changes. In this context, quality refers to the internal characteristic and identity of matter. In addition, quality of matter manifests itself in particular properties of matter. On the other hand, quantity refers to the dimensional aspect of matter (e.g. weight, number etc). Qualitative change means transformation of a matter into a new matter. On the other hand, quantitative change means expansion and contraction of the same matter. However, there is a limit to quantitative change. In other words, quantitative change does not continue for indefinite time; at one point, new matter evolves as a consequence of quantitative change. For instance, accumulation of capital, monopoly capital, intensification of the contradiction of capital, emergence of organized and conscious proletariats etc. are quantitative change. On the contrary, transformation of capitalism into socialism is qualitative change. It is to note that quantitative changes occur slowly whereas qualitative change occurs suddenly. Negation of negation, a third law of dialectic materialism, refers to the negation of old by new. In other words, negation of negation leads to the creation of new. Therefore, negation is an inevitable condition of evolution/progress.

In metaphysics, negation means a total rejection of old. On the contrary, in dialectic materialism, negation does not mean a total rejection of old. Negation of dialectic materialism accepts useful components of the old. However, the negation of dialectic materialism transforms the useful component of the old to adjust with the new. Thus, the negation of dialectic materialism does not completely reject the old; negation of dialectic materialism carries the greatness of the old.

The following two branches of philosophy deal with epistemology, i.e. the problem of knowledge: Empiricism and Idealism. The fundamental concerns of epistemology include the question of certain knowledge and relationship between consciousness and material world. According to skeptics and agnostics, it is not possible to attain certain knowledge. Another problem of epistemology is whether knowledge is subjective or objective. According to Idealism, knowledge is subjective. Idealism holds that the existence of material world depends on consciousness. In other words, material world does not exist outside consciousness. Berkeley was the founder of this Subjective Idealism. Hume, following Berkeley, maintains that knowledge of the material world depends on senses and concepts; in other words, there is no existence of matter outside experience. Kant's Critical Theory also supported the philosophy of Berkeley and Hume. Kant holds that knowledge is the product of the synthesis of sense and reason. However, Kant maintains that the operation of sense and reason can produce knowledge only about phenomenon (i.e. appearance); it cannot produce any knowledge about being. Thus, Kant's critical theory becomes agnostic. Both agnosticism and skepticism deny the existence of objective material world. To put it another way, Berkeley, Hume and Kant explain experience merely as a subjective operation of mind. Thus, Berkeley, Hume, and Kant admit that sensation is the origin of knowledge; but they deny that sensation is the manifestation of material world.

According to empiricists, the ultimate source of knowledge is sensation. Empiricism holds that sensation is the creation of mind, not the creation of material world. On the other hand, materialist epistemology holds that knowledge is objective. In addition, according to materialism, material world, not mind, is the source/creator of sensation. Further, materialism holds that there is independent existence of material world outside sensation. Bacon, Hobbes and Locke are the three founders of modern materialist epistemology. These three philosophers admit that the source of knowledge is material world. However, Bacon proposes a mechanical materialism. According to Bacon, the original source of knowledge is the mechanical law of nature (i.e. cause and effect). In addition, according to Bacon, matter is inactive. To put it another way, Bacon oversights that matter creates sensations in brain (which is an active process). Thus, Bacon overlooks the subjective dimension of knowledge. Hobbes, following Bacon, contends that matter is the source of knowledge. According to Hobbes, knowledge is sensational. However, Hobbes maintains that the movement or motion of matter depends on a mechanical law. Precisely, according to Hobbes, knowledge is the outcome of the encounter between external matter and sensory organs. Hobbes, like Bacon, views matter as inactive. Thus, Hobbes also overlooks the movement or motion of matter in brain. In other words, Hobbes recognizes the objective dimension of knowledge and overlooks its subjective dimension. Locke followed Bacon and Hobbes. According to Locke, sensory experience is the source of knowledge. Locke contends that external matter acts on senses; this process lead to the creation of concepts. Locke admits the existence of matter outside sensation. However, he contends that it not possible to attain direct knowledge of matter; knowledge of matter comes through concepts. Therefore, according to Locke, knowledge means conceptual knowledge. Thus, Locke's epistemology becomes agnostic and idealist.

In short, idealist epistemology views knowledge as subjective whereas mechanical materialist epistemology views knowledge as objective. These two schools of philosophy, thus, present an incomplete and dogmatic view regarding the production of knowledge. The epistemology of dialectic materialism eradicates the limitations of idealist epistemology and mechanical materialistic epistemology. According to the epistemology of dialectic materialism, knowledge is both subjective and objective. In other words, material world reflects itself on brain and this process activates human brain and creates sensations. Thus, both subject and object actively participates in the process of knowledge production. To put it another way, knowledge is an outcome of the dialectic relationship between subject and object. According to dialectic materialism, matter is dynamic; it continuously changes itself. Therefore, knowledge of matter is not also static. In addition, Lenin points out three features of dialectic materialist epistemology. First, there is an independent existence of matter outside mind. Second, there is no difference between appearance and being. Third, knowledge is dialectical, i.e. knowledge is dynamic, not static. Precisely, dialectic materialism maintains that knowledge is a continuous thought process. According to dialectic materialism, validity or certainty of knowledge can be tested through application or practice.

7.2 Anti-Colonial Struggle

Albert Memmi (1965), a Tunisian activist, chronicles some components of anti-colonial struggle. Though Memmi did not directly address the issue of epistemological emancipation, his analysis appears to contain the dialectic of both material and immaterial freedom. Precisely, the following ideas of Memmi are relevant for a "South Asian Paradigm". First, the abandonment of "colonial framework" must lead to the creation of "new order of things". Second, the resistance against colonial [or neo-colonial] framework must create a condition for absolute revolution. In Memmi's words: "The refusal of the colonized cannot be anything

but absolute, that is, not only revolt, but a revolution" (p. 150). Third, colonization [or neo-colonization] causes spiritual [including epistemological] destruction. Therefore, anti colonial struggle must involve the construction of a new self. Fourth, an anti colonial paradigm must detect the site of violence and contestations. In other words, an anti-colonial paradigm must be critically conscious. Memmi writes: "In order to free himself from colonization, the colonized must start with his oppression, the deficiencies of his group" (pp. 151-152). Fifth, an anti-colonial "South Asian paradigm" must resist colonial (or Eurocentric) categorization. South Asian paradigm would invent and define categories to accelerate the process of epistemological and material emancipation.

The "South Asian paradigm" would contain key features of EIL paradigm, because EIL paradigm resists Eurocentrism. Sharifian (2009) describes the following features of EIL paradigm. First, EIL paradigm deals with issues pertaining to TESOL, SLA, and Applied Linguistics. Second, the term 'international English' does not indicate any single variety of English; EIL celebrates the existence of multiple varieties of English language and maintains that English is a language of international and intercultural communication. In other words, EIL recognizes the existence of World Englishes (i.e. Englishes of Inner, Outer and Expanding circles). Third, EIL paradigm maintains that the existence of World Englishes is connected with the pedagogy of ELT. In this context, Sharifian refers to Canagarajah (2006) who argues for revision of the term 'proficiency'. According to Canagarajah, native speakers of English encounter a large number of inner circle and outer circle speakers in their own countries. Therefore, English proficiency involves the ability to negotiate with multiple varieties of English (i.e. "multidialectal competence"). Fourth, EIL paradigm draws insights from cognitive linguistics, cultural linguistics, and intercultural communication. Fifth, EIL paradigm adopts the following methods of inquiry: autoethnognaphy, narrative inquiry, cyber

ethnography etc. Sixth, EIL paradigm covers the issues of identity, ideology and power in ELT pedagogy.

7.3 Creativity/Humanism

"Humanism" of *South Asian Paradigm* is different from the bourgeois humanism of the West. Humanism of *South Asian Paradigm* means peoples' humanism of South Asian communities. Precisely, socialist democracy is the central component of South Asian humanism (Ahmed, personal communication, 2014). This apart, A *South Asian Paradigm* would contain the key principles of Participatory Action Research (PAR). Rahman (1982), a globally acclaimed economist, expounds the following features of PAR. First, PAR refers to action research which is participatory and participatory research which stresses on action. Second, PAR evolved from the epistemology of dialectic materialism. Third, PAR resists "detached observational method of social inquiry" (Rahman, 1992, p. 20). Fourth, PAR maintains that research is not value-free. Rahman writes: "Given the structure of society, the products of specific research activities will be used more by some social classes than by others, naturally to the greater intended benefit of the former" (p. 21). Fifth, PAR holds that research findings/conclusions carry ideological implications. Sixth, detached observational method(s) of research dehumanize and humiliate people. These types of method dehumanize people by objectifying them, and humiliate them by snatching away their agency of generating knowledge. Rahman maintains:

> Ideological bias is direct in the detached observational method of social research that implies a 'subject-object' relationship between the researcher and the researched (the people) in contrast to the 'subject-subject' relationship of participatory action research. Research on oppressed people by external researchers with a subject-object relationship assumes and asserts the myth of the incapability of the people to participate in the research as equals. This humiliates the people, and alienates them

from their own power of generating knowledge relevant for transforming their environment by their own initiative. This makes them wait for elite researchers to come and find out about them, to write about them and make policy recommendations for outsiders to solve their problems. This helps to perpetuate the domination of the people for which as we have observed not only their economic dependence, but also their intellectual dependence on privileged elites, are responsible (pp. 21-22).

In the ELT research establishment, I have observed (my observation is based on the writings of Phillipson, my participation in a number of ELT conferences, and my reading of journal articles on ELT) two layers of dehumanization. West-based ELT or Eurocentric ELT dehumanizes the researchers/ELT teachers of periphery countries. Second, researchers of Periphery countries dehumanize, humiliate, and objectify their research subjects (e.g. students, teachers). To put it another way, dehumanized researchers of Periphery countries are constantly dehumanizing and objectifying teachers and students of Periphery countries. The documented research articles contain the symptoms of dehumanization and objectification. In addition, instruments of data elicitation in these articles established a hierarchical relationship between the researcher and the researched. Seventh, PAR produces objective knowledge. The knowledge produced by PAR is objective because PAR is verified by social practice and collective observations. Eighth, PAR emphasizes on critical self-awareness [critical consciousness], class struggle, and self-assertion of the people. Ninth, PAR stresses on creativity in research [thus, resists mechanical reproduction of knowledge].

It is to note that the *South Asian Paradigm* does not negate quantitative research; this paradigm negates positivism and dehumanization. In addition, this paradigm negates class-biased objectivism of positive research. In my view, objective knowledge of positive paradigm is class-blind, non-democratic, and ideological—an instrument of legitimization and exploitation (see Rashid, p. 64). In other words, objectivism of the positive paradigm is

the objectivism of the elite-researchers. On the other hand, objective knowledge of dialectic materialism depends on the collective verification of people. Therefore, objective knowledge of dialectic materialism is social and democratic. Thus, a South Asian Paradigm would serve the interest of masses.

Chapter Eight

Limitations of the Study

This study contains the following limitations. First, I could not manage to collect all the journal articles produced from 1995 to 2013 in the field of ELE. However, I have covered majority of the articles. Second, in chapter 3, I had to rely on inferential data to discuss research activities of some countries because I did not find any article on these countries that directly deal with research issues. Third, I did not elaborately discuss the new fields that ELT should address by using creative methods, because it was beyond the scope of this study. Finally, the discussion on *South Asian Paradigm* (Chapter 7) is inadequate, because in this work I have simply tried to plant the seed of a new paradigm.

Chapter Nine

Conclusion

I

In chapter 4 ("Methodology") of this study, I raised the following questions: What are the presences in the ELE research establishment of Bangladesh? What are the absences? What is the meaning of absences/silence? What is the unconscious (problematic) of the discipline? What is the mechanism of knowledge production? What produces the knowledge effect? In the analysis, I have shown three types of "presence" in the ELE research articles of Bangladesh: presence of a paradigm (i.e. philosophical framework), presence of themes, and presence of methods. Precisely, symptoms in the articles (closed-ended questionnaire and uncritical quantification) indicate the presence of *positive* paradigm. The 24 categories (i.e. themes) of the journal articles indicate the presence of technicism and *reification* in ELT. In other words, ELT discipline in Bangladesh is disconnected from its people, culture, politics, and philosophy. The presence of a large number of survey research indicates the presence of *dehumanization* in the field; in addition, the presence of a large number of expository essay indicates the presence of *mechanical reproduction* in the discipline. On the other hand, the absence of EIL issues, political linguistics, cultural linguistics, critical pedagogy, dialog, cognitive linguistics indexes toward *academic reification*. By the term "academic reification", I mean narrow-dehistoricized-alienated focus on a particular issue. For instance, researchers of skills tend to alienate thought from language, and skills from human. In other words, these researchers fail to situate language learners in their politico-cognitive world. The researchers also have alienated English language from the cognitive-cultural contexts of Bangladesh. To elaborate, ELT researchers fail to see the conceptual interactions between English, Bangla, and indigenous languages of Bangladesh. The absence of the analysis of

power and identity also indicates the presence of *academic reification*. The absence of case study, Conversation Analysis, ethnography indicates the presence of *positivism-dehumanization* and absence of creative energy in the ELE discipline. In short, the unconscious of the discipline *positive-eurocentric-reified*. The *positive unconscious* is manifested in its choice of research methodology; the *eurocentric unconscious* is manifested in its uncritical attachment with Western ELE theories; the *reified unconscious* is manifested in its themes which rarely address the reality. I have detected the following mechanism of knowledge production in the field of ELE: Western academia and existing mode of production defines the 'real order' (reality) and 'logical order' (concept) of the post-colonial world. Eurocentric philosophy determines the combination/arrangement of real order and logical order. In the drama of knowledge production in the field of ELE, the following characters produce *knowledge effect*: structured questionnaire, observation schedule, statistical formula, and references to published materials.

II

In Chapter 3 ("English Language Education in Asia") I have recorded the research themes of Asia. In this section, I would like to add the research themes of Bangladesh to compare research issues of Bangladesh with that of other countries. Precisely, in Table 9.1 I have added Bangladesh to Table 3.1. Table 9.1 shows that Asian countries (including Bangladesh) deal with similar type of issue.

Table 9.1

Research Themes in Asia (including Bangladesh)

Country	Source	Themes
Hong Kong	Poon (2009)	(a) English language teaching ((i) ELT methods, (ii) the teaching of listening, (iii) the teaching of reading, (iv) the teaching of writing, (v) the teaching of vocabulary, (vi) error correction, and (vii) NET (Native English Teachers) scheme), (b) English language curriculum, assessment and reform, (c) students' perspectives: Motivation and attitudes, learning experience and strategies, (d) teachers' perspectives: Attitudes and values, language awareness, teacher training and qualifications, and (e) learning outcome: Language use, English standards and the impact on teaching and learning
Malaysia	Musa et al. (2012)	L1 Interference, Error Analysis, Learning Strategy, Testing and Evaluation, Teaching Four Skills, Backwash Effect, Teaching Grammar, Language Learning and Identity, Literacy and Language Learning
China	Wenfeng & Gao (2008)	General Context of ELT in China (i.e. Culture of Learning), English used in China, Language policy and planning, curriculum implementation, Learners' experiences, and teacher development

	Hu (n.d.)	Teaching methods, Textbooks, Curriculums
GCC Countries	Issa (2011)	Communicative Language Teaching, SLA, Skill Development, Teacher Training, Testing and Evaluation
Vietnam	Hiep (2006)	Classroom Research/Action Research [inferential data]
Turkey	Borg (2007)	Classroom Research/Action Research [inferential data]
Korea, China, Japan, Indonesia, Malaysia, Singapore, Thailand, the Philippines, Vietnam, Bangladesh, India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Iran, Israel, and the UAE	Choi & Lee (2008)	The Starting Grade, Class Hours, National Curriculum, Textbooks, The Medium of Instruction, The Use of Computer, University Entrance Examination, Teachers, Tertiary English Education (i.e. Curriculum), Primary and Secondary English Education (i.e. Class Size, Methods, Materials etc.) [inferential data]
Japan	Iino (n.d.)	CLT, Speaking and Listening, Testing and Evaluation, Language Education Policy
Bangladesh	This work (2014)	Second Language Acquisition, Language Education Policy, Methods and Techniques,

		Communicative Language Teaching, English for Specific Purposes, Learning Strategy/Style, Listening, Writing, Testing and Evaluation, Error Analysis, Curriculum/Syllabus and Material Design, Reading, Pronunciation, Context, Culture, and Politics, Speaking, Teaching Grammar, Teaching Vocabulary, Teacher Education, Teaching Language Through Literature, IT in ELT, Needs Analysis, Action Research, Teaching Young Learners

III

What should be the telos of ELT discipline in Bangladesh? Should ELT discipline of Bangladesh continue to deal only with mechanical skills? Should it revolve around narrow vocational issues? Should it remain subservient to positive paradigm? The telos of an academic discipline should be determined considering the social, political, and philosophical composition of a space. Since English is an imperial language, research on teaching/learning of this language cannot be isolated from identity, power, and politics. Therefore, the telos of ELT in Bangladesh cannot be narrowly technical. The *South Asian Paradigm* of ELT calls for broadening the horizon of research, demands the application of creative research methodologies, and shows the way to de-alienation and humanization.

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