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Special Thanks
to
Cambridge University Press

Cambridge University Press (CUP) is globally acclaimed and highly reputed publishing institution dedicated to publishing variety of academic materials. The ELT world at large has highly benefited from its publications. NELTA feels privileged to collaborate with Cambridge University Press in different ELT books including *A Course in Language Teaching* by Penny Ur, printed in low priced edition, that address to the needs of Nepalese teachers and students of Nepal and the region.

Cambridge University Press has ever been an unfailing friend of NELTA from its inception. It has been organizing book exhibitions with a provision of special discount for NELTA members during NELTA International Conferences. It has liberally sponsored several activities of NELTA. It has once more shown its generosity by sponsoring the publication of the 11th Volume of NELTA Journal.

NELTA envisages sharing its cooperation with Cambridge University Press in the days to come as well.

NELTA expresses its sincere appreciation and gratitude to Cambridge University Press for its support.
Editorial

Nepal is on the threshold of a new socio-political and cultural change. It has entered into a world of thriving hopes and aspirations. The nation has now started addressing the diversities through various processes of reformation, renewal and restructuring of the total system including politics, administration, academia and the state as a whole. In this process, the language policy is sure to undergo reshaping.

At this moment, people’s aspiration for promoting many valuable indigenous languages through mother tongue education is in the rise. The policy makers as well as the educationists of this nation should facilitate this process of self identification and preservation of our national treasure contained in these languages and cultures. At the same time, we are also faced by another big challenge – a challenge of encompassing the world knowledge in different fields. In this way, we are faced by a dual challenge of identifying with our own rootedness and on the other hand capturing the current events going on around the globe – we are between the global and local.

In this context, the role of English has become more prominent than ever before. It is only English which can be employed to blend the local knowledge with the global so as to foster our endeavour towards the new dimensions.

NELTA was established one and half a decade ago in order to cater for the needs of English teachers and also to promote professionalism in them. In this stretch of time it has offered continued services to the ELT stakeholders in Nepal.

By organizing annual conferences at national and international level, it has provided our ELT professionals with a common meeting ground where they can exchange ideas, opinions and experiences on the current trends and developments in ELT throughout the world. As a part of its regular activity, NELTA has unfailingly produced a professional journal for the last eleven years. The present issue, Volume 11, of the journal certainly reflects varieties in terms of contents, aspects and the contributors.

We are truly thankful to all the individuals and organizations that have generously helped us in continuing our journey safely. Cambridge University Press deserves special thanks for its generosity towards sponsoring the publication of the present issue of the journal.

We would also like to take this opportunity to extend our gratitude to those organizations who have been with us for the last 15 years. Our sincere thanks goes to British Council and American Center for their magnanimous support to the growth of NELTA. Likewise, we would also like to thank Oxford University Press as well as all the contributors in this issue of journal.
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Textbook and its Evaluation

Jai Raj Awasthi, Ph.D.*

What is a textbook?

A textbook is teaching material for the teacher and a learning material for the learner. It is one of the pivotal aspects of the total teaching and learning process. It is the ‘visible heart of any ELT program’ (Sheldon, 1988:237); ‘an almost universal element of teaching’ (Hutchinson and Torres, 1994:315); and a guide for a teacher, a memory aid for the pupils, a permanent record or measure of what has been learnt.

Teachers take textbooks as ‘the bible, a guide, a crutch, a necessary evil, or a burden’ (Gabrielatos, 2004:28). This statement indicates that a textbook can be both, a boon or burden. However, majority of teachers take it as a tool to facilitate their teaching whereas others consider it as a burden to get through. But it largely depends upon the attitude of the people who handle it, as a facilitator or a curse. Those who take it as a helpful tool use it flexibly and ‘combine with other resources’ (ibid).

Cunningsworth (1995) seems to be more explicit to define a textbook as an effective resource for self-directed learning, an effective source of presentation of materials, a source of ideas and activities, a reference source for students, a syllabus where they reflect predetermined language objectives, and support for less experienced teachers who have yet to gain confidence. This statement makes a textbook a composite whole through which its subsidiaries get every benefit. Even the learners find it a source of knowledge which they can acquire without any external help.

Littlejohn and Windeatt (1989) take text materials as hidden curriculum that includes attitudes toward knowledge, attitudes toward teaching and learning, attitude toward the role and relationship of the teacher and students, and values and attitudes related to gender, society, etc. The teachers who remain overindulged in the textbooks would admire such an attitude as they think that the text materials are synonymous to curriculum. Teachers in many developing countries hardly bother to look for the ELT curriculums, as they merely use the state designed textbooks

Abstract

The paper defines a textbook and discusses its advantages and disadvantages. It also distinguishes between authentic and non-authentic materials in the light of their merits and demerits. It justifies the necessity of the evaluation of a textbook and discusses both checklist and non-checklist approaches proposed by various writers in the past. The paper concludes with textbook evaluation framework proposed by McDonough and Shaw (2003), which is more suitable than the other frameworks in our contexts as it is less complicated.

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prescribed for the whole nation. They believe that
the completion of the textbooks is in the completion
of the curriculums as well.

Garinger (2002) believes that a textbook can
serve different purposes for teachers: as a core
resource, as a source of supplemental material,
as an inspiration for classroom activities, even as
the curriculum itself. This view point sheds light
on the dominant roles that textbooks play in the
entire teaching and learning processes. It is, thus,
true that in many cases teachers and students rely
heavily on textbooks, and textbooks determine the
components and methods of learning. ‘Students
learn what is presented in the textbook and the way
textbook presents materials, is the way the students
learn it’ (Kitao and Kitao, 1997:1). The implication
behind this proposition is that it limits the
knowledge of the students to whatever the textbook
offers to them. The teachers do not make any extra
efforts to bring the supplementary materials for the
students to widen the horizon of their knowledge.
Such supplementary materials can be self-created
or adapted from different sources keeping the
linguistic proficiency of the learners in view. Thus,
a textbook that can be used consistently within the
classroom along with the supplementary materials
will be useful for both teachers and students. But
it is again necessary for every teacher in action to
see whether to use the authentic or non-authentic
materials in the classroom.

**Authentic and non-authentic materials**

There is a big debate among the materials writers,
teachers and teacher trainers regarding the use
of authentic and non-authentic materials in the
ELT classrooms. **Authentic materials** are the
texts designed for the native speakers; they are
real texts, designed not for language students, but
for the speakers of the language, (Harmer 1991).
Such materials, if used for language teaching, are
extracted from naturally occurring communication
in the native-contexts following the standard native
norms. Such texts may be real newspaper articles
and reports, advertisements, cooking recipes,
horoscopes, editorials etc. These materials expose
to the learners the real language in ‘real life and
meaningful communication’ (Rogers, 1998, as
mentioned in Kilickaya, 2004). **Non-authentic
materials** are those that are specifically designed
for the language learners. They are either adapted or
simplified or written keeping in mind the language
proficiency of the learners in question.

There has been a recent development in the use
of authentic materials even from the early classes.
‘Recordings of the spontaneous speech expose
the learners to the rhythm of natural everyday
English in a way that scripted materials can not...
authentic passages where the language has not
been graded to reflect the learner’s level of English
afford a listening experience much closer to a real-
life one’(Field,2003:244). Thus, many writers have
given a preference to the use of authentic materials
in language teaching because such materials increase
motivation in learning and get the learners exposed
to the ‘real’ language which they can practice
whenever they are required to do so. Philips and
Shettesworth (1978), Clarke (1989) and Peacock
1997) as mentioned in Richards (2001) give the
following advantages of authentic materials:

- They provide a positive effect on learner
  motivation.
- They provide authentic cultural information.
- They provide exposure to real language.
- They relate more closely to learner’s needs.
- They support a more creative approach to
teaching.

Furthermore, a study conducted by Chavez (1998)
shows that the students enjoy dealing with authentic
materials since such materials enable them to
interact with the real language and its use. However,
pedagogical support is needed through the use of
audio-visual aids, songs, etc.

Despite these advantages of authentic materials,
there are some reservations in the use of such
materials. Richards (2001:253) maintains that
‘authentic materials often contain difficult language
structures, which cause a burden for the teacher in
the lower level.’ However, Jordan (1997) goes for
non-authentic materials at an early stage but stresses
on the need of using authentic materials in the subject area of the students. Gaurianto and Morley (2001) suggest that authentic materials should be used in the post-intermediate level of linguistic proficiency only. There are other reservations also regarding the use of authentic materials as they are culturally biased and incorporate many complicated structures causing lower level students a very 'hard time decoding the texts' (Martinez, 2002). Thus, the teachers who use authentic materials have to be careful while using them. They have to keep in mind the difficulties that the learners are likely to face while studying them. Hence, a careful planning is required to address such difficulties.

Advantages of using textbooks

Different writers have given different advantages of textbooks. Despite their different limitations, which will be discussed later, textbooks are very useful tools in the hand of a teacher. They, yielding a respectable return on investment, are relatively in-expensive and involve low lesson preparation time, cost, and quality effective (O’Neill, 1982, Sheldon, 1988). Thus, they can reduce potential professional overload and provide the teacher with the opportunity to give more time to other worthwhile pursuits.

Richards (2001:1-2) lists the following principal advantages of using textbooks:

- They provide structure and syllabus for a program.
- They help standardize instruction.
- They maintain quality.
- They provide a variety of learning resources.
- They are efficient.
- They can provide effective language models and input.
- They can train teachers.
- They are visually appealing.

Richards (2001), while giving the advantages of a textbook, lays down the essential components that a good textbook encompasses in. He takes a textbook as a composite whole. It includes all the components required in the entire teaching and learning processes such as syllabus, trained teacher, qualitative materials, teaching models and the attractive resources. Above all, the above mentioned points present the key components of a language program when he says ‘they provide the basis for the content of lessons, the balance of skills taught and the kinds of language practice the students take part in... may serve primarily to supplement the teacher’s instruction’ (Richards 2001:1).

Ur (1996:183-95) also gives the following arguments in favor of the use of textbooks:

- A textbook is a frame work which regulates and times the programs.
- In the eyes of the learners, no textbooks means no purpose.
- Without a textbook, learners think their learning is not taken seriously.
- A textbook provides ready made texts and learning tasks.
- A textbook is a cheap way of providing learning materials.
- A learner without a textbook is out of focus and teacher-dependent, and perhaps most important of all;
- For novice teachers a textbook means security, guidance and support.

There is much semblance between these writers regarding the use of the textbooks though they do not explicitly use the same terminologies. However, Richards (2001) gives a much higher accord to the use of textbooks. Learners feel at home with the textbooks in their hands. They are psychologically essential for the learners because their achievement can be measured correctly when they use a textbook. It is through the completion of units in the textbooks and the performance shown by the students in them is eventually a visible measuring rod of their progress as well as achievement.

Disadvantages of using textbooks

Use of textbooks does have some disadvantages as well. It is seen that teachers use the textbooks as their master and follow them as their religious books.
They become less creative and get overindulged in the prescribed textbooks. For many of them, an approved textbook may easily become the curriculum in the classroom (Lamie, 1999) and they will never bother to refer to the curriculum, which leads them as to what they are supposed to teach and the students in turn to learn.

Richards (2001) gives the following list of the disadvantages/limitations of using a textbook:

- They may contain non-authentic language.
- They may distort content.
- They may not reflect students’ needs.
- They can deskill teachers.
- They are expensive.

Richards proposes to make a review of these limitations and remedy their negative consequences.

In the same way, Ur (1996:183-195) gives the following arguments against using textbooks:

- If every group of students has different needs, no one textbook can be a response to all differing needs.
- Topics in a textbook may not be relevant for and interesting to all.
- A textbook is confining i.e. it inhibits teachers’ creativity.
- A textbook of necessity sets rearranged sequence and structure that may be realistic and situation friendly.
- Textbooks have their own rationale, and as such they cannot by their nature cater for a variety of levels, every type of learning styles, and every category of learning strategies that often exist in the class, and most important of all, perhaps,
- Teachers may find themselves as mediators with no free hand and slave, in fact, to others’ judgments about what is good and what is not.

Richards and Ur seem to be in the same boat regarding the limitations of the textbooks. It is true that every language class in the developing countries comprises of heterogeneous groups of learners. As such, addressing their needs and interest is a Herculean task for a textbook writer. Including the need of all individual learners in a single volume will make it an encyclopedia. But in the mean time, exclusion of the need of the learners of the particular linguistic proficiency will de-motivate them as well.

Many teachers become lazy and confine themselves to the spirit of the textbook at hand considering it the ‘curriculum in the classroom’ (Lamie, 1999). They do not consider course materials as their servant and not a master (Cunningsworth, 1984). Thus, a teacher needs to be more active in the use of a textbook in the class considering it as a tool which requires several other things along with it. A resourceful and energetic teacher will create or adapt supplementary materials that suit to the interest and linguistic proficiency of the learners in question.

Thus, both the benefits and limitations of the use of textbooks need to be considered, and if the textbooks that are being used in a program are judged to have some negative consequences, remedial action should be taken, e.g. by adapting or supplementing books or by providing appropriate guidance and support for teachers as to how to use them appropriately.

**Why textbook evaluation?**

Learners are the focal points of any teaching and learning process. This concept is a shift from teacher-centered to learner-centered approach which was developed during the 1970s. This approach led the concept of selecting/designing the textbooks keeping in mind the need of the learners as the ones prepared and published commercially may not address the needs and aspirations of the learners in question. Therefore, it is essential that ‘careful selection is made, and that the materials selected closely reflect (the needs of the learners) and the aims, methods, and values of the teaching program’ (Cunningsworth, 1995:7). Such a procedure requires special skills in the person in charge. Sheldon (1988) thinks it to be an important administrative and educational decision in which there is considerable professional, financial or even political investment. As such, many training institutions offer courses that enable the future teachers and administrators
to equip with skills required to select and evaluate the textbook/materials commercially available in the market all over the world. Cunningsworth (1995) and Ellis (1997) believe that textbook evaluation helps teachers move beyond impressionistic assessments and it further facilitates them to acquire useful, accurate, systematic, and contextual insights into the overall nature of textbook materials (Litz, 2005). The energetic teachers can take it a topic for their action research and come up with potential objective solutions that benefit their own learners. It is through the evaluation of textbook a teacher knows the content of the book, the style in which it is written, and its strength and weaknesses, which facilitate him/her to adapt it to suit the course aims, learners’ needs and the teachers’ beliefs.

**Textbook evaluation practices**

Textbooks were written in the past by their authors in their own perceptions of who their readers would be. There were no empirical studies done to assess whether those materials could produce desired results. It was not until 1970s that such efforts were made. Sheldon (1988:240) says that ‘the literature on the subject of textbook evaluation is not very extensive.’ However, there were strong voices raised for the evaluation of the textbooks by Rivers (1968), Williams (1983), Cunningsworth (1984), Grant (1987) and Sheldon (1987). But it is true that there were not ‘extensive materials’ in this area.

All these authors have proposed different models and frameworks for the evaluation of textbook or course books. Since there is a huge publication of the materials available commercially, the selector or evaluator has to be very careful in his/her undertaking. ‘When selecting commercial materials it is important to match the materials with the goals and objectives of the program, and to ensure that they are consistent with one’s beliefs about the nature of language and learning, as well as with one’s learners’ attitude, beliefs and preferences’ (Nunan, 1991:209).

Richards (2001:3) proposes to seek the information required for the following issues while evaluating the textbooks:

**The role of the textbook in the program**

- Is there a well developed curriculum which describes the objectives, syllabus and content of the program or will this be determined by the textbook?
- Will the book or textbook series provide the core of the program, or is it one of several different books that will be used?
- Will it be used with small classes or large ones?
- Will the learners be expected to buy a workbook as well or should the textbook provide all the practice students need?

**The teachers in the Program**

- How experienced are the teachers in the program and what is their level of training?
- Are they native speakers of English? If not, how well they speak English?
- Do teachers tend to follow the textbook closely or do they use the book simply as a resource?
- Do teachers play a part in selecting the books they teach from?
- Are teachers free to adapt and supplement the book?

**The learners in the program**

- Is each student required to buy a book?
- What do learners typically expect in a textbook?
- Will they use the book in class and at home?
- How will they use the book in class? Is it the primary source of classroom activities?
- How much are they prepared to pay for a book?

These are, perhaps, the most pertinent questions that a person responsible to select or evaluate a textbook bear in mind. For Richards (2001), textbook writing is guided by two factors: the interest of the author who wishes to see that the teachers find his/her book ‘innovative, creative, and relevant to their learners’ need’ and in turn the writer makes financial profit out of its sale, and the interest of the publishers who are after financial benefit only.
Criteria for textbook evaluation

As there are many textbooks available commercially these days, systematic criteria have to be developed or adapted from the ones available in the literature to evaluate them. ‘It is clear that course book assessment is fundamentally a subjective, rule-of-thumb activity, and that no neat formula, grid, or system will ever provide a definitive yardstick,’ (Sheldon, 1988:245). Sheldon further makes it clear that ‘ELT books are frequently seen as poor compromise between what is educationally desirable on the one hand and financially viable on the other’, (p, 237).

Ellis (1997) makes a distinction between two types of evaluation: ‘predictive’, the evaluation done before the textbook is inducted in any program in order to see whether it is best suited to the purpose and ‘retrospective’, the evaluation done after the use of the materials to determine whether the materials worked for the learners. The former is normally done by the experts and the latter by the deliverer. The deliverer on the basis of this evaluation determines whether the material was worthwhile to be used again. It further ‘serves as a means of ‘testing’ the validity of a predictive evaluation, and may point to ways, in which the predictive instruments can be improved for future use,’ (Ellis 1997: 37). Such research works are done empirically or impressionistically. As of now not many such research works are carried out.

Cunningsworth (1995) as mentioned by Richards (2001:4) proposes the following criteria of course book evaluation:

- They should correspond to learner’s needs. They match the aims and objectives of language-learning program.
- They should reflect the uses (present or future) which learners will make of the language. Textbook should be chosen that will help equip students to use language effectively for their own purposes.
- They should take account of students’ needs as learners and should facilitate their learning processes, without dogmatically imposing a rigid “method”.
- They should have a clear role as a support for learning. Like teachers, they mediate between the target language and the learner.
- The individual evaluators take these criteria in their own ways keeping in view the constraints they have to work with it.

Checklist models of textbook evaluation

Various authors such as Rivers (1968), Chastain (1971), Tucker (1975), Breen and Candlin (1979), Daoud and Celce-Murcia (1979), Williams (1983), Cunningsworth (1984), Hutchinson and Walters (1987), Sheldon (1988), Skierso (1991), Block (1991), Ur (1996), Littlejohn (1996), Harmer (1996) and McDonough and Shaw (2003) have proposed their own ways of evaluating textbooks/materials or course books. They have offered check lists to be completed or questions to be answered in course of evaluating the textbooks.

Tucker (1975, 355-360 in Ansary and Babaii, 2002) introduces three broad components necessary to be considered while evaluating the course materials:

- a set of criteria claimed to be ‘consistent with the basic linguistic, psychological and pedagogical’.
- a rating scheme which provides a method for judging the comparative weightings of a textbook’s merits and
- a chart/graph which provides a visual comparison between the evaluator’s opinion of the book and a hypothetical model, hence facilitating a quick and easy display of the evaluator’s judgment.

Tucker (1975) further proposes two broad criteria, external and internal, for the evaluation of textbooks. One way or the other the checklist approach has some flaws. Teachers’ knowledge regarding the course books [Williams (1983), Cunningsworth (1984) and Sheldon (1988)] has not been taken into consideration. Block (1991) gives his own checklist claiming Breen and Candlin (1987) model as ‘extremely complex’. All the checklists and questions differ in their number ranging 25 of Rivers’ (1968) to 40 questions of Breen and Candlin (1987).
Block (1991) falls in between Rivers and Breen and Candlin with 28 questions. All these questions are highly subjective and invite individual answers from the individual assessors making the task of analysis more complicated. A similar is the problem of scoring which also brings subjective quantifications. Some of these authors like Williams (1983) do not give any guidelines as to how to calculate the scores. Many of the evaluators have their theoretical biases such as Tucker’s (1975:357) criterion of ‘adequacy of pattern practice’, Williams’ (1983:255) looking for ‘whether or not a textbook is based on the findings of contrastive analysis of English and L1 sound system’ and Ur’s (1996) ‘good grammar practice.’

It is difficult to claim the globalization of the checklists and questions unless we find identical situations everywhere. Therefore, McDonough and Shaw (2003:61) say that ‘we cannot be absolutely certain as to what criteria and constraints are actually operational in ELT contexts worldwide and some teachers might argue that textbook criteria often are very local.’ Thus, ‘it is unlikely that a published checklist can be used without adaptations as a basis for evaluating and choosing textbooks’, (Richards 2001:4). Therefore, Richards (2001) proposes to set questions of textbook evaluation keeping the particular situation in view ‘around the main issues involved’ such as:

- Program factors- questions relating to concerns of the program.
- Teacher factors- questions relating to teacher concerns
- Learner factors- questions relating to learner concerns
- Content factors- questions relating to the content and organization of the material in the book
- Pedagogical factors- questions relating to the principles underlying the materials and pedagogical design of the materials, including choice of activities and exercises types.

In a less technical way, Williams (1983), Sheldon (1988), Brown (1995), Cunningsworth (1995) and Harmer (2001b) agree that the checklist prepared for evaluating any textbook include criteria pertaining to physical aspects, textbook methodology, content areas such as language functions, grammar and skills. Furthermore, it should also include the items pertaining to the representation of cultural and gender sensitivities.

In addition to the above, Cunningsworth (1995) and Ellis (1997) propose the three types of material evaluation. The ‘predictive’ or ‘pre-use’ evaluation designed to examine the future or potential performance of a textbook. The other types of evaluations are the ‘in-use’ which is designed to examine the material that is currently being used and the ‘post-use’ (reflective) done after the textbook is used for the academic session, (Litz, 2005).

McDonough and Shaw’s (2003) after Tucker (1975) two-staged model for textbook evaluation seems to be less complicated and obviously a logical one. In their own words, ‘we thus examine criteria in two stages; as external evaluation that offers a brief ‘overview’ of the materials from outside (cover introduction, and table of contents), which is then followed by a closer and more detailed internal evaluation’, (McDonough and Shaw, 2003:61). They try to be more comfortable with accommodating Cunningsworth (1995:5) who says ‘it is important to limit the number of criteria used, the number of questions asked, to manageable proportions. Otherwise we risk being swamped in a sea of detail.’ Furthermore, Tomlinson (1991:11) says that ‘the obvious but important point is that there can be no one model framework for the evaluation of materials; the framework used must be determined by the reasons, objectives and circumstances of the evaluation.’

In order to find out the universal criteria of textbook evaluation Ansary and Babaii (2002) attempt to examine ten checklists proposed by various authors and try to ‘locate some theory-neutral, universal, and broad characteristics of EFL/ESL textbooks and to draw up, as such guidelines for the generation and systematic evaluation of EFL? ESL textbooks’ (p.5). They then review ten ESL/EFL textbooks to find out the consensus reached and the elements adopted by the authors of the textbooks in question and on the basis of which they propose a check list.
to evaluate them. They divide their check list into four broad heads: approach (language learning and teaching), content presentation, physical make-up and administrative make up. However, they have excluded the overall evaluation proposed by McDonough and Shaw (1993, first edition). If we compare Ansary and Babaii (2002) with McDonough and Shaw (2003) we find that the evaluation format of the latter is less complicated than the former. Thus, this approach can be suitable for our purposes also. What follows now is the detailed outline of textbook/materials evaluation framework proposed by McDonough and Shaw (2003):

The external evaluation:

McDonough and Shaw (2003) propose to start with the observation of the organization of the materials in the book with the author/publisher's statements in two aspects:

- ‘The ‘blurb’, or the claims made on the cover of the teacher's/students' book
- The introduction and table of contents

These two aspects generally show the quality of the materials included in the textbook. These claims may further help in the process of evaluation of the materials. Comments on the following areas can be made from this initial evaluation:

- The intended audience.
- The proficiency level.
- The context in which the materials are to be used.
- How the language has been presented and organized into teachable units/lessons.
- The author's views and methodology and the relationship between the language, the learning process and the learner.

The other factors they propose to take into account are:

- Are there materials to be used as the main 'core' course or to be supplementary to it?
- Is a teacher's book in print and locally available?
- Is a vocabulary list/index included?
- What visual materials does the book contain (photographs, charts, diagrams) and is it there for cosmetic value only or is it integrated into the text?
- Is the layout and presentation clear or cluttered?
- Is the material too culturally biased or specific?
- Do the materials represent minority groups and/or women in a negative way? Do they present a ‘balanced’ picture of a particular country/society?
- The inclusion of audio/video material and resultant cost. Is it essential to possess this extra material in order to use the textbook successfully?
- The inclusion of tests in the teaching materials (diagnostic, progress, achievement); would they be useful for your particular learners?

The internal evaluation

This is an in depth evaluation of the material. The essential issue at this stage for us is to analyze the extent to which the aforementioned factors in the external evaluation stage match up with the internal consistency and organization of the materials as stated by the author/publisher”, (McDonough and Shaw, 2003:66-67).

As a part of the internal evaluation, the following factors should be borne in mind:

- The presentation of the skills in the materials.
- The grading and sequencing of the materials.

In doing so, McDonough and Shaw (2003) propose the followings questions to be addressed:

- Where reading/ ‘discourse’ skills are involved, is there much in the way of appropriate text beyond the sentence?
- Where listening skills are involved, are recordings ‘authentic’ or ‘artificial’?
- Do speaking materials incorporate what we know about the nature of real interaction or are artificial dialogues offered instead?
The relationship of tests and exercises to (a) learner needs, and (b) what is taught by the course materials.

Do you feel that the material is suitable for different learning styles? Is a claim and provision made for self study and is such a claim justified?

Are the materials sufficiently ‘transparent’ to motivate both students and teachers alike, or would you foresee a student/teacher mismatch?

These questions seek answers regarding the presentation of the materials which further help in their sequencing and grading as per the established psychological principles of learning and teaching.

In addition to the external and internal evaluation, McDonough and Shaw (2003) also propose an overall evaluation of the textbook in the light of the following parameters:

**The overall evaluation:**
- The usability factor
- The generalizability factor
- The adaptability factor
- The flexibility factor

The textbook evaluator has to see the general use of the materials to integrate them with the total syllabus of the grade in question. At times, such materials have to be adapted to suit them to the linguistic proficiency of the learners and be flexible enough in their grading and sequencing.

**Adapting Textbooks**

There is a widespread practice of adapting the textbooks in the ELT world these days. It is done because different countries teaching English practice different culture, tradition, customs and, above all, use different text materials and methodologies. The materials designed keeping in view a particular country and culture may not be equally suitable for others. Therefore, they have to be adapted to suit to the local needs and linguistic proficiency of the learners in question.

**Conclusion**

A textbook is an essential tool in the hand of a skilled teacher. However, a special care has to be taken in its preparation, selection, and or adaptation to suit to the linguistic proficiency of the learners on the one hand and their immediate and future needs on the other. Both checklist and non-checklist approaches have been proposed to evaluate the textbooks in the past. There have also been attempts made to find out the universal criteria of evaluating the textbooks. But the criteria proposed by McDonough and Shaw (2003) seem to be more practical and less complicated for our use.

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English Teaching Situation in Nepal: Elaboration of the theme for panel discussion in the 40th TESOL conference

Govinda Raj Bhattarai, PhD*

Introduction

Geographically, Nepal extends over an area of 54,600 square miles between India and China. The land is made up of four ecological zones - high mountains, hills, valleys, and low plains. About 25 million people live in this land, which presents a rare example of human, socio-cultural, and bio-diversity. More than 90 languages are spoken by different indigenous groups of people within a small tract of land, likewise their cultural and religious traditions are varied. Nepali is the mother tongue for about 50 percent of the total population; it is also the language of wider communication among the people of different linguistic communities and the national (official) language of Nepal. There is no mention of the English language in the constitution of Nepal and the number of its speakers is, as in the latest census 1,037 persons. However, it is found in all the syllabuses from primary to graduate levels.

Historical Background

In Nepal, English was introduced formally in the school level education system about one hundred fifty years ago that is in 1854. At that time even a college was a distant dream let alone think of a university. The oldest Nepali university established one century later is going to celebrate its golden jubilee after three years now. Compared to the history of modern education in the neighboring India and the position that English has occupied there this period is quite short however this has left clear traces of its existence and gradual pace of development in Nepal too. So the position and status of English needs to be compared in relation to the development of the education system of Nepal. While siting the position of English in Nepal, this historical fact should be borne in mind.

English teaching situation is built upon different historical facts, and the way a nation responds to them. Largely, the decision on the questions-

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which foreign language, what type of it and how much of it are decided by the political, historical as well as administrative standpoints which mostly the elitist academia hold. Though Nepal had never been politically under the British colony, it psychologically shared with the Indian experience of being colonized through the English language. Therefore many facts regarding language policy in Nepal share with those of India. For years English has occupied a prominent place in the Nepalese syllabus and for years it stood for the teaching and the learning of it through literary genres, the methods being unquestionably grammar, translation and direct. But the objectives of teaching and learning English were never defined clearly, it was there because Indian system of modern education consisted of English and to a large extent until the early sixties Nepalese education system followed this model, naturally many people then the policy makers of Nepal had earned degrees from Indian universities.

Since the beginning English was taught from primary to the graduate level courses as a compulsory subject, and it has still remained so.

A Major Departure

It was in the early 1970s that the Nepalese government took an initiative towards the total overhauling and restructuring of education system of the country in which the objectives of teaching English or any foreign language for that matter were clearly defined or redefined-- it was introduced as a language of science and technology, foreign contact, tourism and library use. Accordingly the focus of teaching shifted to the development of language skills and so was the method of teaching language skills-- mostly structural-functional. This focused the functional value of English. School level syllabuses were reshaped accordingly. At the university the syllabuses for English for specific purpose were also designed.

It was a major departure from the past; all education system was restructured and centralized as a fully government undertaking. After this the English language experienced a set back as Nepali medium of education was strengthened from the strong nationalistic point of view. Then a bleak situation pervaded a whole decade followed by this, it was then thought that English would disappear gradually from the scene.

A Revival of English

In the early 1980s, which is after a decade, the government commissioned a survey team under Alan Davies, which came out with the Davies Report after an extensive study of the ELT situation in Nepal. Based on the study the survey reported that the overall situation of English was quite deplorable- or its overall standard was considered quite low however in comparison to the amount of resources invested in terms of time and money towards English language (teachers, their trainings, textbooks and other materials) the returns were not encouraging Therefore the report recommended that English should be started from grade eight instead of four and be taught more intensively because even less amount of it would be enough for Nepal-- it was in consonance with the Nepalese ELT experts' opinion too. Until then all education system was under the hold of the government.

In the meantime the private sector came to the fore which prompted the decentralization of education system of the country and the entrepreneurs wanted to invest on education that is by opening up private schools and colleges in parallel with those of the government system. In response to the public demand and the call of the time they started opening up private English medium schools. Firstly, they were confined to the urbn centers, which attracted mostly the high-income group population. Gradually in a span of 25 years today, English medium schools have proliferated extensively far and wide to each and every corner of the nation, every district in the hills and inaccessible high mountains as well as the far-flung places of the nation-- all went for the English medium schools though there in many cases there was a shortage of qualified teachers, appropriate textbooks, and physical facilities. But as a whole they showed better performance and obviously the private sector went far ahead of the government.

Two Schooling Backgrounds

The educated mass of the present day Nepal consists
people with two types of schooling background—Nepali and English medium. The product of latter type of schooling feel more comfortable in using English for personal development, communication, understanding the target culture through video, cinema, and for some years now through especially internet and email. They get employed easily in FM stations, banks, different projects; foreign organisations and get paid lucratively. The young generation has now become a member of the cyber culture, is enjoying world citizenship in a true sense. They enjoy western music, appreciate continental food, wear foreign dress and contact persons and institutions throughout the world for love or employment, for job or higher studies, for travel, enterprise or adventuresome life in any part the world which has now lost all its borders. One can see that thousands of Nepali citizens are applying for foreign visa every month in search of new life in the world. A large amount of national earning goes towards the preparation of TOFL, IELTS and other standardized tests. Anyone who has had English medium schooling has advantages over others in questions of exploring the world. This has lured and attracted all, and this trend is growing further.

Present Status

Today, out of the total approximately 31 thousand primary to higher secondary schools, (that is, grades I to XII), almost half the numbers are English medium ones. In such schools, all subjects except the national language, Nepali, are taught in English whereas, in government owned public schools, all subjects except English language are taught in the national language Nepali. However both these streams meet finally at the same point, compete for the same end when students sit for the same School Leaving Certificate Examination at the end of the Xth grade or Higher Secondary Education Board Examination at the end of the XIIth grade. Altogether about five hundred thousand students appear in each of these national examinations every year, and half of that go for the university level examinations. An alarming number of students from the Nepali medium schools fail because they cannot secure pass marks in English (the failure rate of the students in English at school level is about 55%, at the university it is about 65%). This results in huge wastage in resources. This is the situation of the total education system from the primary to university levels in Nepal.

Despite this, people have always given higher importance to the teaching and learning of English. The reason behind this is that on the one hand it is helping them to grow and grab different opportunities available within and beyond the boarders, it stands synonymously with quality of education, and knowledge about the wider world, it offers attractive career for those who can afford it whereas for those who remain behind, the world is narrow, opportunities limited.

A threat to the Expansion of Language

We cannot define the status of English in Nepal while excluding the political situation of the nation—especially the Maoists’ standpoint.

They have taken the spread of the English language as a main instrument of fostering inequality among the people and have taken it very seriously. Therefore, in course of their action, nothing has suffered as much as the education sector, especially the English medium schools of the rural settings. Those schools had to face threats; they were constantly targeted, bombed, exploded or closed down forever especially in those areas where the Maoist insurgency was very high. Many parents sent their children either abroad or to the neighboring India or to the urban centers of the country. This has further widened the gap between the educational qualities of the rural and the urban population. Thus English is somehow associated with the unrest and conflict in the present day Nepal.
The fact that their claim is not groundless is true, this forces us all to rethink about the application of English in our curriculum. Should we allow it to work as a divider social status or the promoter of values? Does it help us towards the mainstreaming of national life or otherwise? Actually these are serious questions seeking immediate answers.

**A Carving for More English**

Despite this, in a country with a literacy rate of around 50 percent, and women's position quite deplorable, with an annual per capita income of about $200, people's need and also craving for English has now become very strong. This is mainly because they would like to escape the atrocity, terror and death toll mounting within the nation. Therefore a large number of populations is migrating from the country permanently or temporarily, for employment mostly as manual workers abroad. They need minimum level of communicable English for survival. Therefore one can easily find English language training centers, communication centers, or a cyber café at almost every town even outside the capital city of Kathmandu because people have by now experienced that world labor market is more easily accessible to those who possess even the lowest level of survival English and those who have better performance can command higher prestige everywhere. Therefore even the poorest parents wish to enroll their children at the English medium schools that cost them much more than they can afford compared to the free government schools.

Therefore, peoples' craving for more English is very intense and irresistible in Nepal. In the recent years this has compelled even the government policy makers to take new decisions, which have supported the cause for moving towards English medium. These are-

- Firstly, the government had to take a decision of introducing English from grade one against the 25 year-old practice of introducing it from grade four.

- Secondly, it had to get almost all textbooks prepared in the Nepali language translated into English so that even those government schools willing to switch over English medium could go easily. The government took it seriously as its own responsibility. Hundreds of government schools have started using these books. Now there are parallel productions of these books. Unlike this, the private English medium schools are free to choose books of any publication.

Thirdly, and more surprisingly even after many years, Tribhuvan University could not implement its resolution of making Nepali the sole medium of instruction and examination instead in the recent years it has started resorting to the English again, therefore many colleges today have started offering choice between English and Nepali medium of instruction in the classrooms. People with English medium background feel more comfortable in the English medium classes though they cost them more.

**A Foreign Language**

In Nepal English has a status of a foreign language. For years it has been used mostly for academic purposes and it will remain so for years to come. There is no particular speech community as such that uses English for oral day to day communication however we can see that the new generation is developing almost bilingual and bicultural skill in English.

The use of English is confined to formal situations only. Even in future there is little likelihood that English may be required as a spoken variety. Since Nepali serves as a *lingua franca*, English is not required as a language of unification, wider communication or national integration to any extent as in the case of India. International seminars, conferences, and sessions are held in English. There are about 50 regular publications including dailies, weeklies and magazines in English. Most of the academic journals are however published in English as English is considered as the language of intellectual discourse. Most of the research reports and dissertations are also produced in English. There is large number of readership in English; the largest bookstalls in Kathmandu sell books in English. The volume of creative writing in different literary genres is very small yet more writers are coming up with their creations in English. The bulk
of Nepali literature in translation is very large--more than 500 titles have appeared in English translation alone.

Almost all the textbooks for all subjects including the English language from primary to graduate level are written or compiled and edited or translated by Nepali writers. As David Crystal has mentioned in his Encyclopedia of the English Language, Nepalese English of standardizing variety is emerging gradually.

One of the most important roles of English in Nepal is that it has become the only voice of human rights and democracy and is helping people to fight for these causes. Through this they receive information and make their voices heard. This is the only language with which the educated mass, intellectuals, freedom fighters, and human rights activists can hold their dialogue with the rest of the world. The nation would be shrouded in darkness of oppression and atrocity if there were no English language. Surprisingly, we hear the voices of even those who remain dead against the spread of English, through English and in English. Thus English is a great liberator, a common language for the oppressed and the oppressor, the democrat and the dictator for putting their causes before the world. Ultimately we are in need of more English to guarantee humanity, democracy and peace.

**Challenges**

The development of ELT in Nepal is fraught with challenges. Its strongest foundation is the education system through which proper materials and methods of teaching and learning more practical and useful as well as current English should be promoted. It is high time for the government to start a massive survey or study to find out the attitudes of the people towards English, to conduct intensive research on the Nepalese variety of English, if any, and to design curriculum and support materials in order to access the large mass of the marginalized and deprived population who live a very destitute life in complete darkness of poverty, ignorance and illiteracy.

English in Nepal should now address the desire of the grassroots level of population. It has given nothing to the lives of those who have undergone untold suffering; at present they see a darker future ahead. We should show and prove how English can benefit them, how it can transform their life, what promises it has for them in store. So long as they see it merely as an elite's lot, or only rich peoples' instrument, or an expensive fashion in the urban settings, the whole foundation of ELT and so of the education system will always remain shaky, always challenged and resisted as the English medium schools have experience during mounting insurgency. For this, not only the government but also the collaborating agencies (like NELTA, the American Center) should cooperate and work for laying a strong foundation.

One of the serious challenges that Nepal is facing is the problem of teacher development. Despite long institutional efforts of the government, the scarcity of trained English language teachers is always being felt. Only 45% of the teachers are trained. The problem is compounded by the government's decision of introducing English from grade one taken a few years ago. Even trained teachers need to be updated and refreshed.

The second challenge we face is the lack of adequate and appropriate materials for teachers and students both. Almost all textbooks are prepared by the Nepali writers and some imported from India. The curriculum has clearly mentioned that the method of teaching to be adopted would be communicative and accordingly, listening and speaking components are focused from the very beginning but the teachers' qualification and their experience contradict with this objective. Besides, they have to handle very large classes without any physical facility in many cases, without electricity.

Materials production suitable for supporting the communicative approach is very urgent although most of the students may not come across a situation to communicate in English.

**THE ROLE OF NELTA**

In Nepal there are some non-government organizations helping to develop English. There is LAN, Literary Association of Nepal, a common
forum for discussing English literature produced in Nepal or abroad, there is LSN, the Linguistic Society of Nepal, a common forum for linguists, and NELTA, a professional association of the English language teachers of Nepal like SPELTA, or BELTA or SLELTA in the neighboring countries. There are more than 400 life members of this organization who are English language teachers from primary to university levels and have voluntarily supported the institution. This is the largest and most active of organizations in Nepal.

After its establishment in 1991, NELTA has worked continuously towards the promotion of ELT situation in Nepal. Its major objectives are:

- To raise the standard of ELT in Nepal by conducting training programs, workshops, seminars, conferences etc.
- To collaborate with government in various fields such as ELT curricula, materials production, training etc.
- To provide a forum for extending relationship among individuals, institutions and associations having similar goals.
- To foster the exchange of ideas, resources and information and experience among people associated with ELT.
- To publish ELT materials, journals and periodicals.
- To establish a network among the professional associations with similar interests and goals.

NELTA is successful in carrying out its objectives to a large extent. It has recently completed its 11th International Annual Conference. More than 400 member participants, 48 presenters from home and abroad, attended the three-day mega event, in which Prof. Ted Rodgers from University of Hawaii was present as a keynote speaker. The government has fully recognized the role and importance of NELTA and has extended support to in many activities of its 14 branches in the country and very frequently has collaborated with the Central Executive in many policy-making areas such as designing curriculum, training teachers, conducting practical examination etc. NELTA President is the Chair of the Subject Committee of English for the Higher Secondary Education Board. This is a great honor given to the faith NELTA has earned by working for the promotion of ELT in these intervening years. It is also a great honor for NELTA to have been given an opportunity to participate in the TESOL conference. After thirteen years of its establishment, the NELTA president is participating in this conference for the first time. Personally, I extend my gratitude to RELO and the American Center on behalf of NELTA and the nation as a whole.

**Future for ELT**

ELT in Nepal has a clear scope for endless days in the future. There is no alternative to English, a language of global importance, of library, diplomacy, business, education and employment and the promotion of human rights and the establishment of democracy. Even national development, administration and governance are stagnant unless we interpret the achievements made in IT, which is largely the interpretation or understanding of English in our languages.

**The Role of Foreign Institutions**

Foreign institutions like the British Council or the American have supported the activities of NELTA. Their role in bringing peace by helping establish an equitable society in Nepal is more crucial. By helping the national organizations like NELTA they can make English language accessible to the people of disadvantaged communities. Nepali students are spending millions of dollars towards the preparation of IELTS and TOEFL tests, special mechanisms could be developed to provide these facilities at reduced cost to the people living in remote areas.
Use of Authentic Materials in EFL Classrooms

Tirth Raj Khaniya, PhD*

Abstract

Even though most teachers of English learn the importance of authentic materials in EFL classrooms, many of them do not use them in our situations for the reasons that preparation or selection of them could be time taking and difficult, and even when they use them sometimes, the teachers may be charged for bringing foreign culture in the classroom. This paper attempts to help those who are interested in using authentic materials in EFL classrooms by providing some useful ideas about what authentic material is, how it should be selected, how to use them in the classroom, and how to address the issue of cultural things contained in the materials. This paper argues that use of authentic materials, no doubt, contributes to enhance learning for which the teacher must be prepared to devote time and energy to look for appropriate type of material according to the age and interest of the students.

Introduction

This paper aims at presenting some candid views on what authentic material is, when and how authentic materials should be used in EFL classrooms. It suggests how to select authentic materials and how to address the issue of cultural biases while using authentic material in the classroom.

In the recent years, many teachers involved in foreign language teaching have discussed the use of authentic materials in an EFL classroom. We frequently hear voices insisting that the English presented in the classroom should be authentic, not produced for instructional purposes. Generally, by authentic materials, people tend to accept the language naturally occurring as communication in native-speaker contexts of use, or rather those selected contexts where standard English is the norm: for example, real newspaper reports, real magazine articles, real advertisements, cooking recipes, etc. Most of the teachers throughout the world would agree that authentic texts or materials are beneficial to the language learning process. However, the issues like when authentic materials should be introduced and how they should be used in an EFL classroom are debatable.

In the course of the decade, the use of authentic materials has become increasingly popular in learning situations ranging from traditional intensive ESL to language training for professionals. Particularly in the latter setting, many instructors are starting to recognize the possibilities offered by material that is not bound by textbook format limitations and can be applied to multiple tasks and learning objectives.

Most teachers accept that authentic materials can be used to develop tasks that depart from formulaic language learning and provide a bridge between the linguistic skills of learners and their professional knowledge goals if they are appropriately selected and implemented. Such materials, in their various formats, can provide a wealth of linguistic and conceptual content to learners who are focused on specific applications of their linguistic skills.

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As the field of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), by its narrowly defined nature, requires the use of content materials that are not always constructed for the purpose of language learning, it can be taken as an example to support the view. In order to identify and implement the most useful and relevant material for ESP courses, instructors will have to design and organize classroom tasks that facilitate a sequence of information gathering, processing and presentation.

**Authentic Materials: Definition**

Authenticity, in the context of language learning materials, can be described as the degree of congruence between the language of a learning material and the features of target language use. It is suggested that no contrived or simplified version of language should be used in a language task as far as possible. Without the use of authentic materials while exposing learners to EFL situation, it is difficult to anticipate how the learner will perform in the real situation. As a matter of fact, use of a simplified text tells us nothing much about a learner's actual communicative ability. Therefore, in a communicative language classroom, authentic materials should be used in order to facilitate the learning process.

The definitions of authentic materials are slightly different in literature. What is common in these definitions is 'exposure to real language and its use in its own community'. Rogers (1988) defines it as 'appropriate' and 'quality' in terms of goals, objectives, learner needs and interest and 'natural' in terms of real life and meaningful communication. Harmer (1991) defines authentic texts as materials which are designed for native speakers; they are real text; designed not for language students, but for the speakers of the language. Jordan (1997) refers to authentic texts as texts that are not written for language teaching purposes. Authentic material is significant since it increases students' motivation for learning, exposes learner to the 'real' language as has been discussed. Based on the arguments presented in the literature, the following can be regarded as the main advantages of using authentic materials:

- They have a positive effect on learner motivation.
- They provide authentic cultural information.
- They provide exposure to real language.
- They relate more closely to learners' needs.
- They support a more creative approach to teaching.

By using authentic material, it can be claimed that learners are being exposed to real language and they feel that they are learning the 'real' language. The authentic materials make us excited and willing to use them in our classrooms, but while using them, it is inevitable that we face some problems. In other words, using authentic material is not without problems.

**Problems with Authentic Materials**

No matter how we appreciate authentic materials, they are not without problems. Richards (2001) argues that authentic materials often contain difficult language, unneeded vocabulary items and complex language structures. Because of that they cause obviously some difficulty for the teacher in lower-level classes. Martinez (2002) also is of the opinion that authentic materials may be too culturally biased and too many structures are mixed. They may give lower levels a hard time for decoding the texts. Here comes the question of when authentic materials should be introduced and used in a classroom. In this context, one would ask: can we use authentic materials regardless of our students' level?

Furthermore, the English we use in a foreign language context looks different from how the native speakers use in their own contexts. It is difficult to argue that using authentic material will facilitate the process of learning if we put it in our context. The involvement of a foreign culture makes the problem even worse. In this situation, the idea of using authentic material in our classroom cannot be accepted without much debate. This also brings the notion of what English (any specificity in terms of culture and country?) we teach and study?

**Using Authentic Materials: At Which Level?**

Guariento and Morley (2001) claim that at post-
intermediate level, the use of authentic materials is available for use in classroom. The point behind this argument could be that at this level, most students master a wide range of vocabulary in the target language and most of the structures. It is also noted that, at lower levels, the use of authentic materials may cause students to feel de-motivated and frustrated since they lack many lexical items and structures used in the target language. It is stated that the use of authentic materials is a burden for the instructors teaching beginning students as they have to spend a lot of time to prepare for authentic materials regarding the ability level of the students.

Does it mean that we are not able to use authentic materials in lower-level classes apart from post-intermediate and advanced levels? There is another view regarding the use of authentic materials presented by the survey carried out by Chavez (1998). In the survey, it is argued that learners enjoy dealing with authentic materials because authentic materials enable the learners to interact with the real language and its use. Also they do not consider authentic situations or materials innately difficult. What is important to note is that the teacher needs pedagogical support to use such materials in terms of training and classroom environment. Most things, it looks, depend upon what materials we use and how we use them. In this context, using authentic materials in EFL classrooms at intermediate or Higher Secondary Level, as has been proposed, seems logical.

How to face the difficulty?
Learners feel better with authentic materials. Authentic materials help them involve in the ‘real’ language as long as we, as teachers, provide them with pedagogical support. In order to achieve this, we have a wide range of choices. Martinez (2002) suggests that teachers may use authentic materials for the learners to listen for the gist of the information presented and also he adds that by using authentic materials teachers will have the opportunity to encourage students to read for pleasure especially certain topics of their interest. It is claimed that using audio-visual materials aiding students’ comprehension is beneficial since it will prevent students especially beginning ones from being frustrated about authentic materials. Materials such as popular and traditional songs will help us to create a non-threatening environment.

Guariento and Moley (2001) suggest that authentic materials should be used in accordance with students’ ability and adds that suitable tasks can be given to learners in which total understanding is not important. According to Jordan (1997), in the earlier stages, non-authentic materials can be used, but stresses that upon students’ dealing with materials from their own subject area, authentic materials should be introduced.

Cultural Content
One of the problems with authentic materials is the involvement of a particular type of culture. The question is: How to address this issue?
Elsewhere, ‘culture’ is defined as the customs, values, laws, technology, artifacts and art of a particular time or people. Culture in English language teaching materials has been subject to discussion for many years. The reason for the use of cultural content in classroom is for the supposition that it will foster learner motivation.
Changes in linguistic and learning theory suggest that culture can be used as an important element in language classrooms. It is also important to note, at this juncture, that many students do not want to learn about the culture of the target language. This might be because of the fear of assimilation into what they perceived as something strange to them. Also, misrepresenting cultures by reinforcing popular stereotypes and constructing these cultures as monolithic, static ‘Others’, rather than as dynamic, fluid entities might result in failure in making cultural content an effective element in language learning and teaching (Guest 2002).

In any case, it can be accepted that cultural content is a key to effective teaching and learning a language provided that problems arising from introducing culture into EFL classroom are dealt with effectively and teaching strategies and learning materials are chosen appropriately.
Advantage of Cultural Content

As all we know, knowing a language goes beyond the knowledge of grammatical rules, vocabulary items, and pronunciation of these items. Successful language learning requires language users to know the culture underlying the language in order to get the meaning across. Also, Tseng (2002) suggests that culture effect changes in individual perception and is vital for expanding an individual’s perspective of the world. According to Stuart and Nocon (1996), learning about the culture of actual target language speakers as well as about one’s own culture requires tools that assist language learners in negotiating meaning and understanding the communicative and cultural texts in which linguistic codes are used. Also, Shanahan (1997) states that cultural content provides exposure to living language that a foreign language student lacks. So, culture is not something consisting of facts to be learnt, but a helpful tool to make learners feel the need to speak and use the target language.

How Can We Deal with Problems?

Today, English teachers have a lot of choices in terms of textbooks. The problem with many of them is that they rely on uninteresting textbooks that focus students' attention on grammatical structures, and on practice in isolation. Also, the activities chosen are based on teacher-talk and student-listen routines as suggested. These practices are unlikely to lead students to develop a genuine interest in learning English. As a matter of fact, students lacking motivation to learn a language need variety and excitement. We should help them to notice that learning a language is not just learning its grammatical rules, vocabulary items and so on.

The reason for the use of cultural content in classroom is that it will foster learner motivation. Many experts believe that there should be a variety of culture in the materials and not only an overload of western culture in ELT classrooms. Besides, learning about a culture does not mean accepting that culture. If the role of the culture in the materials is just to create learner interest towards contents and thus towards language, that is highly desirable. At the same time it should also be taken into consideration that overuse of cultural material in the language classrooms will constitute problems not for only students but also for the teachers eventually decreasing the motivation.

McKay (2000) identifies three types of cultural materials: target culture materials, learners’ own culture materials and international target culture materials. For her, the best one is international target language materials, which supposedly covers a variety of knowledge from different cultures all over the world using the target language. That will most probably increase the learners’ interest rather than imposing only one culture all the time and prevent learners from having the fear of assimilation into a specific culture, and help them respect other people’s cultures. Students’ own culture should be discussed together with target culture. In other words, home and target culture should be integrated. While using cultural content in classrooms, teachers should keep in mind that English is an international language, and culture is an aid to motivate our students rather than something to be taught.

Sources of Authentic Materials

Today, taking advantage of technological developments, we have access to many sources easily and quickly for authentic materials. Almost all the printed materials are on the Internet in electronic forms and we can easily search anything anytime. As a result, we do not lack authentic materials to use in our classrooms. Cullen and Sato (2000) suggest practical techniques and a wide range of sources for using authentic materials in the EFL classroom. According to Jordan (1997), the following sources can be exploited for authentic materials:

- Newspapers: these are a good source of cultural information: local papers will give more of a flavor of everyday life in towns.
- Video: a number of published ELT video tapes are a good visual source of cultural information. (Today, we have CD/DVD versions of these video tapes, which provide us with better quality.)
Selection of Authentic Materials

The use of authentic materials in the language classroom presents instructors with several challenges. One such challenge is development of effective research skills required to manage the vast amount of information available in written, spoken, or multimedia format. An additional challenge is the selection of material most appropriate to the objectives of a curriculum, a course, or even a single task. A third challenge is the implementation of materials and the subsequent demands of flexibility and adaptation of instruction that may not be confined to a traditional classroom setting.

Attempting to find the exact materials in a vast sea of professional publications and media formats can be a daunting task for any language instructor. The first step in identifying appropriate materials is to gather samples of professional writing, reading, and other training materials from the trainees’ place of employment. Using the Internet has also become an increasingly useful tool. With one million pages of information added every day, the Internet is indispensable to any instructor looking for specialized content.

In selecting the right materials, the instructor needs to consider, at least, three basic aspects of the trainees’ backgrounds:

1. Linguistic
2. Conceptual
3. Cultural

Linguistic background influences classroom management, the selection of tasks, the sequencing and execution of tasks, and the focus of micro-skill instruction (such as pronunciation and accent reduction). Conceptual (or knowledge) background determines the need for specificity or generality of information in the selected materials. Cultural background affects trainee-instructor interaction, the formality or informality of classroom interaction, and expectations of traditional instructor and trainee/student roles.

Any instructor, whether conducting training in a domestic setting or abroad, needs to develop a strong awareness of these aspects. Knowing what to expect and how to react to demands that are culturally defined, influenced by traditional systems of education, and characteristic of specific professions, will help the instructor effectively manage both the training process and its outcome.

Two additional factors that influence the final decision of what materials to incorporate into specific language tasks are applicability and adaptability. The trainees’ current career goals will affect the range of applicability of the material. A body of authentic text containing very broad business concepts, for example, can be considered useful if its content can be integrated into tasks that are relevant to all trainees, regardless of their specialization. At the same time, a large body of text, such as an annual report, might contain a variety of specialized information sufficient to address individual needs demonstrated in the student population. Generally, the content of the material is more easily understood and processed by trainees when it is closely related to their field of employment, the industry in which they work, and their professional reality.

Adaptability refers to the ease of task design and ease of text manipulation. If the material can be incorporated into both oral and written communication courses, its adaptability makes it more suitable for classroom use than material that can be applied to only one task.

Implementation and design

Incorporating the material into classroom tasks is often difficult because of the perception that language tasks are incompatible with the rhetorical organization of business material. However, once the business material is identified and the instructors determine what part can be incorporated
into what task, the material can be manipulated to serve learners at different proficiency levels, each with diverse linguistic objectives. The materials can be used in whole or in part, and conceptual complexity can be reduced or increased according to the individual or collective goals of trainees.

Most instructors are accustomed to diverging from the textbook and customizing classroom tasks to some degree. Maintaining elements of textbook-driven structure allows them to develop tasks that retain familiar elements of organization, and to incorporate new information from authentic sources with greater ease. However, designing tasks based on authentic materials alone requires instructors to start the material design process from a less organized and more ambiguous level. Once a certain body of information is identified, instructors must decide the most appropriate means of implementation in the classroom.

Several factors can serve as general guidelines for this decision. The main one is content relevance. The material must contain terminology, concepts, and linguistic complexity that reflect the students’ background knowledge.

Additionally, the material needs to contain linguistic elements applicable to the general objectives of the training and the trainees’ individual goals and practical skill-building requirements. The more relevant the material is to the trainees’ professional activities, the more effective the training becomes. Furthermore, tasks addressing immediate communication needs are more likely to be perceived as more significant than tasks addressing skills that may be used at a later stage in the trainee’s career.

Another factor that affects implementation of authentic materials is meaningful skill acquisition. Trainees who are exposed to contextualized skill practice have a chance to explore the flexibility of their skills and experiment with new professional applications. This process allows trainees and instructors alike to assess the usefulness of any particular body of materials and reassess priorities of learning objectives.

Conclusion

While authentic materials hold great promise for trainees who are focused on practical language use, the use of authentic language contexts does not relieve the instructor’s burden of materials development. On the contrary, the process of development for courses based on authentic materials requires longer time frames and more complex designs than it does for textbook-based courses. Many instructors may be dissuaded from using authentic materials because they require an initial investment of time that may not be feasible or realistic in the instructors’ teaching situation. Each instructor must make a decision on how important authentic material is to a particular program, based on the program’s goals.

When instructors decide that authentic material will make significant contributions toward meeting a program’s learning objective, the process described here may be used as a starting point in researching, identifying, and accumulating appropriate materials. Each body of authentic text, speech, or video segment must be matched with expected language skill outcomes and evaluated using the criteria described here or additional criteria developed for specific programs and situations. To further illustrate the flexible nature of authentic materials, some tasks based on a corporate annual report are described on the next page.

Authentic materials enable learners to interact with the real language and content rather than the form. Learners feel that they are learning a target language as it is used outside the classroom. Considering this, it may not be wrong to say that at any level authentic materials should be used to complete the gap between the competency and performance of the language learners, which is a common problem among the nonnative speakers. This requires the language patterns being put into practice in real life situations. Since learning about a culture is not accepting it and the role of the culture in the materials is just to create learner interest towards the target language, there should be a variety of culture in the materials, not a specific one.
References


English in Nepal from the Past to the Present

Krishna Chandra Sharma, PhD*

Introduction

The use of English in Nepalese society has become a marker of culture and civilization. No aspect of Nepalese social life remains unaffected by the ubiquitous impact of English. The educated people use full sentence English in their conversations and expressions whereas less educated / uneducated ones use words and phrases but no conversation and no expression goes without some touch of English. To ignore English in the present social context of Nepal is to be out of mainstream of social ideal and such person would be seen as odd and eccentric. This fact is beautifully expressed by Bhattarai and Gautam (2005) “The only factor that has lured the Nepali society, rich and poor alike is the English language, now as a subject and medium both (p.1)”.

The best evidence of Nepalese young generation’s passionate longing for English can be seen in the enrollment of around two thousand students in M.A. in English and almost the same number of students in M.Ed in English, in the current session of 2006/7 at Tribhuvan University. In fact, the English language has created its unique culture empire, millions of people round the globe who use it either as native language (L1) or second language (L2) or as a foreign language (L3) are respectable members of this empire. Nepal has joined the group under L3 “English as a foreign language”.

Historical Background

The first British who came to Nepal were Missionary people. Father Craybrawl arrived here in 1628 and Father Grover and Father Dorbil in 1661; and their mission was to convert people into Christianity (Gopinath 2000: 33). In those days, Nepal was not very open to religious matter so the missionary stopped their work and left Nepal. So far the history of official entry of the English language in Nepal is concerned, it is with the establishment of the first modern school Durbar High School in 1854 A.D. It was particularly established for the children of the Ranas and had the objective of making the Rana sons know English and thereby the Rana rule in Nepal would have easy access to British empire. The Ranas had

Abstract:
The indication of English in Nepal has crossed one and half a century now. Its importance is growing day by day. The present paper makes a thorough overview of English language teaching in different perspectives. It also records the contribution made by different governmental and non-governmental agencies.

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seen unless they please the British Empire their rule in Nepal would not be safe. Thus, the introduction of English in Nepal had a deep vested interest of the Rana autocrats. It was tantamount in the miniature form to the macro global interest of British Empire to root and expand its rule through the introduction of English as official language and language for instruction. It is obvious in a colonial context that the role of English in the 18th and 19th centuries was associated with the interest of the British Empire. But in the Post colonial modern context it is no more the colonial marker but a powerful agency to erase the colonial gap between ‘we, the west’ and the rest of the world as ‘the others’.

From 1854 A.D. to 1947 only 13 secondary schools were opened (Gopinath 2000: 117). There was no college and university for higher education in Nepal until Trichandra College was opened in 1918. English for higher level was introduced with the opening of Tri Chandra College. However there was no provision for teacher training. ELT in Nepal started in 1971 with the implementation of National Education System Plan (NESP) and the same year Tribhuvan University started B.Ed Programme in English education (Awasthi 2003: 22).

**Changed Position of English**

English has been globally used and so the monopoly of native speaker of English over its stock of knowledge has become a myth. Its role has undergone a sea change from Colonial context to Post colonial context, from the top down approach to bottom up approach, from rulers’ language to everybody’s language. Relating the standard of English with native speaker is like demeaning the widened space and value of English. Now eight distinct varieties of world English are globally accepted and practiced. These are British, American, Canadian, Australian, Caribbean, African, South Asian and East Asian. Nepal being a part of South Asia uses ‘South Asian standardized English’ (Bhattarai and Gautam 2005:2). At present English is the language of science and technology, commerce, business, banking and industry, civil aviation, hotel management, tourism, media, communication, advertisement, diplomacy and internet. It is the voice of progress and modernization. A developing country like Nepal can not ignore the vast space open to the process of progress and modernization through the knowledge of English. Keeping away from the treasure of English is almost intended suicidal. It is in this context Malla (1977) writes why Nepalese people should learn English: “We shall have to learn English, not because of its prestige value but because of its practical utility, particularly in the face of our own limitations- material as well as non material (p 24)”. English being the language of science and technology and an effective tool for modernization, as being the language of international business and banking Nepal must use it to keep pace with the momentum of global progress and to enjoy these developments. Higher the education, higher the opportunity and the more frequent use of English. “Computerized database and telecommunication network” has become “important part of academic and business life in Nepal (Nath 2006:147). In the present age the world has become very small, very accessible due to e-commerce, internet networking, tourism, and swift transportation and TV channels. Most of these agencies mainly use English as their medium. Nepalese people especially young ones want to feel the sense of the global village and be the part of it. As a result, every year the number of Nepalese students studying in abroad and Nepalese people working overseas are incredibly increasing. This context has created the situation in which the status of English is gradually changing from EFL to ESL, from L3 to L2 in Nepal.

**English in Education Sectors**

Nepal has embraced English at the heart of educational planning. Appropriating the significance of ELT Kansakar (1998) writes “Since the teaching of English in Nepal has assumed greater importance in view of the developmental needs of the country. ELT has now become an essential component in Nepal’s educational strategy (p 72)”. In the schools run by private sectors English is taught from nursery level, all subjects except Nepali are taught in English. Thus, English as a medium for other subjects and English as content (structure,
literature) begins from very inceptional stage of education. English is accepted as compulsory school subject in the curriculum. In government aided community schools, English is taught from grade one. As the objective of compulsory English courses is to make the students communicatively skilled, the syllabus should be communicative approach focused ‘non elective courses’; elective courses should be optional. Curriculum Development Centre (CDC) of the government of Nepal, in view of communicative approach changed the curricula of primary level, lower secondary level and secondary level got changed and new curricula became effective from 1992 for Primary level, from 1994 lower secondary level and from 1998 secondary level. To implement the changed curricula effectively teacher training programmes were launched. English is a compulsory subject upto graduation. Besides compulsory English courses, there are elective courses in English. Elective courses offered under Faculty of Education at Tribhuvan University (FOE) for I.Ed. B.Ed. M.Ed concentrate on English grammar, skills, functional English, ELT methods, language theory, practice and pedagogy whereas elective courses offered under Faculty of Humanity and Social Sciences (FOHSS) for I.A, B.A and M.A are primarily different genres of literature and literary theory. About literary courses Kansakar (1988) writes: "Literary courses do not aim to teach language through literature (77) ".

English is also taught for specific purposes (ESP) in the Faculty of Law, in the Institutions of Medicine, Engineering, Agriculture, Forestry, Colleges of Banking and Financial Studies. It is the medium of instruction for science subjects at all levels of college and university and most of the subjects of management, education and humanities at TU, the same is the case in Purbanchal University and Pokhara University, and most of subjects at Kathmandu University are taught in English medium. In these universities students are also taught how best to use English for academic purpose (EAP), for writing research paper, M.A. thesis and Ph.D. dissertation.

There are also some private colleges affiliated to Cambridge University U.K. that offer courses for A and O levels and there are some other colleges that offer under graduate and graduate courses like Hotel Management, Management Information, Information Technology, Computer Sciences, Business Administration, Graphic Design, Engineering and Architecture, Tourism and Medicine. The medium of instruction in all these colleges is exclusively English and they use imported ELT materials.

There are many language institutions in major cities of Nepal. They run classes for TOEFL, GRE and many other language tests. They also run English coaching and tuition classes. Most of them are run by English teachers. It has become an extra job as well as a lucrative business for such teachers. They also use ELT materials imported from the west.

**Determining Students’ Language Needs:**

Though Nepalese Government is spending a huge amount of money in the name of teachers’ selection procedure and teacher training, and FOE in T.U has been constantly training English teachers since 1957, expected success is still invisible. The main point that we miss is we never made sincere research on language needs of students and develop ELT curriculum on the basis of need analysis and amend the curriculum on the basis of measurement of students’ achievement in ELT. We fail to grasp the centre but keep on hanging in the periphery. This is the fact what Victoria Chan (2001) says ‘The learners are often seen as the best judges of their own needs and wants because they know what they can and cannot do with the target language and what language skills are most essential (p.17)”. She describes how in 1996 the Department of English, Honkong University conducted a research with 701 undergraduates from all departments and 47 teachers from Department of English to determine students’ English problem at the tertiary level. After piloting students’ questionnaire and interview responses from teachers and program coordinators the research on ‘Determining Students’ Language Needs in Tertiary Setting’, the need analysis located eight areas of problems in students’ English.

1. General Learning Preferences: “Fossilized
learning habits from the local education system are a big problem”.

2. Total Learning Environment: Students do not have the opportunity to interact with English speakers; they lack the chance to use English outside the classroom.

3. Mother tongue interference.

4. Student motivation: They are not motivated to read English newspapers and magazines, to watch English TV programmes. No motivation for self improvement.

5. Student autonomy: ‘They lack the skill to learn independently’.

6. Readiness for risk taking in language learning: “Students are afraid of making mistakes in front of peers.

7. Confidence in using English: “Students find it hard to write concisely and confidently in English”.

8. General language standard: “Their English language standard is generally poor”.

Main thrust of finding is that students could not express themselves in English, they lack opportunity to speak English, have weak vocabulary; do not understand English accent. On the basis of that the suggestions were made to amend the ELT curriculum. (Chan 2001 pp 16-21).

**Teacher Development system/ Teacher Training**

All programmes under FOE are mainly for teacher training either pre-service teacher training or in-service teacher training. It started training English teachers at the undergraduate and the graduate levels since 1957. I.Ed is training for primary and lower secondary level teaching and B.Ed for secondary level teaching, and teachers from B.A., B.B.S and B.Sc background can get teacher training through one year B.Ed programme. Government of Nepal established National Centre for Educational Development (NCED) as the centre for teacher training. It is the only institution at present that trains Nepalese in-service English teachers.

In the 10th five year plan, the guiding document for teacher development program visualized that licensing and training should be compulsory for every teacher and the required qualification for primary teacher should be upgraded from SLC to Intermediate level (HMG/ NPC, 2002). The document also highlights various other elements that help improve the quality of teaching such as using computer technology in teaching learning process and develop library facility in each school. The Education for All (2004 – 2009) Core document has visualized that teacher by the year 2015 would be academically qualified, trained, professionally committed and could encourage the students’ learning through new technology and would acquire sufficient knowledge about curriculum and curricular materials (MOEs 2004).

Government has enacted “Teacher Training Policy – 2062” and enumerated important training policy as the following:

**a) Qualification and training in the entry point**

- Primary school teachers qualification need to be at least grade 12
- Ten month teacher training should be compulsion
- For being teacher there should be compulsion of teacher licensing
- Teacher selection should be localized, and
- Twenty percent teacher appointed from the backward area of the society.

**b) Teacher development program**

- Compulsion of training for those who have not received training
- Establishing strong relationship between teacher training and teacher licensing
- Provision of refresher training, short term training and orientation program

**c) Quality and standard of the training**

- Improvement in the training curriculum and training materials
• Improvement in training environment of training institutions
• Enhancing the National Centre of Education Development (NCED) and its constituent institutions
• Emphasizing the monitoring and research activities
• Continuous assessment of training activities

At present NCED is implementing two major training projects, primary school teachers are trained under Teacher Education Project (TEP) and lower secondary and secondary teachers are trained under Secondary Education Support Programme (SESP). NCED only trains the selected teachers and it has nothing to do with the selection and licensing processes. It is National Teacher Service Council 1999 (NTSC) that takes exams for licensing; it makes selection of teachers for permanent posts and upgrade the permanent teachers.

Challenges in teacher development programs:

a) Every year hundreds of untrained candidates from humanities, management and science background are selected for teaching. NCED gives training every year but the number of untrained teachers goes on increasing as schools go on appointing untrained teachers and therefore NCED is trapped in a vicious circle.

b) On the one hand present educational act and regulation authorizes NTSC as the sole agency for teacher selection for government financed community schools and on the other hand, same act and regulation gives power to school management committee (SMC) to appoint teachers. It creates confusion in the management and it shows contrast provision in the same act.

c) Teacher training policy varies from time to time without any justifiable reason. Some time 150 hours training is regarded as basic requirement to be a trained teacher while sometimes it ranges five to ten months.

d) Sometimes government amends rules and regulations for appointing teachers without amending Education Act, the basis of rules and regulations, and so conflicting legal provision continues.

e) Training procedure follows top down approach (traditional method) and not based on teaching learning practices.

f) Trainings are focused on quantitative target. The progress report highlights on the physical target but not on impact / outcome analysis.

g) Teacher licensing is not a compulsory prerequisite for teacher appointment. In 1966 all government school teachers were given teaching license and then there was lapse until in 1999 NTSC started licensing with the objective that every teacher must have it within five years but after two years the policy was changed for no reason and NTSC distributed licenses for all permanent teachers.

h) Schools do not have conducive environment for sharing of knowledge and skill acquired from the teacher training during teaching learning process.

i) Private schools do not follow the government’s policy of licensing and teacher training.

j) Criteria of selection for licensing in Nepal does not measure the skill of teaching and pedagogic efficiency of the candidate.

Remedial Ground

Proper remedy of problems related to teacher development can be as follows:

• Teacher for every level, primary, lower secondary and secondary level must be selected on the basis of pedagogic skill and efficiency.

• The applicant for teaching must have completed pre- service teacher training for related level, teacher education must be a compulsory criteria for new selection.

• Time frame must be set for working teachers for their teacher education as a condition for their promotion.
• NCED should conduct cycle of short term and long term training for teachers in different areas but not in the capital city.

• Teachers should be psychologically prepared for continuous changing, keep pace with the spirit of time, attempt to understand the changed context and changed needs of students.

• Teacher’s role is that of a facilitator and transformer of information to the learners.

The Management of Education System

The management in education system intends to achieve the goal of acquisition and dissemination of stock of knowledge through the process of ‘planning’, ‘organizing’, ‘directing’ and ‘controlling’. In government schools and colleges the management is to some extent dependent on hierarchy such as Ministry for Education and Sports – Regional Education Director - District Education Officer ---- Head Master. Education plan and policy is determined by the government and the school management has to implement the direction. It has to see that relationship among stakeholders is mutual and co-operative.

Stakeholders of Education System

- Students are base for education system,
- Teachers serve as mediator

Measurement of students' achievement is regarded as very significant factor for improving the quality of teaching and learning. The measurement is done using one of three accepted standards: a) norm referenced standard b) criterion referenced standard c) self referenced standard.

In norm referenced standard, student’s presentation is compared with similar presentations made by other students. Under criterion referenced standard the student’s presentation is compared with some accepted absolute standard and under self reference standard student’s current presentation is compared with his earlier presentations/ performances. For ELT tests a) and c) are often used. According to Keeves (1997) evaluation is associated with 7 ways: what, why, whom, who, where, how and when. In a class when a group of students are asked to make a composition, the writing of one student if compared with other students that give a very clear picture of error pattern, e.g.: tense error, spelling error, verb form error, and structural error. In our context students are usually assessed through their written assignments, presentations, performances, homeworks (Bhandari 2002).

Contribution of English medium schools, colleges and institutions

In the present day education scenario of Nepal the educated people are from two different forms of schooling backgrounds. People from rural set up usually have their schooling at government aided community schools and their English is structurally very fragile whereas most of the people from urban setting have education from English medium schools and their English expression is better. At the higher education centers, when both of them meet the contrast of their schooling background becomes very visible in their speaking and writing. Everybody...
longs for higher education in the west and for that purpose they spend huge amount of money for TOEFL, GRE, IELTS and other standard English tests. The people with English school background feel relatively easier to face such tests and get easy access to the west. In fact the contribution made by the private schools in the promotion of education in general and ELT in particular should be appropriately appreciated. In the last 20 years these schools have produced thousands of students with good English who have gone to many countries of the world, first for education then for highly paid job. They have not only given good education to their children but also paved way for many others for good education, good job, and good economic condition and also paid huge amount in the form of tax to the state. They were not only individually benefitted but also significantly contributed to their society and the state. Present Nepali electronic and print media take such persons as their role model.

**Influence of English in Nepali media**

The influence of English is so overloaded in Nepali media world; it is very difficult for commoner to understand the announcement made in the F.M.s and TV Channels. Most of announcements are in English or half in English. A lot of time is given for English songs and Western music and English movies. Even the announcement made in Nepali has less Nepali words and more English words. For example

Announcer : MA AJA POPULAR HERO RAJESH HAMAL KO LATEST FILM KO BARE INTERESTING KURA PRESENT GARDAI CHU RA TAPAINHARUKO OPINION PANI REQUEST GARCHU.

Two days ago I was passing by a departmental store; two persons came out of the door of the store. I listened to their conversation very curiously.

The 1st: JAUN MARKETTIR, SNACKS KHAULA AND GHUMAULA

THE 2nd: SORRY, MAILE GIFT KINERA RAMESH KO BIRTHDAY PARTY MA JANUCHA

THE 1st: CORNER SAMMA JAUNA, TIMI LEFT LAGNU MA RIGHTTIR LAGULA

The 2nd: NO THANKS, MERO MOM RA DAD LE WAIT GARNU BHAYEKO CHA

The 1st: BYE BYE TYASO BHAYE, SEE YOU AGAIN.

I found the short chat was a beautiful example of current practice of code switching and code mixing. The situation entails that both the participants are well familiar with the codes of both the languages that they are repeatedly mixing and switching over in their chat. The way they played with the codes of two different languages as if they all were of the same stock and they use them in very natural way.

**Role of NELTA in Promoting ELT**

NELTA is a professional organization of English teachers from primary to university levels. It has more than 400 life members and thousands are general members. Its central office is located in the capital city of the country and its ELT activities are systematically carried on by 20 branches of NELTA covering almost the whole country. It has developed its own teacher training and language improvement packages for primary and secondary level teachers. It runs ELT program throughout the country. Hundreds of English teachers have received short term training to improve their language skill and aspects. Trainings are regular feature of NELTA. Every year it organizes an International conference on ELT and renowned ELT scholars are invited as keynote speakers. The scholars not only deliver speech but also give trainers’ training (TOT). British Council has provided NELTA with generous support to manage the keynote speaker. American Centre also has shown keen interest to work with NELTA in...
the field of ELT in Nepal. NELTA has been receiving Hornby Trust Scholarship for English teacher for Master’s level. Nine NELTA members have received degrees from different universities of UK and are actively engaged to promote the cause of ELT in Nepal. In the 11 International Conference 2006 there were two distinguished keynote speakers, Andrew, by the kind support of British Council and Prof. Ted Rodgers by generous support of American Centre. This time American Centre has supported NELTA representative Dr Krishna Chandra Sharma’s participation in the 22nd SPELT International Conference 2006. NELTA has been publishing Journal of NELTA for a decade now. It includes articles from scholars of any part of the world provided the focus is on ELT issues.

**Conclusion**

The future of English in general and ELT in particular is very positive. Growing opportunities in various fields lure Nepali young generation to move out of their traditional location and profession. The lure is inextricably related with the competence in the English language. Large number of students in English medium schools and colleges and in every English Institutions obviously manifests the ambitions and aspirations of young people of Nepal. In the history of education of Nepal, every step from Durbar High School to the present education system is closer to ELT. Organizations like NELTA has to play a facilitator’s role so that teachers involved in ELT would be properly trained to be competent enough to guide young people who have strong passion for English in relation to their career orientation.

**References**


http://www.ilo.org/public/English/index.htm


Appendix

Table 1 High Schools opened during the Rana regime

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Serial</th>
<th>School Names</th>
<th>Established</th>
<th>Student Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Durbar High School, Kathmandu</td>
<td>1910 BS</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Patan High School, Patan</td>
<td>1987 BS</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Juddhodaya (Adarsha) High School, Biratnagar</td>
<td>1995 BS</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Juddodaya Public High School, Kathmandu</td>
<td>1995</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Juddha High School, Gaur</td>
<td>1996</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Birgunj (Tri Juddha) High School,</td>
<td>1996</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Padma High School, Bhaktapur</td>
<td>2003</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Padmodaya High School, Patalisadak</td>
<td>2003</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Padmodaya High School, Palpa</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Padma Vidhyalaya, Rajbiraj</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Padma Kanya Vidhyasram, Kathmandu</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Janakpur High School, Janakpur</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Gokundeswor High School, Dhanuka</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: Gopi Sharma and Hem Kumari Sharma (1980) School Curriculum in Nepal, Kathmandu)

Table 2 Statistics of Trained Teachers in 2003

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School Level</th>
<th>Number of Schools ( Govt.&amp; private )</th>
<th>Total Teacher Number</th>
<th>Fully Trained Teacher Number</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Female Trained Teacher Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary Level</td>
<td>24,943</td>
<td>96659</td>
<td>14149</td>
<td>14.68</td>
<td>12.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower Sec.</td>
<td>7340</td>
<td>26678</td>
<td>7437</td>
<td>27.87</td>
<td>22.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary Level</td>
<td>4113</td>
<td>18846</td>
<td>8689</td>
<td>46.10</td>
<td>43.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>36,396</td>
<td>1,42,186</td>
<td>30,317</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>15.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: MOES (2003) Education in Nepal)
Table 3 Statistics of Class XI Result of Compulsory English HSEB

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class XI</th>
<th>2001</th>
<th>2002</th>
<th>2003</th>
<th>2004</th>
<th>2005</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students appeared in Examination</td>
<td>49950</td>
<td>44410</td>
<td>65833</td>
<td>61462</td>
<td>100696</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pass</td>
<td>26201</td>
<td>23745</td>
<td>38545</td>
<td>38182</td>
<td>62805</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>53%</td>
<td>59%</td>
<td>62%</td>
<td>62%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 Statistics of Class XII Result of Compulsory English of HSEB

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class XII</th>
<th>2001</th>
<th>2002</th>
<th>2003</th>
<th>2004</th>
<th>2005</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students Appeared in Examination</td>
<td>24365</td>
<td>41334</td>
<td>37132</td>
<td>57690</td>
<td>54802</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pass</td>
<td>13619</td>
<td>21107</td>
<td>19612</td>
<td>32351</td>
<td>41724</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>56%</td>
<td>51%</td>
<td>55%</td>
<td>56%</td>
<td>76%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
English, Hinglish and Nenglish

- Vishnu S Rai, PhD*

Introduction

Today English is being used globally so much so that there are more non-native speakers of English than its native speakers. With its global use, English is losing its Englishness, and the native speakers sometimes have hard time to understand English spoken by nonnative speakers. Many countries, particularly Commonwealth countries such as India, South Africa and others have made contribution to the English literature by creating novels, short stories and dramas. They speak and write English differently than the native English speakers and writers. Their English have some special features that are not found in the English spoken and written by British, Americans or Australians. The differences between these Engishes are not just on vocabulary level but from phonological to syntactical levels. Indian English known as Hinglish has its special characteristics and so has Manglish, the English used in Malaysia.

In Nepal English is not used as widely as it is used in India nevertheless Nepali English is beginning to show the signs of its peculiarities. Recently, Nepali writers have started creating literature in English and that too shows the special features of Nepali English or Nenglish as it is known among the ELT practitioners of Nepal. Nenglish is different from the Standard English on one hand and from Hinglish on the other. Of course, Nenglish is influenced by and closer to Hinglish, which is more or less used in the SAARC countries. However, Nenglish has its own specialities that make it different not only from English but also from Hinglish. The present paper exemplifies some of the differences between Nenglish, English, and Hinglish both in spoken and written forms.

Abstract:

This appear draws the difference between English used by native speakers, Hindi language speakers and Nepali language speakers focussing on special features of English used by Nepali speakers.

Spoken form

English is not very widely spoken in Nepal, however, with the growing number of English medium schools, and FM stations in the country, quite a reasonable number of young people can be heard speaking English. The following are the examples of spoken Nenglish, which I heard time and agian.

* Dr. Rai is a Lecturer in English Education at the Faculty of Education, T.U., Kirtipur
1. Dadu can I have the window seat, please?
   No, dear...
   Oh! dadu...

I heard this conversation between a teen-age daughter and her dad on a plane. They were sitting ahead of me, and we were flying from Kathmandu to Biratnagar. At first, I thought my ears were playing tricks with me. Did she say ‘dadu’? But no, my ears were OK, because I heard her using the word ‘dadu’ the second and the third time. I forgot the whole thing. Then after a couple of months, I heard the word again being used by a daughter to her father again. So the word ‘dadu’ does not exist in English, and might not exist in Hinglish but it does exist in Nenglish. How did the word, ‘dad’ become ‘dadu’? It is an interesting story.

Dadu <--- Mamu <--- Nanu <--- Nani (Child)

_Nani_ is a Nepali word which means a female child. Parents address their daughter as _Nanu_ (derived from _Nani_) affectionately, and children address their mother as _Mamu_ (derived from Mummy or Mama) affectionately. It's highly likely that Daddy became Dadu as Mummy became Mamu. This word is not found either in English or Hinglish.

2. Isn’t it? He’s coming on Monday, isn’t it?
   She is pretty, isn’t it?
   Keshav knows everything, isn’t it.
   Things are bad in this country, isn’t it?

The tag question, ‘isn’t it?’ is used for all kinds of structures as shown above for the purpose of seeking confirmation regardless of what kind of statement it has. This is also found in Hinglish.

3. No? NELTA Conference is in the Staff College.
   No?

‘No?’ serves the same function as ‘isn’t it?’ does: both are used for seeking confirmation. The difference between the two is that “No?” is also used as a filler like in English ‘You know’.

4. Copy. Teacher: Where’s your copy, Raju?
   Teacher: Show me your copy, Manisha.

   The word, ‘copy’ is used as a noun meaning ‘an exercise book for a child’. Probably it is also used in the same sense in Hinglish.

5. Typical. - He’s a typical man.
   - It’s a typical problem.

   The word ‘typical’ means ‘the most common of its kind’ in Standard English (e.g. “That’s a typical Nepalese house” means ‘that’s the most common Nepalese house’. But this word is used in the opposite sense by Nepalese speakers. In the given examples, “He’s a typical man” means “an uncommon man or a weird man”. Similarly, “a typical problem” means “a difficult problem or not a common problem” in Nenglish.

6. Cheat / Cheater - Don’t cheat in the exam.
   - You’re a cheater.

   The word ‘cheat’ (v) means ‘deceive’ or ‘trick’ in Standard English whereas in Nenglish it has an additional meaning ‘use unfair means in the examination’. The unfair means that is used in the examination is usually written answers on a piece of paper. Now-a-days students are being bolder and have started using even books as unfair means. The word ‘cheater’ means ‘one who cheats’ in Nenglish: in Standard English its equivalent is ‘cheat’. Probably in Nenglish, it’s a case of overgeneralization by Nenglish speakers, as shown below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>drive + er = driver</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dance + er = dancer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>play + er = player</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

   therefore,
   cheat + er = cheater

**Written and spoken**

The words and expressions in the following examples are found to be used both in written and spoken Nenglish. I was actually stumped when one of my British colleagues asked me what ‘weightage’ meant. I always thought it was English. So I consulted my Oxford Learner Dictionary and was dismayed to find that there was no such word as ‘weightage’. More examples with their meaning are given below.
1. **Loadshedding**

The word, ‘loadshedding’ means ‘power cut for a short period purposefully done by Electricity Board to save energy’. There is no such word in English. It has been borrowed to Nenglish from Hinglish.

2. **Weightage**

Each question in the exam has equal weightage.

The word, ‘weightage’ is specially used as an examination term. Its equivalent English word is ‘weighting’. Similarly, the phrase ‘send-up examination’ has been modified into Nenglish as ‘sent-up examination.’

3. **Sent up examination (Nenglish):**

Send-up examination (English)

4. **Package**

The word, ‘package’ means a ‘parcel’ or a box, bag, etc. in which things are wrapped or packed in English. Nenglish uses this word particularly in collocation with the word, ‘training’ viz. ‘training package’: training manual is hardly used in Nenglish.

5. **wise**

- Class-wise work,
- Area-wise distribution
- Item-wise analysis

In Nenglish the morpheme ‘-wise’ gives the sense of ‘each’ or ‘according to’ which is entirely different from English morpheme ‘-wise’ which is used in the sense of ‘in the manner or direction of’ e.g. clockwise.

6. **Khalasi**

Khalasi is used to mean a man who helps the driver of a bus or a truck. He cleans the bus, changes its tires if they get punctured, and helps passengers with their luggage to board the bus. English has no such word probably because there is no such person among a bus or truck crew. I suspect that this word has been borrowed from Hinglish.

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**Advertisements**

Advertisements in English in Nepalese newspapers, and signboards which are almost everywhere in the streets of Nepalese towns are even more interesting. Some examples with explanation are given below.

1. **Vegetarian available here!**

This was a signboard placed in front of a restaurant. It is most likely that the word ‘food’ was left out in the advertisement since advertising to get a vegetarian person in a restaurant doesn’t make sense.

2. **Staff Hotel.**

This is a signboard one can find in front of a roadside hotel. Staff has several meanings in Nenglish. ‘Staff college’ (located in Jawalakhel, Kathmandu) means a college where the bureaucrats are trained. ‘Staff room’ in a school or a college refers to a room for teachers where they rest or work when they don’t have classes. But ‘Staff Hotel’ refers to a hotel for truck and bus drivers and khalasis.

3. **Abroad Study Programme!**

This is an advertisement trying to allure young men and women of the country to further their study in overseas countries. In English it should be ‘Study Abroad Programme!’ rather than ‘Abroad Study Programme!’ It seems that Nenglish has this special feature of changing the word order because other examples of this kind were also found.

4. **Marry your daughters for only rupees 50!**

This advertisement might seem grotesque and even outrageous to an English native speaker’s eyes: it might even be incomprehensible to them. However, this is neither outrageous nor incomprehensible for Nepalese. This simply means that you pay 50 rupees, and the person or the office that has put the advertisement will find a suitable groom for your daughter. So to understand Nenglish one has to be familiar with the Nepali pragmatics.
5. No Entrance from the Back Side!

This funny signboard was found at the back of a hotel. Nepalese are very fond of putting signboards. Every shop, office, school and hotel has its signboard. It’s this enthusiasm, which made the hotel management put this funny signboard, otherwise there was no need of a signboard or just ‘No Entrance’ would have served the purpose.

Educational advertisements in Nenglish have their own charm. Let us look at some examples.

1. Admission notice

There will be 24 vacancies to enter class 1 and 24 to enter class VI, 1 & 2 vacancies to enter class VIII & IX respectively.

The parents seeking admission to enter other classes may also submit the form. ...

(Kantipur Feb. 3)

The charm of this advertisement is in the last line. It might seem funny and amusing to foreigners but Nepalese have no problem in understanding the fact that parents who want their children get admitted in this school should collect, fill, and then submit the forms. The fact that the advertisement was put by a well-known English medium school in Kathmandu, makes it even more interesting.

2. REQUIRED DOCTORS

A multi speciality 100-bedded Nursing Home well equipped with ICU/CCU, CT scan, 3D Ultrasonography & pioneer in the Laparoscopic Surgical field requires:

1.
2.

Candidate with good qualification & 2 Years experience may please apply within 15 days. Remuneration negotiable.

The most interesting feature in this advertisement is the construction ‘100-bedded’ used to mean ‘with 100 beds’. In English an adjective or modifier can be made out of a verb by making it participle e.g. ‘well-furnished rooms’. The same rule has been applied here. The questions, how a nursing home can be bedded and who beds it are irrelevant since the advertisement is not meant for English speakers but for Nenglish speakers.

3. Wanted 6 persons For Office Sitting & 5 persons in Tour

Work in Nepal age between 40 to 60 years. Education 10th pass. Good Salary+ Commission. Send your Bio-data with Photo + Phone Number in English Language to ...

If there can be ‘baby sitting’, then there can also be ‘office sitting’? The construction, ‘office sitting’ here means ‘taking care of the office’ just as ‘baby sitting’ means ‘taking care of the baby’. Nenglish allows it. It also seems funny that candidates are asked to send their photos in the English language. But wait. You have to have Nepalese pragmatics to understand the fact that candidates are asked to send their biodata in the English language... and... well, photo just happened to come in between.

Matrimonials

The matrimonial columns of Nepali newspapers are also interesting as they show good examples of Nenglish. Here are some specimens.

1. Parents of 27/5’, decent, beautiful, computer graduate, working US, Upadhaya girl seeks alliance from handsome, well educated, decent, preferably Brahmin boy...

2. Match for beautiful, tall, handsome, Economics, graduate, Pokharel boy seeks alliance...

3. A Brahmin, educated, well mannered and down-to-earth Pokharel boy...

4. 28/5’4 Poudel boy, graduate, involved in own business, understanding and practical seeks...

(The Himalayan Times Feb. 11)
The word, ‘Parents’ in the beginning of the 1st advertisement is most probably a mistake because it doesn’t make sense even to Nenglish speakers. The numbers 27/5’ refer to the age and height of the advertised candidate. The most interesting feature in all these three advertisements is the word, ‘boy’. This word, ‘boy’ has special meaning: it means a prospective groom and not just a boy. In the Nepali language the most commonly used word for ‘groom’ is keto ‘boy’ although the word ‘byaula’ which means ‘the man who is going to marry’ also does exist. In all these advertisements ‘keto’ has been literally translated into ‘boy’.

Literature

Recently Nepali authors have started creating novel, short stories, etc. in English which also show the characteristics of Nenglish. So far a collection of poem (Gurung 1992) three novels (Gurung 2000, Thapa 2001) and some short stories (Rai 2005) have been published. I have not included Samrat Upadhaya in this list because he lives in the US. The examples are cited from these publications. Some examples are also extracted from Himal (a political cum literary magazine), and Wave (a magazine pecially for teenagers). The characteristics of Nenglish are found in all levels viz. phonology, morphology, vocabulary and syntax.

Phonology

Nenglish speakers have their own pronunciation which is different not only from British and American English but also from Hinglish. Some examples are given below.

1. Nenglish speakers can hardly make any difference between the sound /s/ and /ʃ/, /z/ and /ʒ/, and /f/ and [ph].

2. They pronounce the sound /ɔ/ as /o/ and find no difference between /ɔ/ and /ʌ/.

3. Their pronunciation of consonant clusters are different from English as shown in the examples below. English Nenglish school iskul student spray ispray There are other examples. Suffice it to say that Nenglish speakers have their typical pronunciation which is a subject of great interest and can be a topic for research.

Morphemes

On the morphology level, English suffix was found to be added to Nepali words and Nepali suffix was to the English words. Examples are shown below.

1. ...helped me turn from a well-paid NGO worker to a paisaless writer (Thapa).
2. Sharamless...(Gurung)
3. What a dimagless aaimaai! (Rai)
4. Maikalji, Rishiji, candidateji (Rai, Thapa)

Words

Nepalese words are making entry into the English literature or into Nenglish. Following are the most frequently used words. Among them yaar and bazaar are borrowed from Hinglish but rest of them are typical Nepali words being used in Nenglish. All the words in number 7 are words for relations except dai and bahini which not only mean ‘elder brother’ and ‘younger sister’ respectively, but they are also used as addressing forms to anyone male or female respectively. It should also be noted that the word, fariya in number 6 is what sari (which has already been introduced in Oxford English Dictionary) in English, but by using the word fariya the author is differencing it from sari. Lastly, the two words ammai and aaaa are the exclamatory words used to express surprise and unwillingness of the speaker. I have listed only the most frequently occurred words.

1. yaar, bazaar
2. fariya, himals, bar-peepal, bahun,, khukuri, raksi, kurta-salwar, gaine
3. bhaaju, dai, didi, kaka, bahini, buhari, baje, hajoor babu, kancha
4. ammai, aaaa(Gurung, Thapa and Rai)

Phrases

On the phrase level, the authors have made literal translation of Nepali proverbs, which make the expression more charming. ‘My old woman’ in example number 9 means ‘my wife’ which is the
literal translation of Nepali expression *mero budhi*. The expression ‘see one’s father’s wedding’ is the literal translation of Nepali proverb *baabuko bihe dekhnu* which means ‘to have hard time’. The phrase, ‘forked tongue’ in the last example refers to a snake’s tongue but its denotative meaning is not to keep one’s word. So the meaning of the sentence, ‘Congress has a forked tongue’ means Congress is unreliable because it doesn’t keep its words.

9. *My old woman* sent some mementos (Thapa 141)  
10. =..saw their father’s weddings. (Thapa 186)  
11. The *parrot-nosed* skunk can’t even pen off a memo by himself, yet he bosses (Gurung 14)  
12. Congress has a *forked tongue* (Himal)

I would like to end the examples of Nenglish by quoting a song from Thapa (2001), and leave the readers to guess what’s the meaning of the expressions in italics.

Eh love, I’ll meet you  
At the voting booth  
The birds fly *phu-ru-ru-ru*  
Our hearts soar *su-ru-ru-ru*

**Summary of the findings**

It is very hard to claim that Nenglish has established itself like Hinglish (Indian English) or Manglish (Malaysian English). There are no enough materials at present to support the claim. But there is no doubt to the fact that a different kind of spoken as well as written English is emerging in Nepal and that could only be Nenglish. So far the summary of the characteristics of Nenglish can be given as follows.

- Nepalese words are making their entries
- English suffixes are being attached to Nepalese words and vice versa
- Word order of English is changed in Nenglish
- Literal translation of Nepalese proverbs are being introduced

**References:**

- The Himalayan Times. (2006: various issues) Published by International Media Network, Nepal  
Let's Make English Language Learners Independent Writers

– Anjana Bhattarai, PhD*

The word writing brings forth the image of many short, long paragraphs on the paper or on the computer screen. To produce these pieces one has to develop some sub skills and go through a long interrelated process. Unless and until students learn and practice those sub skills and process they cannot write independently.

The basic sub skills of writing are as follows.

1. Spelling:

In producing a written piece one has to spell the words correctly. There is no one to one relation of sound and letter in English. The same letter c is pronounced as /k/ in cat /s/ in city and /ts/ in chain. Similarly the same sound is represented by different letters in spelling, e.g. the sound /k/ is represented by c in come by k in king and by q in quiet. In English, some letters are not pronounced in words, e.g., b in dumb, k in know and l in talk. A lot of consonant clusters are found in English, e.g., sk in skirt, tr in try and pr in proper. Learners commit most of the errors due to these reasons and in long words. To make learners skilled in spelling the teacher can use drill and dictation techniques. Instead of dictating himself the teacher can involve students in this activity. It helps students’ pronouncing skill, too. If the teacher changes the reader every time that will alert and encourage all of the students.

2. Capital and small letters:

Although students are exposed to the English system of capital and small letters in primary level they do not learn their correct use up to grade ten. So teacher should raise their awareness in the correct use of these letters from the primary level itself. Highlighting the correct use of capital letters in their textbook the teacher can tell them capital letters are used at the beginning of a sentence, for the names of people, places, days and months, and for the languages and word I. The teacher can

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Abstract

Generally writing skill is taught as a product, i.e. students are given the ready made text and asked to reproduce the same. They are rarely involved in the practice of sub skills and process of writing. Those sub skills are taught as grammatical features in isolation. This article attempts to equip teachers in guiding their students to be independent writers.

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devise following types of exercise from the textbook, write on the board and make students practice.

A. Look at the following words and correct those which should have capital letters.
   prem baral today can i sit now ?
   nepal village winter
   the mountains tuesday october
   market a language class french

B. Each sentence has 2 mistakes identify and correct them.
   a. he can speak rai but not Limbu.
   b. We may go to kathmandu on tuesday.
   c. Can i meet you in September ?
   d. ram can run fast but hari cannot.

3. Punctuation:

The basic punctuation marks required in school level are full stop (.), question mark (?), sign of exclamation (!), comma (,), apostrophe ('), inverted comma (" "). The 2 former are the most frequent and common marks. So they have to be practiced from the primary level itself. With the help of textbook examples students’ awareness can be raised about the correct use of these marks. Following type of exercise will be helpful in making students practice.

Punctuate the following.

a. Does this bus go to Makwanpur
b. She put the phon down after a few seconds she picked it up again and dialed a number.
c. My sister has got a new bike and she spends nearly all her time on it it’s her birthday next weak do you know what im going to give her i’m going to give her a mirror for her bike.

4. Linking words:

The aforementioned three skills could be practiced in isolated sentences but to practice linking words (conjunctions) we need at least 2 sentences. Linking words range from simple like and, but, then, first, second to complex ones like however, when, because, in spite of, although. In primary level simple ones should be introduced and practiced. With the upgrading of class the complexity and number of linking words should be increased. The current textbooks include practice exercises for many conjunctions but they are limited only to sentence level, i.e. not presented in paragraphs. Students’ awareness of linking words should be raised by highlighting the examples used in reading text. They should not be taught and learnt only as grammatical device but as a sub skill of writing. The following types of exercise can be used for practicing this sub skill.

A. Use and or but to join the following pair of sentences.
   a. I don’t have a brother. I have two sisters.
   b. One sister is older than me. The other one is younger.
   c. My older sister is married. The younger one is a student.
   d. The older one has a kid. She lives in London.
   e. The younger one studies in campus. She is in a hostel.

B. Select the correct linking words to complete the paragraphs.

   first, after, half an hour, a few minutes, then, and
5. Replacing words

It refers to the skill of using cataphora / anaphora correctly. Learners should be made aware of the contextual replacement of preceding word by some other word. Generally different types of pronouns are used as the replacing words. Contextual practice helps to learn this skill quickly. In textbooks varieties of pronouns like subject, object, possessive occur a lot. Teacher can use those contextual examples to raise students’ awareness. The following type of exercise helps in practice.

Complete the following text with I, my, he, she, we, our.

My name is Rahul and ______ am a teacher. ______live in Pokhara with ______wife and two children. ______wife is a doctor and works in a hospital. ______children are both at school. Rohan is elder and Rekha is younger. Rohan wants to be a doctor when ______is older but Rekha does not know what ______wants to be. In holidays---- ______often go for trekking.

Apart from these sub-skills students need to develop the skill of the correct use of vocabulary and grammatical aspects like article, preposition, tense, aspect. Teacher should, time and again, make students aware of the correct use of these features, too. The common task for practicing every feature of writing is making students copy correctly from their textbook. The teacher can ask the learners to copy a page everyday. Next day, for 2 minutes, the teacher can involve them in peer correction then observe moving around the class and give feedback.

Along with the practice of these sub-skills students should be regularly involved in the process of independent writing. The first step of the process is generating idea. Different techniques as below can be used for generating idea.

1. Use of pictures / posters:

In the primary level the teacher can display a big picture or poster for the whole class and ask a lot of questions related to the same. Students try to answer. When they hesitate to answer teacher should help them by giving correct word, phrase, and structure. Along with oral activity teacher should list the key word of each answer on the board. Then he should ask the students to describe the picture/poster with the help of the words on the board. The teacher should put the time limitation.

When they finish writing teacher can move around the class glancing at their work and repeating the question answer. It helps to check their answer. The teacher can ask them randomly spellings of some difficult items and enquire about punctuation marks. It saves teacher's time and keeps all the students alert.

2. Use of drawing:

This technique can be best used at primary and lower secondary levels. This can be a two-way affair. Firstly, the teacher can draw something on the board and conduct question answer session to describe it. Other activities can be similar to that of use of pictures. Teacher can draw match stick figures which saves time, creates comic situation and does not demand on teacher's perfect skill. Drawings can be of local situations like a bus stop, cinema hall, small bazaar, health post full of different types of people, a village-small houses, cattle, garden, people; city- big houses, shops, vehicles; jungle, mountain, lake, river and such others. Secondly, the teacher can ask students to draw either following teacher's instructions or on their own and describe their picture. He can check their work moving around the class when students get busy in describing their drawings. Teacher should carefully limit time.

3. Brain storming:

This technique can be started at lower secondary
level and practiced up to higher level. This is the way of collecting idea. The teacher can give a topic to the whole class/ group/ pair/ individual then ask them to list the ideas related to topic. For example:

This is very simple example which works for the beginners. In using this technique the teacher should encourage, facilitate students to make a pool of as many ideas as they can think of. In the beginning the teacher can give simple topics like my family, my school, my farm, my pet, my father’s work, my father’s/ mother’s friends and such others. Then the teacher should gradually raise the difficulty level of topics. In higher grades the teacher can give the topic like historical places in the locality and ask students to collect information by contacting people and consulting reference materials. The teacher can utilize the writing topics presented in the textbook. In higher classes the teacher can form groups of 4 or 5 students, ask each group to read some articles, books; watch films, T.V program, visit some local places, interact and produce in written form. The teacher can ask each group to present their description within 5 minutes. He should alter the presenter for each new topic. This activity develops students writing as well as speaking skills.

The above mentioned techniques have to be used to enable students in generating ideas. The second step in the process of developing independent writing is organizing the collected ideas. After the students make a pool of ideas the teacher should encourage them to develop those ideas into full sentences and organize the sentence systematically into paragraphs. When they get busy in their task the teacher can move around the class and facilitate them in completing their task. To develop students' idea organizing skill the teacher can involve them in the practice of strip story. For this he can exploit the passages in the textbook. If he can alter a few words in each sentence of those passages that will work wonderfully. The sub skills linking and replacing words play a great role in organizing ideas.

The third step in developing independent writing is editing. When the students prepare the paragraph the teacher should suggest them to go through it carefully so that they can change some words and sentences into better ones. In the beginning students themselves cannot do this so the teacher has to teach them the skill of consulting dictionary, thesaurus, grammar for this purpose. The teacher should pick up one or two wrongly constructed sentences and wrongly placed vocabulary items from students' writing and demonstrate their correct use bringing dictionary and other references in the classroom. When they develop reference-consulting skill they can gradually develop the skill of editing.

Thus ultimately students will be able to produce edited paragraph out of a topic. Naturally they will be happy and feel proud of their work and gradually start to enjoy the task of writing. If the teacher suggests his students to have a separate notebook for writing from the beginning to the end of the session students will be excited having a notebook full of their work at the end of each session. Diagramatically whole discussion can be summarized as below.
The discussion above shows that making students independent writers is not an easy task but as teachers we should not lose our heart and should involve them in continuous practice. Writing class may not be conducted daily but it can be once or twice a week. Sometimes it can be assigned as homework also. If the students are guided to independent writing from the primary level they will definitely be independent writers by the time they complete secondary level.

**References**


An English teacher is a motley of the ugly-beautiful features of the camel. They are a compound made up of following Ps (P factors).

**Psychological Factors**

An English teacher has got a clear conscience to think (what!) as often as possible (when!). They think very high of themselves until they face different academic and Anglophonic challenges. Thus they prove the proverb: Only when the camel comes under the high hill that it realises its dwarfishness. True, "Every cock is brave in its own dunghill" (Sharma 67). Yet, like the "ship of the desert" as camel is called, the English teacher takes the daring and traverses us across the hot sea of sands. Very often they are lured by the mirage, thinking that all that glitters is gold. But undaunted, they brave the scorching heat and tricky quick sand unless they stumble upon oases. They carry a cargo, reach the set destinations afar, and bring home a wealth, rather an assortment, of culture and civilisation, in turn.

**Physical Factors**

An English teacher must have had a camel’s milk. It is thick and tasty. Therefore, an English teacher, irrespective of their lean or obese physique, work from dawn to dawn. No, they do not stop at dusk. They go tutoring at places, and even taking private classes at home and paid apartments. They listen to FM and HM (headmaster, principal in several cases, especially as the heads of colleges). One new couple I know intimately even receives students at wee hours (4 am or earlier) to guide them, bikes on cold wintry morning to distant locations, to take their respective classes. One teacher even claimed to have guided a remotely-placed student on a cell phone at late night. The tutee paid monthly fees besides the cell charges. What an IT (I]English Teacher)!

**Pedagogical Factors**

An English teacher has to train themselves in, and affect accent of British or American or a medley of both versions. They have to cram...
lines and verses, quotations and statements, and explain them in the context of ever-changing and multiplying meanings. With the borders and boundaries breaking indefinitely, and theories and disciplines expanding vastly, they have to keep abreast of multicultural activities, literatures, and languages. With the cybernetics invading every sector of life and offering stores of information every moment, they are always on a drive to browse, surf and digest the latest lest they fall behind in the keen competition, and stake their livelihood. But while they are imparting knowledge, they seem to depart from many age-hold human and socio-cultural aspects. They are adept in literature and yet suffer from the hubris and Hamilton procrastination, and ignore the feelings and emotions of their pupils and peoples of the world around, let alone global citizens. They teach language but do not understand the one spoken by the students and fellow human beings, or that of love and affection, charity and forgiveness, politeness and restraint. Often what they remain is a bookish bundle of sheer knowledge void of Solomon’s wisdom and Socratic passion.

**Political Factors**

No one can remain aloof from politics and political events, they say. If true, an English teacher is no exception. They enrol themselves with certain political parties or brother / sister organisations. Therefore, while they are compelled to connive the malpractices of the students, staff and faculty of the affiliate party and organisation, they have to resist greater pressure from those of other parties and organisations. One wonders if they are supposed to inculcate knowledge or ideology.

**Philosophical Factors**

An English teacher, however, has far greater tasks to accomplish and graver responsibilities to bear as Frostian poet-persona realised:

The woods are lovely, dark, and deep,  
But I have promises to keep,  
And miles to go before I sleep  
And miles to go before I sleep.

("Stopping by Woods on a Snowy Evening,"  
St. 4, ll. 13-16)

Or as Miltonic protagonist envisioned:

And that one talent which is death to hide,  
Lodged with me useless, though my Soul more bent  
To serve therewith my Maker, and present  
My true account, . . .

("On His Blindness," St. 1-2, ll. 3-6)

Thus, an English teacher should, on the basis of their long experience and interaction with the students and fellow faculty, design better curricula and develop more suitable texts to cater to their contexts. For that they should train themselves, get orientation, conduct research, and compile, edit, adapt, author, and even translate different teaching-learning materials. They can whet their poetic talent, dramatic caliber and other literary talents. Similarly, while teaching languages, they can train themselves to become well-equipped and well-informed linguists.

At schools, they can affect such skills as painting, singing and dancing, playing sports and musical instruments. They can also teach their pupils handwriting (calligraphy), creative writing, report writing, acting, speaking (oratory or eloquence), and emceeing and anchoring.

On the whole, they should be versatile enough to keep pace with the kaleidoscopic world of the twenty-first century, and not degrade themselves them into a lesser creature. That is, they can open many vistas. So the world is yours sirs (and of course, madams); go grab it!

**References**


Enhancing Communication
Through the use of Foreigner Interviews

John Pelaghitis

Abstract
Exposing students to “pieces” of the outside world has an important function in respect of providing realistic language input and establishing a dynamic and meaningful context for learning. One method of exposure is for students to conduct interviews with English-speaking foreigners living in their community and report their findings and revelations in a class presentation. The following paper presents an alternative to help students overcome the obstacles that non-native speakers face when learning a language in EFL settings by reinforcing material learned in class and allowing them opportunities to “use” their English skills in a more authentic and meaningful way. By doing so, students can become more independent and active in their own learning.

Introduction
Most EFL teachers trained in any kind of communicative methodology incorporate materials and resources that help bring the outside world into the classroom. By utilizing simple regalia such as objects, maps, newspaper articles, audio recordings of conversations or videos of recent TV programs, teachers give students exposure to “pieces” of the outside world that provides learners with realistic language input that is both meaningful and motivating. This helps to construct “an associative bridge between the classroom and the world” (J. Heaton cited in Smith 1997) which can prepare learners for post-classroom experiences (Dickens et al. 1995).

Krashen and Terrell argue that the purpose of language instruction is to lead learners to “understand language outside the classroom”, so that ultimately they can “utilize the real world, as well as the classroom, for progress” (1983: 1). For this reason, students must be taught specific skills for negotiating transactions in the outside world, including an adequate vocabulary as well as structures and patterns for standard simple conversations as early as possible. Krashen and Terrell indicate:

In the case of a second language student in the classroom, the instructor may serve as a coordinator of inside and outside the class activities so that one complements and helps the other. In other words, the purpose of the classroom instruction is to facilitate and encourage the students to interact with [English] speakers in the target language outside the classroom. (1983: 181)

Though the ultimate goal is to lead students to a more natural environment, the activities practiced in the classroom are instrumental in developing the confidence and skills in a less threatening situation. Taylor writes, the purpose of the classroom is to “short-circuit the slow process of natural discovery and make arrangements for learning to happen more easily and more efficiently than it does in natural surroundings” (1994). It is important to ensure, however, that the activities conducted in the
classroom are carried out with the aim of leading students back towards those natural, and certainly more threatening, surroundings, and enabling them to become independent learners. What is more, this transition between classroom and outside reality can be further facilitated if teachers take the logical extra step and actually send students out into the world to put into practice what has been learned, thus effectively commencing the “post-classroom experience” during class time, while learners still have the support and guidance of the teacher and/or each other, and are able to return to the classroom for direct feedback on their performance.

Another argument for implementing more activities outside the classroom is that classroom language instruction does not always facilitate the full development of second language conversation skills (listening comprehension and speaking skills). In part, the failure of classrooms to impart conversation skills can be attributed to the failure of teachers to reinforce conversation skills, the quality of the learning environment, and other factors (Safnil, 1990; Kleberg, 1992). However, even if improvements are made in these areas, the overall impact of in-class experiences on a student’s conversation skills is limited unless coupled with meaningful out of class experiences (D’iachenko, 1991). While there have been some relatively successful attempts to relate students’ out of class experiences to their in-class activities, these methods are not sufficient to supplant out of class experiences (Beebe and Leonard, 1994; D’iachenko, 1991).

Students learning English in an English-speaking country are often said to be at a great advantage because they are saturated with potential language input. However, opportunities in EFL settings for students to attain authentic language input exist and should not be overlooked. Due to globalization, more people are living and traveling abroad, and industries catering to these groups are relying on English as the primary means of communication. In many of these environments the opportunity for students to approach and interview English-speaking foreigners can be implemented.

**Interviews as a Learning Resource**

Interviews can be a powerful medium of communication if implemented correctly. However, interviews are usually treated as information gap exercises in communicative language textbooks to exchange information – an interviewer asks a question, and the interviewee responds. What is often overlooked in these kinds of sequences is that the content and form of questions and responses in interviews also incidentally give cultural information, about the participants’ social and geographical identities, and about their values, assumptions and attitudes. This aspect of interviews is often neglected (Corbett 2003: 118).

In addition, dialogues with question and answer sequences found in ELT course books often share a problem with stimulated conversations. Erickson (1996) pinpoints the source of this reoccurring in-authenticity in the absence of “the mutual influence that we experience in naturally occurring conversations, the dynamic ebb and flow of listening and speaking relations” and “the fluidity of social identification that can occur as real people converse face to face” (292). While there are obvious benefits to practicing interviews in the classroom or listening to and reading dialogues, these activities still do not offer learners the opportunity to cope with real-life interactions, which, as Erickson observes, demands a great deal of spontaneity and the ability to cope with the unexpected. Spontaneity and dealing with unpredictability is only part of what makes spoken interactions “authentic”. There is a cultural element, namely, the “fluidity of social identification” that can occur as speakers interact (293). Interviewing respondents is an obvious way of encouraging learners to use their language skills “ethnographically” to gather information about aspects of the target culture. This information is not only inherent in the content of what was said, but how it was said. Factors such as turn-taking, holding the floor, and non-verbal behavior are culture-linked and provide learners with exposure in interpreting these nuances in the target language. A considerable difficulty for non-native speakers tackling casual conversation in English is that much of what is said
is indirect. People do not mean what they literally say. Participants in conversations have to infer what is meant from what is actually said. Thus, interviews can be used to alert learners to community oriented and individually oriented speech styles.

Below is a description of the Foreigner Interview Project which allows students to interview English-speaking foreigners to learn more about the cultures living around them. Using interviews as a medium of communication is a response to the stiltedness to the dialogues found in texts and to let students actively experience firsthand the dynamic process of communication.

The Foreigner Interview Project

The Interview a Foreigner Project is designed to give students exposure to the “real” world and practice the linguistic forms they studied and practiced inside the classroom. However, there are other equally important goals in implementing this project such as

a) developing skills to overcome the fear of using English which are of use when forming relationships with people from other cultures
b) dispelling the myths and fears that students have about foreigners
c) engaging learners by challenging them to take responsibility for their own learning
d) giving learners confidence in using English by interacting in the target language
e) enabling students to see language as a negotiated process to achieve meaning

The procedures outlined below are only guidelines and should be altered to meet the various needs and challenges of each learning environment.

**STEP 1:** The first class is allotted to explain the basic make-up of the Foreigner Interview Project, that is, that they must approach a foreigner, start a conversation, and make a presentation in front of the class or group. The basic requirements for the project are outlined as follows:

- The length of the interview should last 15 minutes or more
- The interview must be in English
- The interview should be documented in some way (i.e. tape-recording, recorded notes of what was said, or a photograph)
- A five to seven minute presentation about the interview must be given with at least one visual aid (another option is paired-presentations which can be eight to ten minutes with at least two visual aids). Examples of visual aids can include photographs or drawings of the foreigner, notes that were taken from the interview, a map of the foreigner’s country, and pictures of things that were discussed during the interview.

After explaining the basic requirements of the topic which should be clearly stated on a handout, some time must be set aside to orient students so they can successfully prepare and carry out the tasks. It is likely that students will feel apprehensive at first since most have never confronted a foreigner outside of class. To ease their tensions and fears, tips and advice should be specified as well. Some of these include:

- informing students about popular places where they can meet English-speaking foreigners
- giving a list of sample topics or questions
- dispelling some myths or stereotypes that students might have about foreigners
- preparing students for possible obstacles when interacting with a foreigner such as pronunciation differences, interference, and communication style so they can anticipate and react to such problems more readily
- modeling a presentation or showing a DVD of student presentations from a previous class

This initial stage is critical since students need to have a good grasp of what is expected from them so the interview and presentation can be a successful language learning experience.
**STEP 2:** In the next few classes, language skills, key vocabulary and expressions, and strategies are presented and practiced so students can become more capable in interviewing foreigners. Depending on the level of the class, some of these would include starting and stopping a conversation, learning how to ask follow-up questions, soliciting details, and using comprehension checks.

**STEP 3:** A time frame should be allotted for students to perform their interviews (usually one month if possible). After students finish their interviews, 30-45 minutes should be set aside in one class so they can reflect on the interview experience with their classmates. Some suggested questions for students to answer are:

1. What were some factors that influenced who you wanted to interview?
2. What were some difficulties you had before you started the interview?
3. What were some difficulties you experienced during the interview?
4. What was your initial perception of the foreigner before you approached him/her?
5. What was your perception of the foreigner after the interview was over?
6. What was the most surprising thing you learned from this experience?
7. What did you learn about the culture of the foreigner?
8. What area of English (listening, speaking, pronunciation, etc.,) needs the most improvement for you to interview English-speakers?
9. Was there anything that surprised or interested you about how the foreigner expressed him/herself?
10. Do you think your interview was a success? Why or why not?

Depending on the level of the class, all or some of these questions can be distributed and reviewed before the interview takes place to encourage learners to examine the interview more closely. Even if this is done, time should still be allotted in class to complete and discuss the questions. Responses to these questions make interesting topics for students to use in their presentations.

**STEP 4:** Following the reflection, time (usually 3 classes) is needed for preparing presentations. In these classes students are given time to discuss their interviews and reflections, and plan what they will present. Presentation skills are covered with particular attention on writing and organizing an introduction, body, and conclusion, practicing gestures, eye-contact, and voice inflections, introducing useful phrases for making points clear and presenting visual aids. To avoid students merely stating the foreigner’s background and explaining their questions and answers, teachers should help students to incorporate some of the reflections in step 3 to make their presentations more interesting and prolific.

**STEP 5:** During the presentations students are asked to assess one another on their presentation skills and content, and they should be encouraged to ask questions. Presenters are also required to assess themselves and then write a reflective essay (200-500 words) concerning the project. The following are possible questions to include in the reflective essay:

1) Did you enjoy the Foreigner Interview Project? Why or why not?
2) What did you learn about yourself in completing this project?
3) If you had to interview an English speaker again, what would you do differently?
4) Would you recommend the teacher to assign this project for another class? Why or why not?
5) If you were interviewed by a foreigner, what would you do to enhance the communicative exchange? Why?

The essay is a more personal forum for students to assess themselves and the overall experience. The essay should be collected, reviewed, and given back so students can share their ideas with other students.
Conclusion

The earlier students begin to engage in outside-the-class activities, the more they will become adept at communicating in real-life situations, with the obvious starting point being the most necessary survival language. Clearly, at lower levels extensive preparation is required so that learners have the necessary linguistic resources and confidence to undertake the tasks and accomplish them to a satisfactory degree, without infringing on their level of motivation. It is perhaps best to begin lower-level students with modeling dialogues and simple exchanges. Then, at a later stage, the necessary language for asking questions of native speakers can be pre-taught, as well as communication strategies to enhance exchanges. Activities can then build up to conversational transactions where students are required to address native-speakers. In this way, the Foreigner Interview Project can succeed with both lower level and higher level students; however, the amount of preparation will vary. If proper preparations are made, students will be ready to challenge themselves to seek information and monitor their own learning. This is a powerful process which leads students toward becoming more reflective and autonomous individuals.

References


Show Me, Don't Tell Me: Explicit Strategy Training in EFL Teaching

John Rucynski, Steve Engler, and Laura Copeland

Introduction

Learning strategies have best been defined as “the special thoughts of behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information” (O’Malley and Chamot 1990). For example, asking students to guess the meaning of a new word from the context (inferencing) rather than just looking it up in the dictionary is a popular cognitive strategy employed by EFL teachers in classes around the world. Using a variety of such active strategies can help students to develop the traits necessary to become a good language learner (Rubin 1975).

There are two complications that arise when attempting to implement the use of learning strategies in the EFL classroom. The first issue is the abundance of strategies, as nearly two dozen L2 strategy classification systems have been identified (Oxford 1994). Additionally, strategies tend to be assigned overly academic titles, which is language that is not necessary when providing strategy training for EFL students.

This article and presentation, therefore, suggest a shift to strategy training which is “explicit, overt, and relevant” (Oxford 1994). In order for students to fully share in and comprehend the use of learning strategies, it is better to assign simpler terminology when introducing new strategies. Additionally, the title “Show Me, Don’t Tell Me” refers to the concept that it is the teacher’s role to create an engaging classroom atmosphere where students are motivated and eager to actively participate rather than, for example, merely preaching to students not to be shy in class.

Background of English Education in Japan

Although English study is gradually being introduced at the primary level, currently Japanese students receive six years of compulsory English instruction from the first grade of junior high school through the final year of senior high school.
Although this compulsory instruction gives the average Japanese at least a rudimentary understanding of English language, a majority of our students feel that there is a large gap between their background knowledge of English and their actual ability to communicate in English. One of the alleged reasons for this gap is the methodology of English instruction at the secondary level, which traditionally has centered on reading comprehension and grammar translation. Furthermore, the curriculum has been designed to enable students to pass entrance exams for university, putting more of an emphasis on test-taking skills and learning about the language rather than communicative ability and learning how to use the language.

Target strategies

With so many learning strategies to choose from, the authors chose to implement seven particular strategies in their intermediate-level English classes at Kwansei Gakuin University. Almost all of the students in these classes are second-year students with an average TOEFL score of approximately 450. Although all of the students received six years of English instruction at the secondary level, opportunities to actually use the language to communicate with native English speakers has been severely limited. Based on this discrepancy, along with data received from students’ needs questionnaires and anecdotal evidence from the authors’ combined 15 years experience teaching English in Japan, the authors chose strategies which especially force students to take an active and communicative approach to language study. Below are the seven strategies chosen and the rationale behind each choice. Please note that some of the strategies might not match “official” titles given to specific strategies. As noted before, the emphasis was on explicit strategy training or direct instruction, an important feature of which is using clear language which the students can understand.

Strategy 1: Asking many follow-up questions

One statement heard over and over again from Japanese students is “When I communicate with native English speakers, I don’t know what to say or how to continue the conversation.” An effective way to start overcoming this weakness is to give the students many tasks in which they are required to ask their partner(s) a variety of follow-up questions. This will teach students that studying English is not always just about, for example, learning new words, but also practicing fluency and communication skills with the language they already know.

Strategy 2: Asking the teacher questions

New teachers in Japan are often surprised with the wall of silence they encounter when asking a class of students “Do you have any questions?” Japanese students are often hesitant to ask the teacher questions. One explanation often given for this hesitation is that asking a question would signify that the student does not understand the material, making the student look bad in front of his/her peers. It is necessary, however, to stress to the students that asking the teacher questions is one important means of taking an active approach to language study. Additionally, in the case of the authors’ classes, asking questions to the teacher also gives the students the added opportunity to communicate with a native English speaker.

Strategy 3: Continuing conversations

This is very similar to strategy 1, with an emphasis on using different techniques to prolong conversations. Whereas textbook exercises might skip from topic to topic randomly in order to practice a set language structure, students also need practice in keeping a conversation on a given topic flowing.

Strategy 4: Describing words you don’t know in English

Japanese students usually come to English class equipped with sophisticated electronic dictionaries. When focusing on fluency or communicative activities, however, dictionary use should be discouraged. When students do not know how to say a certain word in English, they need to learn the strategy of using other words to describe what they want to say rather than just relying on the dictionary. Forcing students to take this more active approach to communicating in English will both help develop
their independent study skills and also prepare them if they later take an English class with students of different native languages.

**Strategy 5: Using new words**

Checking the meaning of a new word does not imply that a student actually knows the word. Truly knowing a word also entails the ability to use it correctly. It is important to structure activities in which students are also required to use the new vocabulary, further developing their independent study skills. Since it has been estimated that 5-16 meetings are necessary to learn a new word (Waring 2002), requiring students to practice using new words in classroom activities will help them to turn receptive vocabulary into productive vocabulary.

**Strategy 6: Speaking your mind**

Expressing your true opinion in a foreign language is a challenging task for any language learner. Cultural factors can make it even more challenging for Japanese students. Traditionally, in the Japanese education system, students have not been encouraged to speak out or be different, reflected in the well-known proverb “Deru kugi wa utareru” (“The nail that sticks up gets hammered down.”) In order to prepare students for communicating in English with more opinionated and outspoken people, it is important to include many class activities which give the students opportunities to express their opinions. Although many students might struggle with such tasks at first, forcing the students to think and express themselves in English is necessary for their long-term success in the L2.

**Strategy 7: Continuing a discussion**

Although this strategy is quite similar to #3 and #6, it is an equally important strategy for strengthening language skills. Just as with learning to prolong a casual conversation, students also need the ability to continue discussions on more serious topics. Students often rush to finish a discussion by just saying “I agree,” believing that such a statement brings a discussion to a close. In order to be more effective communicators, however, students need to practice skills such as adding more examples, asking for clarification, etc.

**Sample activities**

During the presentation at the NELTA Conference, the authors demonstrated four sample activities for giving students explicit strategy instruction. These activities will now be summarized and copies of the materials will be included when applicable.

**Activity 1: Two truths and a lie**

“Two truths and a lie” is a well-known icebreaker that is also suitable for EFL classes. In this activity, the teacher introduces three statements about his/her life. The students are then invited to guess which of the three statements is made up.

**Purpose:** icebreaker for new classes, chance to get to know the teacher and each other

**Strategy focus**

- Asking follow-up questions
- Asking the teacher questions
- Using new words
- Speaking your mind

**Set-up**

1) Write three interesting statements about yourself on the board.
2) Explain that one of the statements is false.
3) Invite the students to ask questions to get more information.
4) Break the students into small groups and ask each group to discuss and choose the false statement.

**Follow-up**

1) In class (or for homework), ask each student to come up with three statements of their own.
2) Discuss and guess the answers with each other as a getting-to-know-you activity.

**Notes:** Although this is a very simple activity, it is
a good way of introducing strategy training to the class. Since students are usually eager to get to know their new teacher and are curious to know the right answer, they are usually eager to ask questions. When the activity is finished, I usually stress to the students that in order to make the most out of class, they should not hesitate to ask the teacher questions. By motivating your students to want to get information from the teacher, you can create an environment where they are employing strategies consistent in good language learners.

**Activity 2: Information gap task**

An information gap task generally consists of learners working in a cooperative setting in which they each have information that fits together to make a bigger whole. They must successfully share this information in order to complete a task. For a specific example of this activity, see Appendix A.

**Purpose:** negotiate meaning, exchange and defend opinions

**Strategy focus**

- Asking follow up questions
- Using new words
- Speaking your mind
- Continuing a discussion

**Set-up**

1) Learners read their information silently.
2) Learners share their information.
3) Learners try the task (in this case, the task is to rank the characters first by themselves and then compare answers with their partners and try to reach a consensus).

**Follow-up**

1) Learners listen to and/or read language input from native or proficient speakers doing the same task the learners just tried.
2) Learners try a similar task.
3) As homework, learners develop their own information gap ranking task to be discussed with classmates.

**Notes:** This type of activity can be easily adapted to a number of different classroom contexts and for a number of different goals. The pedagogical structure is such that the learners first try the task to identify areas in which they have trouble. It is important for the students to realize the first time through that they are not expected to be perfect, proficient, or even capable. The idea is to try their best and discover what they need to improve. Next, the learners will be given language input which will help them address their deficiencies and give them the language they need to successfully complete the task. This input can be in a variety of forms, such as dictation exercises, cloze passages, word/phrase banks, or simply student generated questions. Also, this input can be aural, written, or both. Finally, the learners will be given a similar task to complete while addressing their deficiencies identified in their first try by using the input they have just received. Again, depending on the situation, learners can be given a task of similar complexity or one that is slightly more difficult. Regardless, research has shown that repetition of tasks improve performance (Arevaart and Nation 1991; Bygate 1996). Finally, the learner-generated materials that are produced as homework can result in materials that the learners are highly motivated to understand and discuss (Lambert 2002).

**Activity 3: Fish bowl**

A fish bowl is an exercise which allows the entire class to watch a few learners participate in an activity. Have four students come to the front of the class and model the activity. When they are finished, have the class debrief the activity. For a specific example of this activity, see Appendix B.

**Purpose:** model conversation skills, and talk about talking

**Strategy focus**

- Continuing a conversation
- Asking follow-up questions
• Using new words

**Set-up**

1) Brainstorm for topic vocabulary and target phrases.
2) Brainstorm elements of a good conversation.
3) Explain the exercise, ask for volunteers, and then role play.
4) Debrief as a large group.
   • What did they do well?
   • What are the suggestions for improvement?

**Follow-up**

1) Break the class into small groups and have them do mini fish bowls.
2) Debrief small groups.
   • What did your group do well?
   • What would you like to improve on for next time?

**Notes:** I see this model as a skeleton which teachers can dress with whatever muscles are appropriate for their student levels and topics. For example, if you were teaching children you could have the children be different animals in a zoo, using age appropriate vocabulary such as foods, colors, etc. The particular profiles I chose for the characters are targeted at intermediate level Japanese college students. Hence, the characters are people that I believe my students can relate to. When the students can envision themselves as the character, the role play becomes smoother and more enjoyable.

**Activity 4: Guessing from the context**

Guessing from the context is a common strategy used by good language learners. It simply means that, when confronted with a new word, students try to figure out the meaning on their own rather than relying on a dictionary. Consistently using this strategy is an important step in becoming an independent language learner.

**Purpose:** develop independent study skills, learn to function without the dictionary

**Strategy Focus:**

• Asking the teacher questions
• Using new words

**Set-up:**

1) Choose a short script (article, dialogue, etc.) that will be comprehensible for your students, but contains some vocabulary you believe they will not know.
2) In groups or individually, have the students practice guessing the meaning of new words without using a dictionary or the L1.
3) Allow students to ask for hints or clarification if necessary.

**Follow-up:**

1) Discuss the student guesses and how they came up with their answers.
2) Make an exercise that allows students to practice using the new vocabulary.

**Notes:** This was demonstrated in the presentation with a script using Japanese words (see Appendix C) for Nepali participants. Even though most participants had not studied Japanese, it was very easy to guess the meanings of the Japanese words from the context. Consistently making learners approach new language in this way will help them to take more initiative in the language learning process. Please note, however, that guessing from the context loses its effectiveness if there are too many unknown words. It has been recommended that learners need to know at least 95% of words in a text in order to effectively guess from the context (Liu and Nation 1985).

**Conclusion**

Although this presentation focused on techniques and activities used with Japanese students, the use of strategy training can easily be modified for any students. When implementing strategy training, it is necessary to consider the particular strengths and weaknesses of the students. Additionally, keep...
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in mind that the key word in this presentation was “explicit.” Whenever demonstrating a new strategy, be sure to introduce it in conjunction with a relevant and engaging classroom activity. Openly exploring with students the traits necessary to become a good language learner will help them to see the value in learning strategies and also increase their confidence in the teacher’s knowledge of language learning.

Appendix A

Information Gap Ranking Task

This scenario is called Rich Man - Poor Man. The story has four sides. You have one character’s side of the story below. Your partners have the others. Read your part.

Student 1

The Poor Man: I’ve never had very much money, and on that day I was really hungry. I hadn’t eaten in a week. I saw that pair of gold glasses in the rich man’s car, so I reached in and stole them. I sold them for money to buy a little food.

Student 2

The Rich Man: I had an important exam that morning. I couldn’t find my glasses so I had to drive without them. As I was driving to the exam, I hit a man who ran in front of me. I missed my exam and now can’t attend my first-choice school.

Student 3

The Thief Who Lived: I was with my friend in a convenience store. We had planned to rob the place. I started to feel that what we were doing was wrong. During the robbery I ran out of the store. I left my friend alone in there.

Student 4

The Thief Who Died: My friend and I were robbing a convenience store. Suddenly, my friend just left. If we had followed the original plan, I would not have had to shoot the clerk. I ran out of the store and into the street. A car hit me and I died.

Take turns telling each side of the story to the group. Take keyword notes in the spaces provided. Ask questions if you do not understand.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The poor man</th>
<th>The rich man</th>
<th>Thief who lived</th>
<th>Thief who died</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

By yourself, rank the characters according to their responsibility for the thief’s death.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ranking</th>
<th>Character</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Most responsible</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd most responsible</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd most responsible</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Least responsible</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Now compare your ranking with your partners and try to reach a consensus.

Appendix B

Fish Bowl

Read your part below. The other students in your group have different parts. After you read your part, introduce yourself to the other group members and try to find things you have in common. Try to continue the conversation until your teacher stops you.

You are a doctor who lives in Hokkaido. You have three children. You drive a BMW. Your favorite vacation place is Hawaii. You speak five languages. Your hobbies are golf and ice fishing. You are allergic to animals. You hate cigarette smoke.

You are a surfer who lives in Okinawa. You are single. You drive a Honda motorcycle. Your favorite vacation place is Hawaii. When you are not surfing, you enjoy scuba diving and reading books. Your German Shepard is 12 years old. You occasionally smoke cigars.

You are an engineer who lives in Tokyo. You are engaged to be married. You do not own a car. Your favorite vacation place is Hawaii. You are fluent in English. You play the guitar in a jazz band. When you are not at band practice, you enjoy mountain biking. You smoke a pack of cigarettes a day.

You are a fisherman who lives in Kochi. You are single. You have two dogs and three cats. You drive a Toyota truck. Your favorite vacation place is Hawaii. You speak Chinese fluently. Your hobbies are cooking and watching movies. You don’t smoke.

You are a professional singer who lives in Tohoku. You are married with one child. In four months, your second child will be born. You drive a Wrangler Jeep. You have six fish and two birds. Your favorite vacation place is Hawaii. Your hobbies are chess and dancing. You hate cigarettes.

Appendix C

Guessing From the Context: A Trip to Nepal

Read the following story about Nepal and try to guess the meaning of the Japanese words in italics.

I’m very uredi to be back in Nepal. It’s my second time in this great country with big and beautiful yama, friendly hito, and delicious tabemono. Although I daisuki this country, I am worried that I might futoru on this trip. That’s because the food and drink here is so much cheaper than in Japan, so I might spend all my time eating oishii momo and drinking ice-cold nama. I hope I can meet some new Nepali tomodachi who can enjoy these things with me!

Key: uredi=glad, happy yama=mountain hito=person/people tabemono=food daisuki=like, love futoru=gain weight oishii=delicious nama=draft beer tomodachi=friend
References


Rubin, J. 1975. What the “good language learner” can teach us. TESOL Quarterly, 9, 41-51.

Introduction:
Both language teaching experts and educated laypersons in Bangladesh often point to a native variety of English as a model for reference. When they produce language teaching materials, they usually refer to the differences of use of English in Bangladesh from that of the native English speaking countries. They term such differences as mistakes. The English language teachers, accordingly, find their teaching materials produced unilaterally in native contexts. In the present article, I will show that though English is not used for everyday communication in Bangladesh, it plays a significant functional role here leading to the development of its distinctive patterns. I will argue in favor of recognizing these patterns in our classroom situations. I think this recognition goes in harmony with lingua franca status of English in the world. Finally, I will consider the implications such a paradigm shift may have for language teachers.

Shifting Approaches to English as a World Language and ‘Communicative Competence’:
Modern debate on the approaches to the English language and their implications for teaching may be traced from 1985. In this year, Quirk (in Siedlhofer, 2003) initiated a long debate by proposing to teach one ‘monochrome standard’ of English in both ESL and EFL countries. Quirk observed, “There are only the most dubious advantages in exposing the learner to a great variety of usage, no part of which he will have time to master properly, little of which he will be called upon to exercise, all of which is embedded in a controversial sociolinguistic matrix he cannot be expected to understand”. Quirk takes a conservative approach to English showing mainly pedagogical concern behind it. His idea of ‘communicative competence’ requires a mastery of the native variety. Kachru (1986, in Seidlhofer, 2003), however, does not let Quirk’s position go unchallenged and emphasizes ‘the link of learners’ internalization of their language to the sociolinguistic matrix in which they are embedded’.

Abstract:
The notion of ‘communicative competence’ as coined by Dell Hymes (1972) and illustrated by Cannon and Swain (1980, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 1986) is generic and recognizes diversity of contexts and cultures where a language is to be used. In practice, on the contrary, ‘communicative competence’ often draws on the knowledge and skills that native speaker of English use in their own culture(s). Such a perspective, as the study will contend, goes against lingua franca status of English in the world. In this regard, the study will argue in favor of recognizing sociolinguistic dimensions of language use in Bangladesh in addressing the criteria for ‘communicative competence’. The study will do this by referring to an empirical study which will consider phonological, syntactic and pragmatic aspects of language.

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of the language to their own multi-linguistic, sociolinguistic and socio-cultural contexts'. Kachru’s notion of ‘communicative competence’, embraces the learner’s sociolinguistic context. Tottie (2002), however, does not want to take such a context into consideration. She dispels the idea of considering the Caribbean variety of English as a model for its speakers because “Caribbean variants of English have few speakers and are too different from the standard to be practical models for the non-native learner”. Tottie’s criteria for acceptance of a variety may face two questions. If the number of speakers is considered as a canon, we will find that the non-native speakers of English outnumber the native speakers (Crystal, 2003). Secondly, her notion of ‘standard’ as a single and agreed entity is a ‘linguistic myth’ as until now no single ideal standard of English exists to which all native speaker show their allegiance (Rajagopalan 1999). In a similar vein, Smith (1976, as cited in McKay, 2004) argues for facilitating the communication of learners’ ideas and culture in an English medium. Terming the traditional notion of ‘communicative competence’ with its standardized native speaker norms as ‘constraining’ Alptekin (2002), notes, “[when much communication in English involves non-native speaker-non-native speaker interactions] How relevant, then, are the conventions of British politeness or American informality to the Japanese and Turks, say, when doing business in English?”. Alptekin’s construct of ‘communicative competence’ takes into account of the English that non-native speakers develop in their communities characterized by different cultural norms and etiquettes. Seidlhofer (2005) extends her support to this view. She notes “[while] vast majority of verbal exchanges in English do not involve any native speakers of the language --- there is still a tendency for native speakers to be regarded as custodians over what is acceptable usage”.

While new approaches to English as a world language tend to recognize local cultures we should think about how we can incorporate them in our classroom. Denial of these may lead to frustration and subsequent failure of our students (Holliday, 1994 in Aktuna, 2005).

The Study

Data Elicitation

a) Participants: 72 English language teachers from different districts in Bangladesh participated in this study. 70% of them were secondary school teachers and 30% were university teachers. 30% of the teachers were from urban areas while the rest were from rural areas. The average teaching experience of the teachers was 12.90 years. 58% of the teachers had more than 5 years of experience in teaching. 70% of the teachers took some training in English teaching.

b) Data Elicitation Technique: Questionnaires were used as a means of data elicitation. The questionnaires included 14 different items that asked teachers to put tick marks wherever they thought appropriate. The items in the questionnaires asked the teachers to pass information about their current practice regarding phonological, syntactic, orthographic, pragmatic use of the English language in Bangladesh. I administered 70% of the data myself. I sent the rest 30% to the concerned teachers by snail mails. The questionnaires were administered in the early October of 2005.

Data Analysis

Pronunciation: Five items in the questionnaire asked the teachers to give their opinion on pronunciation. Here, most of the teachers (70%) thought that they should follow native like pronunciation. But a good number of them (34%) admitted that it would not be possible for their students to master native like pronunciation. The impossibility of mastering native like pronunciation was also widely reflected in the teachers’ performance on pronunciation. The teachers were asked to write the pronunciation (in their mother tongue) of ‘home’, ‘beat’, ‘hit’, ‘bomb’, ‘engine’, ‘analysis’, ‘conservative’, ‘dislike’, ‘electrically’, and ‘tomb’ to find if they pronounced these words like the native speakers. While in the case of ‘home’, ‘beat’, ‘engine’, ‘conservative’ and ‘dislike’, a few teachers (on average 10%) could
conform to native like pronunciation (retaining the diphthong in case of ‘home’ and the long vowel in case of ‘beat’, for example), the rest couldn’t. The pronunciation of the teachers who did not conform to native like pronunciation, however, deviated in a consistent way like in all the cases, ‘home’ missed the diphthong sound, ‘beat’ missed the long vowel, ‘bomb’ ended with the ‘b’ sound. In 90% of the cases, the beginning vowel of ‘engine’ pronounced like the beginning vowel of ‘English’, the third syllable of ‘analysis’ pronounced like the third syllable of ‘analyze’.

The pronunciation of the teachers who did not conform to native like pronunciation, however, deviated in a consistent way like in all the cases, ‘home’ missed the diphthong sound, ‘beat’ missed the long vowel, ‘bomb’ ended with the ‘b’ sound. In 90% of the cases, the beginning vowel of ‘engine’ pronounced like the beginning vowel of ‘English’, the third syllable of ‘analysis’ pronounced like the third syllable of ‘analyze’.

The teachers were also asked to write pronunciation of some words that would show their position in terms of British and American accents. These words included ‘schedule’, ‘fast’, ‘dance’, ‘answer’, ‘better’, ‘duty’, and ‘car’. In case of ‘answer’, ‘better’, and ‘car’, all the teachers retained post-vocalic r though half of them preferred the RP vowel sound at the beginning of ‘answer’. In case of the words ‘schedule’, ‘fast’, ‘dance’, ‘duty’, and ‘apple’ most of the teachers preferred British pronunciation though this differed from word to word. While most of the teachers (ranged from 95% to 100%) chose the British way of pronunciation in the case of ‘schedule’ (95%), ‘fast’ (95%), and ‘duty’ (100%); the number remarkably decreased in the case of ‘dance’ where the American way was supported by 72% of the teachers.

Next, it was found that though majority of the teachers (70%) wished to identify themselves with the native accent, very few (17%) thought that they should strictly follow grammar in their spoken English. In the case of syntactic choice, the teachers showed ambivalent attitudes, in some cases choosing the British model whereas in others choosing the American model. While all the teachers preferred ‘I’ve got a pen’ to ‘I’ve gotten a pen’, most of them (62%), preferred ‘I’ve forgotten my pen’ to ‘I’ve forgot my pen’. At orthographic level, the teachers were asked to show the spellings they followed. The words included programme / program, color / colour, travelling / traveling, dialog / dialogue, organise / organize, center / center. It was found that a great majority of them (91%) followed the British system of pronunciation in response to the item as to why the students learnt English, most of them (87%), identified education and career as opposed to communication with native English speakers. But when asked ‘if we should teach our students the native language culture’, most of the teachers (83%) answered in the affirmative. The next item asked the teachers if they believed that Bangladesh was developing its own variety of English. To this, almost all the teachers (91%) answered in the affirmative. Importantly, an equal number of teachers also said that we would recognize this variety in our classroom. To testify this recognition, the teachers were asked to say if the frequently used sentence in Bangladesh “My father is a service holder” is right or wrong. Most of them (91%) said it to be right.

**Implications:**

The purpose of this research was to find out if Bangladesh was developing its own variety of English with respect to pronunciation, spelling and diction. This was done by asking teachers to give their opinions and indicate their choices on different linguistic and cultural aspects. The teachers were frequently offered a dichotomy between American and British English. This was not done to see which variety was more popular in Bangladesh. As these varieties set the initial scene of the English language use in Bangladesh, we thought that in many cases Bangladesh might develop a consistency in its choice.

It was found that in case of pronunciation, most teachers wanted to identify themselves with the native accent. But their pronunciation did not conform to it. However, they were not divided in their choice of pronunciation as most of them tend to follow one rather than the other. In most cases, their pronunciation deviated in the same way and seemed to have developed along a consistent line as opposed to being merely idiosyncratic. Similarly, we found the same tendency in the case of orthography. In terms of syntactic choice, they also showed a similar consistency. Based on what we have found, it is not unreasonable to say that Bangladesh is developing its own variety of English.

It is true that English is not a lingua franca in
Bangladesh as it is in India but it should not be assumed that the growth of the idea of a growing Bangladeshi variety of English is not possible. Introduction of English in Bangladesh dates back to history and it was an ESL country only about 35 years back. Coupled with this, English’s present political, educational and technological dominance of English makes it a significant functional language in Bangladesh. English features in the everyday use of language of people of all walks of life. Disregarding educational and economic background, English is regularly used here in code switching dispensing of which may sometimes make the communication difficult. Such a use over a period of time, no doubt, may lead to a variety. We cannot deny this sociolinguistic reality though Bangladesh doesn’t fall in Kachru’s outer circle or Quirk’s ESL countries.

Conclusion

If we accept the Bangladeshi variety of English, we face a number of challenges in language classroom. The question is; can we recommend this variety to our students? From one viewpoint, it is difficult to do so as this variety of English is yet to be institutionalized. We cannot readily recommend our learners any reliable resources that they can turn to for help. Yet from another viewpoint, this may not be as complex. As a variety does not result from idiosyncrasy and relies on use of a community, an invisible institutionalization surely exists. In dealing with students, the teachers may draw on that. Above all, the teachers should show an accommodating tendency to such a variety. Only suggesting a native model unilaterally as Roach (1983) does (--- the model chosen BBC (RP), but the goal is normally to develop the learner’s pronunciation sufficiently to permit effective communication with native speaker) falls short of our learners’ demand as most of them learn English in order to obtain education and build career in their home country rather than to communicate with native speakers. Secondly, the question may arise as to if every community recommends its own variety of English, will the speakers of different varieties of English understand one another? There is likelihood that they will as intercultural communication will develop intercultural literacy to make it happen.

REFERENCES


Questionnaire

Please fill out the questionnaire. It is prepared for doing research. You do not need to write your name. Please give tick marks (√) wherever appropriate.

Your teaching experience – Years ☐ Months ☐

Name of the district where your institution is located -

Name of the classes at which you teach English -

1. Do you think we should follow native like (e.g. American or British) pronunciation in our teaching?
   Yes ☐ No ☐

2. Do you think it is possible for students to master native like pronunciation?
   Yes ☐ No ☐

3. Do you think we should maintain stress and intonation when we speak?
   Yes ☐ No ☐

4. Do you accept if your students mix up British and American English?
   Yes ☐ No ☐

5. Do you think we should follow grammar in spoken English strictly?
   Yes ☐ No ☐

6. Which sentence would you prefer?
   I've got a pen ☐ I've gotten a pen ☐

7. Which sentence would you prefer?
   I've forgotten my pen ☐ I've forgot my pen ☐

8. Which spelling between the two do you follow when you write?
   Programme ☐ Program ☐
   Colour ☐ Color ☐
   Travelling ☐ Traveling ☐
   Dialogue ☐ Dialog ☐
   Organize ☐ Organise ☐
   Centre ☐ Center ☐

9. What’s the usual reason for which our learners learn English?
   For education and career ☐ For communicating with native English speakers ☐

10. Should we teach our students the native language culture (e.g. American or British) when we teach them English?
    Yes ☐ No ☐

11. Will you accept if your students write “My father is a service holder”?
    Yes ☐ No ☐
12. Do you think Bangladesh is gradually developing its own variety of English?
   Yes  No

13. If Bangladesh is developing its own variety of English should we recognize it in our teaching?
   Yes  No

14. Please write in Bangla how you pronounce the following words:

   Home       beat       hit
   bomb       engine     Schedule
   fast       dance      answer
   Better     duty       apple
   car        Analysis   conservative
   dislike    Electrically television
   fully
Introduction
This paper is based on a study conducted on teachers undergoing training at a training institute in Dhaka, Bangladesh. The study had focused on the attitude of teachers towards reading, how it affects their mode of instruction, how in turn this affects the reading proficiency of students. The study was carried out to see whether teachers reflect on their teaching instructions and classroom procedures. It was also seen that if teachers reflect they can improve, change their mode of instruction and also make their students reflective readers.

Reading skill is of primary importance to any literate person. Reading means ‘reading and understanding’ (Ur 1999). The reading proficiency of students is dependent on the instruction they receive. Students do not realize that comprehension is the most important part of reading. Srivastava (1995:210) drawing a positive relationship between education and language has shown that every educational failure of an individual is due to some kind of language failure.

Objectives:
The objective of carrying out this research was to verify whether teachers reflect on their process of teaching reading and also to help them reflect and encourage their students to become reflective readers. The purpose of the study was to make teachers aware that they can improve through reflection.

Hypothesis
Negative teacher attitude towards reading produces low proficiency readers of English.

Teachers can change and improve with reflection.

On the basis of this hypothesis pre and post training observation was carried out of classes taught by the trainee teachers.

Abstract:
This paper deals with the reading problems of English students in schools due to the lack of awareness of teachers teaching reading. Teachers are also unaware of the fact that they can improve with reflection. This study has shown that making teachers reflect raises their awareness and enables them to teach effectively. Teachers’ attitudes can affect their mode of instruction. Reflection had a positive affect on the mode of instruction used by the teachers.

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**Purposes of Reading**

Generally we can say that people read for studies, examinations, knowledge, information, pleasure, pass time, special purposes and various other reasons. As we pass through the roads and streets we see signs, notices, billboards, writings on walls and buildings. In passing we read these too and gather meaning from these. In all types of reading it is comprehension, which is essential. Comprehension is the ability of readers to construct meaning from a piece of written text. Comprehension instruction should be an integral part of beginning reading instruction.

**Literature Review and Survey**

Proficient readers use a small set of reading strategies to construct meaning as they read. By discussing these strategies with the students the teacher can make reading more comprehensible for them. In teaching reading the teacher has to determine the reading level of the students. A small lesson on the strategies the students can use should be made clear to them before they start their reading tasks.

One of the reasons for failure at schools is the low reading proficiency of students. The classroom settings are not conducive to learning. There is no interaction between teachers and students. Teacher and students both lack motivation to teach and learn. The students do not denote any time to reading and thus they lack practice in reading. As such they have limited exposure to the language. Students who have difficulties in reading, choose not to read nor to engage in other tasks involving reading (Stanovich 1986). So, reading difficulties create reluctant readers.

Teachers teaching at the secondary level are not aware that they can reflect to make their teaching better and that it is essential for professional development. While conducting this research during a teacher training program this reality became evident.

As Wallace (1991) states the process of professional development can be divided as follows:

Stage 1: The pre-training stage, i.e. the stage which the person who has decided to undertake professional training or development is at before beginning that process.

Stage 2: The stage of professional education or development.

Goal: What the professional aspires to, i.e. professional competence.

Reflection entails self analysis and self criticism. Teachers have to be critical to be able to reflect. Self evaluation is also a key factor in teacher development.

Reflection

A teacher is influenced by the cultural setting, by experience in improving professionally.

Reflection and the Teaching of Reading

The meaning of reflection as given by Kemmis (1986) states:

‘Reflection is not just an individual, psychological process. It is an action oriented, historically embedded, social and political frame, to locate oneself in the history of a situation, to participate in a social activity, and to take sides on issues’

A reading development program should be: “To enable students to enjoy (or at least feel comfortable with) reading in the foreign language, and to read without help unfamiliar authentic texts, at appropriate speed, silently and with adequate understanding” (Nuttal, 1996).

According to this view the teaching of reading is very important. Nuttal goes on to say that the teacher’s responsibilities are manifold. Some of these are to prepare tasks appropriate for students, see that the students enjoy their tasks, to help students develop their skills, to encourage reading through discussion and scaffolding and also to monitor progress. The role of the students must be reciprocal too. Clarke (1988) says that the responsibility of a reading teacher goes beyond presenting students with passages followed by comprehension questions. He suggests that the teacher “must construct reading tasks which reward students as much for trying as for getting the right answer.”
Krashen and Terell (1983) also suggest that in reading instruction there should be an “interventionist approach” and for this they recommend the use of appropriate text. Brindley, as in Nunan (2001) suggests that, “in addition to background knowledge, learner factors will include confidence, motivation, learning pace, observed ability in language skills, cultural knowledge and linguistic knowledge”. All these qualities have to be built up in the learners through teacher interaction. The more positive the teachers attitude in all aspects regarding teaching the better he can motivate the learners/students. Teachers attitude towards their profession have to be positive for the learning situation to be successful. “Any occupation aspiring to the title of profession will claim at least some of these qualities: a basis of scientific knowledge; a period of rigorous study which is formally assessed, a sense of public service, high standards of professional conduct, and the ability to perform specified demanding and socially useful tasks in a demonstrably competent manner” Wallace (1997).

Our research in what teachers do is important for it raises our awareness to consider ‘why we do it’ this is a effective issue raised be Lynch (Brumfit & Mitchell, 1990). As sited by Nunan, Carr and Kermis draw a distinction between the theoretical and practical aspect of teaching. They suggest that education is essentially a practical activity rather than a theoretical one so the problem in the field of education “cannot be resolved by the discovery of new knowledge, but only by adopting some course of action” (Carr and Kermis, 1986).

**Constructivism**

This study can be related to the theory of Constructivism. Constructivist learning theory is a framework for instructions based on the study of cognition.

Constructivism as applied to classroom teaching was first developed by John Dewey. Dewey’s theories on reflection have had a unique impact in the field of education. Reflective thought as defined by Dewey is “active, persistent and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it and the further conclusions to which it tends” (Dewey, 1933)

Constructivism is a theory about knowledge and learning. Learners construct meaning and knowledge for themselves. The psychological theory of Constructivism was brought forth by Jean Piaget and Lev Vygotsky. This again gave rise to two types of Constructivism: Cognitive Constructivism and Social Constructivism.

Two important factors of Piaget’s theory are: the role of the teacher and the classroom environment. The teacher has to provide meaningful context and interesting things so that the students get the opportunity to acquire knowledge and get meaning from context.

Social Constructivism is the theory developed by Lev Vygotsky. Even though Vygotsky shared many of Piaget’s views he emphasized the social context of learning. He viewed culture and social context to be very important for cognitive development. According to Vygotsky the teacher has a very important role to play. Hence there is scope for the teacher to be involved. Vygotsky has argued that students can learn better if they receive help from adults or children who are more advanced than them. The teacher can help the students learn by guiding them, giving them support and encouraging them.

Keeping these theories in perspective research was conducted on the teachers and their students. It was seen that negative attitude of teachers towards reading created low reading proficiency of students and reluctant readers. The teacher here has to act as a facilitator, and encourage and provide opportunities for group work.

Lev Vygotsky supported the view that culture and social context was important for learning. He believed that the role of the teachers was very important in guiding and influencing students. He said that guidance and support from adults and peers helped students develop.

Jerome Bruner also had a significant contribution to
the theory of Constructivism. Bruner believed that learning was an active social process and students learn new ideas based on the current experience and knowledge. The instructor should be there to guide and encourage the students. The Constructivists view the role of the teacher to be very important in developing students’ learning.

Bax and Cullen’s (2003) table on the Stages of Learning during a Teacher’s adoption of Reflective Practice shows that teachers need to develop through the following stages in their journey of reflection on the teaching process.

Stage 1 is the starting level and Stage 4 is the ultimate goal.

Stage 1   Noticing    Simple language is used. Bare outlines and Skeletal wording
Stage 2   Making Sense    Language becomes descriptive Critical incidents are described but not analyzed.
Stage 3   Making Meaning Meaningful reflection occurs
Stage 4   Transformative    Restructuring of learning takes place

Teaching Reading

The stages of reading can be illustrated as follows:

- First, the symbols and letters have to be perceived and then decoded.
- Second, we have to understand the words to understand the text.
- Third, from this understanding we gather meaning from the text.

Being able to decode letters and symbols does not signify reading. Neither does pronouncing the words aloud. The more incomprehensible the text is the longer it takes to read it. Reading a second/foreign language is a difficult task. Teachers have to be aware of these factors as they proceed in their instructions.

In teaching reading we know of pre-reading activities, while reading activities and post reading activities.

Pre-reading activities are:

- Providing scaffolding to help students understand text
- Discuss pictures/activities to activate prior knowledge of the text
- Vocabulary preview to prepare students for unknown words

Once the text is started it also requires some skills, such as:

- Outlining the main idea
- Developing language learning strategies, use synonyms, antonyms and contextual clues.
- Connecting the reading topic with real life experiences and knowledge of the world i.e. their schema.

These activities are not done by the teachers. The teacher’s attitude towards these is that it is unnecessary. They start their tasks with the reading text. Students need scaffolding, immersion in the language and many follow up activities in order to improve their reading skills.

Trainee teachers and students were observed at the ‘while reading’. It was observed that teachers were explaining the texts to the students instead of letting them use the reading strategies in order to understand the text.

Research Methodology and Data Analysis

Teachers selected for a three week long training program were the subjects of this research. In this program the teachers received training on: teaching all the language skills effectively, using CLT methodology, classroom management and finally the importance of using the reflective process to improve their mode of instruction.

Research was carried out on both teachers and students through class observations and interviews. In a pre-training period classes were observed where the trainee teachers were teaching reading. The results have shown that neither the students nor the teachers are aware of the reading strategies or sub-
Students do not know how to approach their reading materials, nor do they apply the reading strategies necessary for comprehension. The study has shown that the teachers themselves are not aware of these strategies and thus they cannot apply them to their teaching.

During the training teachers were made aware of the following underlying factors of the reflective process:

- Preparing a lesson plan
- Thinking of factors which lead to change in the lesson plan
- Reflect on the success of the lesson
- Identify problems of the lesson
- Think of strategies to overcome these problems
- Think of changes that can be brought about to improve lesson

Data collected in various categories were analyzed to test teacher attitudes towards reading and their effect on students’ reading proficiency.

Classes taught by the trainee teachers were observed by the researcher. The teaching of reading comprehension by teachers was observed. This gave the researcher an opportunity to gather first hand information about the teaching process in class. The researcher observed the instructional methods used by the teachers and the tasks given by them. This helped the researcher to note the students’ performance and compare it with their test results.

With regard to teaching of reading the teachers’ attitudes were negative. They stressed the importance of reading aloud.

In interviews about their reading habits only a few teachers said that they read for pleasure, reading was a good past time for them. Teachers read newspapers and magazines but other than that they seldom did any reading. Teacher attitudes could have a very important role here. Teachers could encourage students to read, make reading a pleasure for them and remove their fear of reading. The teachers were indifferent towards the reading habits of their students. They never told their students to read books nor did they show any interest in the readings done by students. They said passing exams were more important than spending time on extra reading.

Post training investigation has shown that the teachers’ attitudes towards reading was changed. Eighteen out of thirty teachers were trying to apply the CLT in their classes. In the post training interviews the teachers said that the training was extremely helpful for them. Training made them aware of the different methodologies they could apply to make their teaching effective. Reflection was also a process which they had never applied consciously before. Teachers’ attitude towards reading and reflection was positive.

It is in the post reading stage that the teacher can be facilitative. During this stage student can be made to reflect and think. Encouraging post reading activities can make students reflective readers.

Reading proficiency and reading comprehension does not only depend on language proficiency but also on the use of reading strategies or reading skills (Nuttal, 1982). This involves the readers guessing, categorizing information, using prior knowledge to understand information. Here the use of schema becomes important.

Culture and social context are important factors in the learning process too. The teachers have to guide and facilitate the schema of the students to make their reading easy and comprehensible. Seliger’s (1975) research in reading has shown that there is a direct relationship between comprehension and speed of reading. These are both equally important. Reading specialist have shown that students who read slowly have poor comprehension (Carell et al, 1988). Slow readers often cannot grasp the meaning of a text. So in teaching reading teachers along with the development of students’ reading skills also have to make them speed up their reading.

To encourage students reading habits teachers themselves must read and show students that they value and enjoy reading themselves (Nuttal, 1982).
Conclusion

Teacher Training: All educational programs need to have professional teacher training integrated into their programs. English language teachers need to be trained constantly. They should have scope to participate in workshops, seminars and all types of language developmental activities. This is an essential part of their professional development. The teachers who were taken as samples did not have any formal degree in education; they have not even received any training. Teachers are not conscious of the new approaches towards teaching English or any other language. It is through proper training that this awareness and practice can be introduced among the teachers.

Teachers are not aware of the new approaches and methods that can facilitate learning. This in turn depends on the fact that they do not receive any training, so they cannot incorporate the new methods in their classroom situations. Finally, it was seen that job satisfaction and motivation were factors which teachers lacked. They had taken up teaching not because of the interest in the profession but because it was easily available and according to them an easy job to do. This reflects on the attitudes of teachers that they did not spend any time in planning lessons and preparing for lessons to be done in class. This negative and unprofessional attitude towards teaching cannot motivate students towards a better learning situation.

Analysis of all the data collected by the researcher has confirmed the hypothesis on which the research was carried out. When teachers are indifferent, unprofessional and not motivated they cannot inspire a positive attitude towards any learning situation in the students. Training can raise awareness of teachers, help them to improve and be more effective as teachers.

The researcher conducted all research procedures herself. The data collected was also authentic and reliable.

The researcher works as a teacher trainer for a private organization, training secondary school teachers. This has provided the researcher with opportunity to examine teacher attitudes towards education. A continuing education program for teachers should be introduced at the government level as this is too massive a task to be handled successfully by any private organization. The training of teachers should concentrate on the teaching of reading and other skills. If the teachers do not have adequate mastery over the skills they will not be able to transmit them properly in the class room.

The researcher conducted a pre-training assessment as well as a post training assessment of the trainee teachers. The researcher found that teachers who had come to take the training were receptive and open to the new ideas and methods of teaching. This has shown that having been trained the teachers’ attitudes have also changed. Training also increases collaboration among teachers. Through training teachers gain a platform where they can interact, exchange views and ideas, and give suggestions. In any field of education the role of the teacher is crucial. Teachers’ attitudes towards their profession, teaching, students and materials have a strong influence on the learning proficiency of students.

The communicative approach though primarily introduced for language teaching has proved to be helpful in other fields of education as well. Teacher- student interactions, discussions and communication in the classroom promotes teaching-learning situations.

Finally, it can be said that the study has shown how teacher attitudes towards reading affect the reading proficiency of students and how this can change through reflection. Quoting Adrian Underhill (1986) we can say that ‘reflection helps to liberate us from our habits.’ There are many factors affecting the teaching of reading. It is recommended that teachers should be made aware of the reading problems of their students. This can be done through proper training of teachers. Once the teachers are equipped with better methods of teaching reading and the other skills they can use these with their students. Teaching of reading has to be integrated with the other skills. Positive attitudes of teachers towards the teaching-learning situation can make the classroom socially interactive and dynamic and this can make...
the teaching-learning situation a success.

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Introduction

Nowadays English is on virtually everyone’s lips. Those who are able to communicate in English are deemed to be well educated, intelligent and so on whereas those who lack the ability to use English consider themselves to be educationally underprivileged and yearn to learn it in order to grow academically and professionally. This makes us realize the significance of English in today’s academic ecology. In fact, English users enjoy a great deal of prestige in the present day world. The latest statistics shows one in every four human beings can speak English to some degree of competency. Today, English is spoken by around 1400 million populace which amounts approximately to a quarter of the world’s population. It has been estimated that some 400 million people speak English as their first language, same is the figure of the people who use it as second or additional language but some 600 million use it as their foreign language. Native speakers of English may feel that language belongs to them, but it has truly become more the property of those who use it as a second and foreign language. Furthermore, over 100 countries treat English as a foreign language, about a third of world’s newspapers are published in countries where English has special status, and majority of these will be in English and English is the medium of the vast treasure of world’s knowledge and pleasure. More than half of the world books are in English. Furthermore, some sixty percent of the radio broadcasts are beamed in English and English is the medium of some eighty percent of the information stored in the world’s computer, a figure quoted in McCrum et al. (1986). No doubt, no other language is used so extensively either numerically or with such geographical reaches. And, therefore, it is not inapt to claim that today English has grown into a full fledged means of cosmopolitan communication in general and education, tourism, scientific publication, trade etc. in particular.

Nonetheless, English has constantly been in a state of flux since its origin. The changes can be observed virtually in its all systems, subsystems and...
use as well.

**A Brief Diachronic Description of English**

According to genetic classification, a process of grouping language into families by finding similarities between them, English belongs to **Germanic family** which in turn belongs to a wider family – **Indo European Languages** which is thought to have been developed out of a hypothetical parent language, namely **Proto-Indo – European**. It is deduced that the speakers of Proto-Indo- European language came from somewhere between inland Northern Europe and Southern Russia. English is said to have developed after the Anglo-Saxon invasion in 449 AD, when the Romans left Britain and new settlers brought Germanic dialects from mainland Europe. The history witnessed that in about 450 CE, four ethnic groups of people – **Angles, Saxons, Jutes** and **Persians** established their kingdoms which later merged into a new nation called England and its language was known as English after the Angles. English of 450 CE has undergone several modifications and acceptances. Diachronically, the developmental stages can be roughly divided into **Old English**, (Anglo Saxons up to around 1150), **Middle English** (1150 to 1500), **Early Modern English** (1500 to 1700) and **Modern English** (up to present).

**Old English** is characterized by inflections. It used various endings for words – inflections to express relation between them. At the end of the 8th century with invasion of Germanic tribes **Vikings**, English underwent some alterations as they used **Old Norse** which had many similarities with Old English. Changes in grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary have made Old English no longer understandable to the speakers of Modern English. In the 13th and 14th centuries English gained the status of a standard language, with the Chaucer’s use of East Midland dialect and London dialects, other dialects disappeared gradually. The amalgam of the two dialects used by Chaucer was later established as the **Standard English**.

The English that came into vogue after **The Renaissance** often dated 1500-1650 is termed **Early Modern English**. With the William Caxton’s setting up of England’s first printing press in the Westminster London, literacy increased, the number of educational institutions grew, novels and newspapers became more popular and English got places in all. English borrowed words from Latin, Greek Spanish, French, Portuguese and Italian. However, a large part of English vocabulary derived from Latin.

In 1604, Robert Cawdrey had published “**Table Alphabetical**” which is regarded as the first dictionary written in English. It contained 3000 usual English words but in 1736 in the third edition of Bailey’s Universal Etymological English Dictionary, there were approximately 60000 words. William Shakespeare introduced enormous number of terms and phrases in English. It is believed that the period of **Modern English** started in 1700. Dr. Samuel Johnson’s publication in 1775 gave English a truly comprehensive dictionary. The English that Johnson described in 1755 was relatively well defined, still essentially the national property of the British. (OALD, 2005). Nevertheless, much has changed since then in its use and usage.

**English and Englishes Today**

The English language has become a hybrid language today because of its contact with other language.

English is characterized by its open-door policy of adoption and adaptation (Brett: 1999 vol. 4 NELTA journal) English is not a single uniform language. We acknowledge that many Englishes are spoken now. Today, English is the name given to a language adopted and adapted as an international means of communication by communities all over the globe. Crystal (1997:110) talks about two major varieties of English being used throughout the world—standardizing and standardized. Whereas British, American, Australian, Canadian and Caribbean Englishes are considered standardized varieties, African, East Asian and South Asian are deemed to be still standardizing ones. SAARC countries viz. Nepal, India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Srilanka use the South Asian standardizing variety of English. Though there may be some grammatical and phonological
differences among different dialects of English, they share significant central core of grammatical units. However, even a single variety of English is not used uniformly. Within a particular regional dialect there is variety (Celce-Murcia et al: 1999).

The English that is used in Indian sub-continent is also known as Indian English or Indo-English or comically Hinglish as it is largely influenced by the Hindi language, national language of India. English entered Nepal with the opening of Durwar School by the first Rana Prime Minister, Jung Bahadur Rana. Since then, English has seen a lot of changes here. To be precise, the English language has been acclimatized here according to Nepali soil, Nepali culture, Nepali accent and so on. As a matter of fact, some kind of Nepaliness has been added to the English language spoken here about which I shall put down later.

1. Indo-English: A hybrid of Indian languages and English

Indian English is said to be different from Received Pronunciation (RP) in pronunciation of words and the use of some Hindi words in English e.g. Topi, guru, henna, bungalow, thug, jungle etc. Two more recent Indian coinages noticed by the researchers of the language are-Half widow, love-cum-arranged marriage. The first seems to have originated in Kahmir meaning a woman whose husband is missing but not known to be dead and the second is clear in its meaning. A local standard Indian English seems to be developing there. The differences are getting so bigger that some have fears of chaotic future in which ‘English in India …..will be found disintegrating into quite incomprehensible dialects.’(Das 1982:148)

As India had been under British colony, it is said that Indian English has much been influenced by British English. However, Mohan Shivanand in his article ‘Angrezi can be Hell’ Published in “The Reader’s Digest” quotes ‘Indian English is getting increasingly Americanized and there is no going back. Indians often use mom instead of mum. We often hear Indians saying /skedjul/ for schedule, /zee/ for zed, /ass/ for buttocks, /gas/ for petrol and /cookie/ for biscuits.

English is truly a crazy language and this applies to Hinglish (Indian variety of English) as well. A person is said to be banglored when he loses his job because his work has been outsourced to Bangalore. Similarly, Shanghai used as a verb to mean to be forced or tricked into doing something you do not like. Cashmere means wool made from the hair of Kashmiri goats, jodhpurs means wide-hipped riding plants and four twenty means a cheat. The addition of Hindi or Indian words in English gives an inkling of the fact that though British Imperialism came to an end decades back, ‘the Indian invasion of the English language continues’. (Shivanand, 2006)

2. Nenglish: Nepali variety of English

English entered into the Nepalese Education system in 1854 when the then Prime Minister Jung Bahadur Rana opened a high school in Katmandu(Awasthi,2003). Since then English used in Nepal has seen a lot of changes in its systems and sub-systems. It has been observed that the way Nepalis speak English differs from the way other nationals speak it in terms of not only pronunciation but also vocabulary, spellings, structural patterns and tones. Brett (1999) mentions some words which are typical of Nepali variety of English eg. Proudy for Proud. The expressions like Dal Bhat for rice and curry, kurta suruwal while using English are widespread. Nepalese often replace plate /pleit/ with /pileit/ biro with dot pen, principal with head sir, Ram sir to address a teacher whose name is Ram in place of Mr.Ram Sharma. Nepalese use cold store in place of corner shop. To Nepalese hotel means a place to eat, not to stay and similarly staff hotel means hotel for driver and Khalasi. (One who guides the driver while driving). Many of the hoarding boards are found painted Heartly welcome to you. The changes are obviously erroneous from the Standard English perspective, however, the changes are gradually establishing as tradition and this might lead to the acceptance of them as norms of the type of English developing in Nepal. Indian English seems to have influenced Nepali English considerably. The influence of Indian English

is evident in terms of the use of such expressions by Nepali –Welcome speech (welcoming speech is used in standard English) Nevertheless, V.S.Rai in the 11th International conference of NELTA stated: “The influence of Hinglish can easily be noticed in the English used in the SAARC countries and Nepal is not an exception. However, English used in Nepal or Nenglish shows evidences of striking differences from Hinglish.’ Nenglish makes use of a multipurpose tag question ‘isn’t it? to seek confirmation. ‘No’ is used as a filler instead of you know. Daddu replaces Daddy and mamu replaces mummy, load shedding refers to power cut. Often name is followed by a suffix ji in order to pay respect to the person addressed as in Dinesh Ji. Similarly, copy is used for exercise book. After the Great Janandolan-2 Nepalese media have started avoiding the use of Democracy thinking it to be the equivalent of prajatantra which included the King, instead they prefer lokatantra in English to mean a political system devoid of monarch (source-Nepali Times). Therefore, it will not be inappropriate to say that English here has been nepalised (natived) in Nepal with its own typical features, borrowings, vocabulary and phonology and it is likely to diverge from the standard English in the future. Possibilities are numerous and it would be a matter of interest for all of us to see ‘New English’ in Nepal.

The Future of English and Englishes

Discussing the future of anything is always challenging and talking about how the English language will look like in the days ahead obviously is not a peace of cake. English is a language and moreover it is the language which belongs not only to certain countries and communities of the world but it has become the property of the entire cosmos today. Therefore, it is extremely complicated to say how world people are going to shape English tomorrow. Crystal(1997) is puzzled and finds no clue to predict the future of English and thus comments –‘There has never been a language so widely spread or spoken by so many people as English. There are therefore no precedents to help us to see what happens to a language when it achieves genuine world status’. There have been contradictory trends about the future of English. On the one hand the use of English as a global lingua franca requires intelligibility and setting maintenance of standards. On the other hand, the increasing adoption of English as a second language, where it takes on local forms, is leading to fragmentation and diversity and therefore the question that haunts us is -Will English be a unifier or divider?

However, people have made some predictions about the would be look of English which I shall attempt to present here analytically and finally my own prophecy on the basis of my experience.

Different speculations have been made regarding Standard English in the future. There are some speculations about whether Estuary English will eventually replace RP as Britain’s most influential accent. While most regional dialects are gradually dying out, this one has recently begun to spread incredibly fast. The term Estuary English was coined in the 1980’s to refer to the way English is being spoken in London and surrounding south-Eastern Countries especially Essex and Kent. However around the globe it is American Variety of English which is likely to be dominant. Thomas and Wareing (1997) say that–“ ... the promotion of the standard should not invalidate non-standards varieties, and that access to, and acquisition of the standard does not have to be at the expense of a home dialect”.

Scholars like Swan (2006) maintain about the overall future look of English in the following way:

‘As English is used more and more as a language of international communication, it seems possible that a new form of international English may develop .This could be a super- standard variety with characteristics of both British and American English. International English could turn out to be simpler in some ways than modern standard varieties without some of their less important grammatical complications. It will be interesting to see what happens’ (Swan, 2006). According to Swan, it is likely that major standard varieties of English merge into a
single variety which would be identified as world English or International English and other varieties of English disappear gradually.

The future of the English language is a very emotive subject. For centuries people have been predicting both the ruin and the glorious future of English. Some people are of the opinion ‘that many varieties of English will move farther and farther apart until their speakers can no longer understand each other. The different varieties will become new languages and English will be dead.’(Lowe et al: 2000).

Agreeing with this Barber (1999) in his ‘English Today and Tomorrow’ maintains ‘……there has been a trend during the past half century for local standards to become established, and for the language to develop independently of British or American English .If this trend continues, these local varieties may ultimately diverge widely from Standard World English, and become separate languages just as the various Romance languages evolved from Latin.’(P:262) This is clearly not encouraging for the English users around the globe. However, others are of the views that different varieties will gradually move closer together, resulting in a single Global Standard English spoken by all. Graddol (1997) with regard to the future of English prophesizes ‘Those who speak English alongside other languages will outnumber the first language speakers and increasingly will decide the global future of English.’ Apparently, the logic seems extremely plausible. Nevertheless, these are really mere introspections and they might be notoriously a fire in the wooden stove. But what is true is that there are some patterns of changes in the English language and they are signs in the present of what the future will bring. Crystal seems pretty confident that: “…….for foreseeable future it is unlikely that another language is going to replace English in its global role.”

Americanization of English?

The position of English in the world today is the consequence of British colonization in the past and recent neo-colonization of America (in Chomsky’s words). “The story of English in the 20th century has been closely linked to the rise of the US as a superpower that has spread the English language alongside its economic, technological and cultural influence.”(Graddol, 1997)

A possibility is Americanization of English.

Since America happens to be the supreme power today, its influence in the use of English can highly be predicted. We have observed the Americanization of Indian English and its influence in the English spoken in Nepal and the world will not be a matter of big surprise. It is also because it is America which dominates hardware and software production and majority of the internet users are Americans. Internet, as many people, believe is the flagship of global English. Other varieties of English borrow many computer terms from American dialect of English. This may not be easy to digest because the foreign policy of the US which Chomsky terms Neo-colonialism has created hatred amongst the nationals of the majority of the world countries towards America and perhaps in the long run American English gets victimized. It is beyond doubt a matter of debate whether English gets Americanized or de-Americanized.

However there is equal chance of English spoken in Nepal either to be Nepalised (nativized) with its own typical characteristics, borrowings, and phonology or to be Indianised with the influence of Indian English.

A Description of Substantial Changes in English and their possibility of establishing as convention

The process of convergence is going on. The different dialects of English are being mixed and leveled. The Young Guys Weekly published from Birgunj gives headline of movie news –Kollywood Hungama and Cine Hulchul. Obviously these are the examples of Nepalisation of English. Similarly, changes in grammar, vocabulary and phonology of English are non-stop. Non-standard speakers have started using past forms in place of past participle e.g. ‘I done, I seen’ in place of I did and I saw.
respectively. Many speakers of English are found omitting auxiliaries in the sentences eg. *she going to New York tomorrow*. Gone are the days when *Black English* was considered to be non-standard vernacular, prestigious newspapers published in English are found inking “*wanna be a doctor?*” Many Professors of English are found speaking – *I gonna deliver a lecture on... Labov (1972)* labels Black English Vernacular “an Independent dialect of English as expressive as any other”.

As a matter of fact, *Black English vernacular (BEV)* is the most widely recognized and researched variety. A fairly recent development in England is the tendency for the people to use *may* instead of *might*. In the same way the auxiliary ‘shall’ is being replaced by ‘will’ in virtually all the contexts. Similarly the people of younger generation hardly use *might* and *dare* and *need* are no longer auxiliaries but are mostly used as lexical verbs. Needless to talk about rapid increment in English vocabulary. Abbreviation, affixation, borrowing and blending have been some of the means to increase the word stock of English. Shortening has become a very extensive means of word formation e.g. *brill* from *brilliant*, *vibes* from *vibrations*, *disco* from *discotheque* and so on. Blending is also a means to add to the word stock with resources we already have eg. heliport (helicopter + airport), guesstimate (guess+ estimate), Chunnel (channel + tunnel) etc. It is quite interesting to see the extensions in meanings of the English words. The influence of Mass media in use of words can hardly be exaggerated. Often they are found using equivalent words from different dialects of English e.g. varsity (Malaysian word for university), washroom (Canadian word for public toilet), bairns (Scottish word for children), loktantra (Nepali word for democracy in order to differentiate it from Prajatantra which refers to the inclusion of monarch in a democratic country, source: Nepali Times) etc. Changes in the meanings of words are also quite common. A Greek origin word - *history* meant *investigation* in the past but today it means ‘all the events that happened in the past’. Similarly a French origin word *nice* meant *silly* in the concerned language. English speakers have always adopted the inclusive attitude towards loan words. In the matters of pronunciation, English speakers have been quite liberal in the sense that the pronunciation of English words has ever been adapted at the ease of the speakers of the concerned locality. Indian and some Nepali speakers often try one to one correspondence between letters and sounds. This led one Nepali student to pronounce the word Nature as /neitute/ and future as /future/ And I think the usual trend all over the world has been that pronunciation should be intelligible to the interlocutors and that is all.

Similarly, one of the changes that strike our attention is the use of small letters in writing the proper nouns e.g. *american library*. *Lowe et al (2000)* give the title of their book using small letter – *english language*. Very often names of the film stars appear on the TV screen in small letters e.g. *amitabh bachchan*. This, I think, hints at the possibility of the development of a fashion in future to write proper nouns in small letters. The above mentioned changes taking place in English obviously give us some clues to make some predictions about the potential manifestation of English in tomorrow’s world. Nevertheless, it requires an effort of detachment to identify the current changes. It is possible for all of us to show reluctance to move ahead with the changes and dismiss the innovations as mistakes and vulgarisms. Such conservatism may be inevitable and necessary for the stability of a language. But at the same time what we are sure is that the process of changes, which we have traced from the early Indo European records up to modern times, are still going on and will continue in the days ahead. It does seem that there are substantive changes going on in pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary and use.

**Conclusion**

The English language has changed considerably in its use and usage as a consequence of its contact with other languages and therefore has become a hybrid language today. It is probably the most inconsistent language in the world. In fact, English has developed into a transitional phenomenon because of the transitional nature of the cosmos. The English language nevertheless seems to play a tremendous role in global communication,
international trade, social as well as cultural activities. British Imperialism contributed to the spread of English in the past and Neo-colonialism of the US underlies its spread worldwide today and this will clearly be a driving force in the determination of the future of English. The most conventional wisdom has been that the world English is most likely to be Americanized. At the same time the likelihood of Nativisation of English across borders can hardly be ignored and Nepalisation is one of the instances of it. Nevertheless, history is littered with predictions and there is no reason to believe the attempts to predict precisely what will happen to the English language in future. The future of English will be more complex, more demanding of experience and more challenging. Whatever speculations the people may formulate, predictions are predictions. There are fifty fifty possibilities of predictions either turning into realities or just to remain un-happened guesses. The future of English is truly a matter of scholarly debate amongst thinkers and researchers working in the field. It will really be captivating to catch a glimpse of the future of English. Let us wait and watch ‘what happens to the English language when’.

References:


Mother Tongue Use in English Classroom

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Abstract
This research reports the use of mother tongue in an EFL classroom setting of high school students in Chitwan. The research used classroom observation of 4 teachers and questionnaire responses of 100 students and 20 high school English teachers. Many, though not all, respondents reported that they prefer occasional use of L1 in an English classroom for a number of reasons: to clarify the meaning of difficult words, to explain grammar rules, to establish close relationship between the students and teachers, and many more. Judicious use of mother tongue is justified in this research because it reveals that L1 helps students learn English more effectively, saves time, and students feel easy and comfortable when they are provided with L1 equivalents. The implication is that prohibition in the use of L1 in EFL classroom is likely to deprive the students of some opportunities to learn English better.

Background
The status of English in Nepal is that of a foreign language. It is one of the subjects taught from Grade I to Grade XII in both government-aided and private schools. In almost all the government-aided schools the medium of instruction for all other subjects is Nepali. But in private schools the medium of instruction for other subjects is English, and the school administration even forces the students to use English outside the classroom to communicate among themselves and with the teachers. More people in Nepal are now aware of the fact that knowledge of English is necessary to get ahead in their life. It brings high status to the individual socially as well as extends job opportunities. Moreover, good proficiency in English is a valuable asset for the students to pursue higher studies in English-speaking countries. Because of these several reasons, many parents do their best to have their children educated in an English-medium school.

L1 and EFL teaching
The issue of whether language teachers should use the students’ first language in their second/foreign language classroom has always been a controversial one. There are a number of researches which either support or oppose the use of first language in a foreign language classroom. Some researchers have promoted the exclusive use of target language in monolingual foreign language classrooms. Particularly, the practitioners who support the strong version of communicative language teaching emphasize on “learning to communicate through interaction in the target language” (Nunan 1991:279), and frown upon the use of the L1 in EFL classrooms. Willis (1981), for example, defines teaching English through English as “speaking and using English in the classroom as often as you possibly can.” She opines that teachers teach and learners learn English through the medium of English. The rationale for using only the target language in the classroom is that “the more students are exposed to English, the more quickly they will learn; as they hear and use English, they will internalize it to begin to think in English; the only way they

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will learn it is if they are forced to use it” (Aurbach, 1993). Furnbeull and Arnett (2002, cited in Üstünel and P. Seedhouse, 2005) report that a number of early studies found a direct correlation between L2 achievement and teacher use of L2: this provided a theoretical rationale for L2 use which many found convincing. Duff and Polio (1990) and Polio and Duff (1994) carried out research into university foreign language classes, finding that although many teachers report that it is possible to teach core French almost exclusively in French, many others find this difficult or even impossible. Kharma and Hajjaj (1989) conducted a study of Arab learners of English in the Gulf region and concluded that the L1 should not be used in L2 classrooms, since the aim of second language teaching is to approximate near-native competence. Chambers (1991) states that, "the theoretical basis for use of the target language in classroom communication does not seem to be controversial." He gives examples of when and why this might be so, based on a survey of common practice. Macdonald (1993, cited in Üstünel and P. Seedhouse, 2005) argues that switching to the L1 to explain what the teacher has said to learners is unnecessary and undermines the learning process. Thus, according to these researchers, teaching entirely through the target language allows learners to experience unpredictability and to develop their own L2 system. Cook (2001) also believes that L1 use inevitably cuts down exposure to the L2. The conclusion to be drawn from these studies is that it is better to teach English through the medium of English.

There have also been views that use of the first language or code switching from the foreign language to the mother tongue or vice versa is a common feature in EFL world wide, and is a natural act which, if used judiciously by teachers or pupils, seems to make a positive contribution to the learning process (Carless, 2001). It has been argued that exclusion of the mother tongue is the criticism of the mother tongue itself and has harmful psychological effects on learners (Nation, 1990). Macaro (1997) argues that it is not only impractical to exclude the L1 from the classroom but that it is also likely to deprive learners of an important tool for language learning. Nunan and Lamb (1996) report that EFL teachers find prohibition of mother tongue in language classroom to be practically impossible. DÖrnyei and Kormos (1998) find that the L1 is used by the L2 learners as a communication strategy to compensate for deficiencies in the target language. Aurbuch (1998, cited in Üstünel and P. Seedhouse, 2005) not only acknowledges the positive role of the mother tongue in the classroom, but also identifies the following uses for it: classroom management, language analysis, presenting rules that govern grammar, discussing cross-cultural issues, giving instructions or prompts, explaining errors and checking for comprehension. Harbord (1992) points out that "many ELT teachers have tried to create English-only classrooms but have found they have failed to get the meaning across, leading to student incomprehension and resentment.” He, therefore, concludes that "translation/transfer is a natural phenomenon and an inevitable part of second language acquisition..., regardless of whether or not the teacher offers 'permits' of translation" (Harbord, 1992 cited in Üstünel and P. Seedhouse, 2005). In a study in Turkish secondary schools, Eldridge (1996) found that most code-switching was purposeful, and related to pedagogical goals, and that higher and lower achievers exhibited a similar quantity of code switching. The mother tongue seems to serve a number of functions, such as: an opportunity for pupils to clarify the meaning of what the teacher has said, discussion of the requirements of a task, and how it might be tackled; and a social function, in terms of creating a sense of group cohesion, or reducing student anxiety. Atkinson (1993) characterized certain functions of the L1 as being necessary. According to him, the necessary roles for L2 use are: lead-ins (exploit the L1 to check that the students have understood the situation, eliciting language- getting language from the students), giving instructions (especially useful to clarify the written instruction on a worksheet or in a book), checking comprehension (whether or not students understand a word or phrase). More reasons cited for allowing L1 use are that it can be very time-efficient in certain situations, and for the majority of teachers, teaching entirely in the L2 is not really
feasible, for a variety of real and perceived reasons. Swain and Lapkin (2000) suggest that L1 use may enable students to perform tasks more successfully. In many cases, it may not be desirable to teach only in the target language, since this creates an impression of ethnocentricity if the L1 is banned (Atkinson, 1993). Schweer (1999) surveyed students and teachers at his Puerto Rican university and found that 88.7 percent of the students and 100 percent of the teachers felt that Spanish should be used in their English classes. Eighty-six percent of the students felt that their L1 should be used to explain difficult concepts and 67 percent said that their L1 helps them to feel "less lost" (Schweers, 1999). Schweers concluded that the "pedagogical and affective benefits of L1 use justify its limited and judicious use" (Schweers, 1999). Tang (2002) conducted a similar study in China with Chinese speakers. In comparing the results of her study to those of Schweers, she says, "both studies indicate that the mother tongue was used by the majority of teachers investigated and both students and teachers responded positively toward its use" (2002). The research shows that limited and judicious use of the mother tongue in the English classroom does not reduce students' exposure to English but rather can assist in the teaching and learning process. Krieger (2005), supporting the previous two researches, reports the experience of teaching English in Japan saying "English is not intrinsically better or superior in any way, just necessary."

Despite the bulk of literature that supports the judicious use of students' mother tongue in a foreign language classroom, there are prescriptive and perceived reasons for prohibiting the use of mother tongue in English classrooms. Mother tongue use has been a neglected topic in TEFL methodology. Due to such theoretical standpoints, many ELT practitioners feel uneasy to use L1 even if they think it is useful for practical reasons.

Should the students' L1 be used in the EFL classroom? The issue has been defended by some ELT specialists and practitioners in Nepal with such views as "translation must be applied as a tool when other means fail" (Bhattarai, 2000), and "translation is obligatory in a multilingual community" (Phyak, 2005). Bhattarai (2001) mentions that more than 80% teaching hours are consumed by Nepali language in the schools (cited in Luitel 2005). Even if a lesson is meant for involving the learners in practical conversation through English, teachers tend to present the lessons employing the L2-L1 translation method (Tripathee, 2001 as quoted in Luitel, 2005). Similarly, Dhungana (2000, cited in Khanal, 2004) mentions that code switching from and to L2 has both negative and positive effects; as a negative effective, it hinders learning English and as a positive effect it facilitates learning and helps in understanding. But the statement itself is controversial because it asserts that use of L1 both facilitates and hinders learning. As empirical evidence, Luitel (2005) carried out a study on the effectiveness of translation in productive vocabulary ability of the high school students of Kathmandu and reports that "translation tasks brought about somehow better results compared to other tasks in the learners' productive vocabulary knowledge." Similarly, Khanal (2004) compared the opinions of 150 students and 4 teachers of rural and urban secondary schools using observation checklist and questionnaire, and found that "teachers and students of rural schools used a bit more Nepali to define single words than those of urban schools." She further reports that "L1 is useful to give instructions, to suggest the students to learn more effectively and to define some new words."

How do students and teachers look at this issue in a suburban part of Nepal? Inspired mainly by Schweers (1999) and Tang (2002), I decided to carry out a similar study on the use of the native language in the Nepalese context. This study is primarily a replication of their study and I acknowledge Schweers and Tang for their research design and research tools.

**The Study**

The study aims to address the following issues: (i) Is Nepali as the L1 used in secondary level English classrooms in Nepal? If so how frequently it is used and for what reasons? (ii) What are the attitudes of
the students and teachers toward using Nepali in the EFL classroom?

The subjects of the study were randomly selected 100 secondary level (Grade 9 and 10) students from 4 secondary schools in Chitwan. Among these four schools, 2 schools were the government-aided schools, and 2 were the private boarding schools. 25 students were selected from each school and the proportion of boys and girls was 50/50. I believe this selection strategy for the participants extends the possibility of generalization of the study. In addition, the participants of the study were 20 purposefully selected teachers of English- 5 teachers from each school- with their teaching experience ranging from one year to thirteen years.

Both descriptive and quantitative methods were used, including classroom observations and questionnaires.

In classroom observation, 4 randomly selected reading classes (2 classes from Grade 9 and 2 from 10) - 45 minutes in length- conducted by four teachers were observed to find out how frequently and on what occasions Nepali was used. In order to obtain authentic data, the teachers and students were not informed of the nature and the purpose of the research.

As another research tool, a questionnaire was distributed to 100 students and another questionnaire to 20 teachers to find out their attitudes toward using Nepali in the English classroom. The questionnaire items focused on the participants' opinions toward the use of L1, the various occasions when they think L1 can be used, and the perceived effectiveness of L1 in their English classroom.

Results

Classroom observation

Table No. 1 shows the frequency and occasions that the teachers used Nepali in four 45-minute reading classes.

The table clearly shows that the greatest number of times (14) L1 was used was for explaining the meaning of words, followed by giving instructions, explaining complex ideas, and explaining grammar rules. The first two teachers were from private boarding schools and second two were from government-aided schools.

Teacher 1. Teacher 1 was a lady with a teaching experience of two years in a private school. She used Nepali in her classroom 8 times in total- the largest number (3 times) for explaining the meaning of difficult words. Because her voice was not loud enough, students asked her to tell the meaning of words horoscope, anxious and pessimistic, the students seemed to have understood. But she used Nepali only one time to explain one grammar point.

Teacher 2. Teacher 2 was a young guy with a loud voice with a teaching experience of 3 years. He used 3 instances of L1 to give instructions. First, he said "Don't make noise," but there was still some noise from the back. Then he used Nepali with some

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occasion</th>
<th>Giving instructions</th>
<th>Explaining meaning of words</th>
<th>Explaining complex ideas</th>
<th>Explaining complex grammar rules</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mother Tongue Use in English Classroom
anger. Secondly, he told the students not to share the textbooks, and finally about the homework. He used Nepali for timidly and dowry to explain their meaning after his attempt to explain them in English. Finally, he explained the underlying rule of one grammar point after he realized that some weaker students did not get him.

Teacher 3. Teacher 3 was a female with her teaching experience of 5 and half years. The largest number of times (5) she used Nepali was for explaining the meaning of difficult words: mimic hardship, leftover, mess and pause. Whenever she thought that students failed to understand her, she took the help of students' mother tongue. She also used L1 to control noise of the classroom in the beginning of her class. Most surprisingly, she used L1 equal number times (3) for giving instructions, for explaining complex ideas and for explaining grammar rules.

Teacher 4. Teacher 4 was a male with 13 years of teaching English from primary to secondary level. He was the teacher to use L1 most (15 times) in 45-minute classroom. He used Nepali 5 times for giving instructions, 4 times for explaining the meaning of words, 4 times for explaining complex ideas and 2 times for explaining complex grammar rules. His class was the noisiest one among the classes I observed. He took help of Nepali to control the class. He used L1 in order to warn one student not to look out of the window. The words he explained in Nepali were: horrible, mischievously, advocating and ashamed..

**Questionnaire**

Questionnaires were distributed to 100 students and 20 teachers of English. All the participants responded to the questionnaire. The findings are provided in the following table.

### Table 2. Questionnaire results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Should Nepali be used in the classroom?</td>
<td>yes 62%  no 38%</td>
<td>yes 64%  no 36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Do you like your teacher to use Nepali in the class? (students only)</td>
<td>not at all 16%  a little 43%  sometimes 40%  a lot 1%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. When do you think it is necessary to use Nepali in the English classroom?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. to help define some new vocabulary items</td>
<td>64%</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. to explain complex grammar points</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. to explain difficult concepts or ideas</td>
<td>56%</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. to practice the use of some phrases and expressions</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. to give instructions</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. to motivate students (e.g. telling jokes, riddles, etc)</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g. to give suggestions on how to learn more effectively</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. If you think the use of Nepali is necessary in the classroom, why?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. It helps me to understand the new vocabulary items better.</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. It helps me to understand the difficult concepts better.</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. It helps me feel at ease, comfortable and less stressed.</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. I feel less lost.</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. It aides comprehension greatly.</td>
<td>37%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The table shows that more than half of the students (64%) and teachers (62%) realize that Nepali should be used in the English classroom. 87% students think that students’ mother tongue should be used in the English classroom with varying degrees of responses like ‘a little’ (43%), ‘sometimes’ (40), and finally ‘a lot’ (1%). Almost all the students object the excessive use of mother tongue.

When asked the students about the context to use Nepali, many students (64%) replied that Nepali should be used to help define some new vocabulary items, followed by 62% who think that L1 should be used to explain complex grammar points. 56% students think that Nepali should be used to practice the use of some phrases and expressions, 4% think that it should be used to give instructions, 3% feel that it should be used to motivate the students, and finally 2% think that mother tongue is useful to give suggestions on how to learn more effectively. Similarly, 42% students realized that use of mother tongue helps them learn some new vocabulary items, while only 3% think that it is to be used to give instructions. In addition, 39% of the students think that L1 should be used to explain complex grammar rules.

In explaining why they think the use of Nepali is necessary in EFL classes, majority of the students (60%) think that it helps them to understand the new vocabulary items better, followed by 52% who think that L1 helps them to understand the difficult concepts better. Only 5% students replied that they feel less lost when they use their mother tongue in the English classroom. Similarly, 37% of the teachers replied that L1 helps their students' comprehension greatly, 35% replied that it is more effective and 12% realized that it is less time consuming to teach using L1. In the 'other' option, some students replied that use of mother tongue establishes good relation between the teacher and the students.

More than half of the students (59%) think that Nepali helps English learning 'a little', 29% think that it helps 'fairly much', 5% think that it helps 'a lot' and 7% think that it does not help at all.

Most students do not support the very frequent use and no use of L1 in English classroom; 40% think that Nepali should be used 'very rarely' and 52% feel that it should be used only 'sometimes'.

The quantitative data on the percentage of L1 that can be used in English classroom shows that most students prefer only around 5% use of mother tongue in a 45-minute classroom. There are no students who support more than 30% use of the mother tongue. 19% of the students replied that 10% mother tongue should be used in an English class,
and only 7% students feel that 20% Nepali should be used in an English class.

The questionnaire result shows that the use of Nepali in an English classroom is justified. It is mainly useful to explain the meaning of new words, to explain grammar points, to teach new set of phrases and to explain difficult concepts. The result of questionnaire is in agreement with the result of classroom observation. Students prefer to use Nepali because it aids their comprehension, they feel less lost, and realize the good relationship with the teacher when they use Nepali.

Discussion

The result of the present study on the use of students' mother tongue in an English classroom bear many similarities to Schweer's study in a Spanish context and Tang's study in a Chinese context. All these three studies show that both teachers and students are in a position to use L1 for different pedagogical and non-pedagogical reasons. Both the students and teachers responded very positively toward the use of L1. Most of the differences in the students' responses can be accounted to the students' level of proficiency.

This study shows that requirement of L1 on the part of the learners depends on their existing language proficiency. This study also reveals that students from the government-aided schools feel more need of their mother tongue than from the students of private boarding schools. It also makes it clear that more experienced teachers highly feel the need of using L1 in comparison to fresh teachers. The reason may be that experienced teachers are habituated to use the L1, and new teachers want to use new methodology, i.e. teaching without translation. When the teachers feel that they cannot control the classroom, they take help of the students' mother tongue. They use L1 when they have to share some cultural things, like jokes and riddles.

Conclusion

This research supports the Tang's finding that "limited and judicious use of the mother tongue in the English classroom does not reduce students' exposure to English, but rather can assist in the teaching and learning processes" (2002:41). But it should be noted that excessive and more frequent use of mother tongue is counter-productive, making the students able to communicate in their own language only. The teachers must be careful when they assign pair works or group works; and as far as possible, the use of mother tongue should be less encouraged. The study reveals that total prohibition of mother tongue in an English classroom will certainly deprive the students of certain opportunities to learn more and better. The teacher should be very selective on when to use and when not to use. It is hoped that this small finding will explore the new ways about the use of L1 in EFL classroom in general, and use of Nepali in an English classroom in particular, and will open wider doors to research more in this area.

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Dust & Polo (1990)

Polio & Dust (1994)

Nation (1990)
How Does a Teacher Interact With Students in an English Classroom?  
A Case of Government-Aided School

Prem Bahadur Phyak*

1. Introduction
There is no doubt that the language used by the teacher plays an influential role for teaching-learning activities in the classroom. The importance of the use of language is counted more in language teaching than in mathematics, painting and so on. There are different varieties of language that the teacher uses like polite, impolite, direct, and indirect and so on. From getting into the class to the termination of a lesson, the teacher employs different strategies, which are generally called ‘discourse strategies’. Whether students understand teachers importantly depends on the discourse strategies that the teachers use while interacting with students in the classroom. Sometimes because of mismatch between behaviour of students and the language used by the teacher the relationship between the teachers and students becomes unharmonious that leads ineffective teaching learning of language. That is why the study of discourse strategies used by the teacher in the classroom is important. This is a report of a mini research work on ‘How Teachers Interact with Students in the Classroom’. The major objective of the study was to find out the strategies used by teachers to interact with their students in the classroom. It showed that one of the real problems in teaching of English is lack of the interaction strategies from both teachers’ and students’ side.

2. Research Procedure
The researcher selected a government-aided school out of Kathmandu valley using purposive sampling method. The school, Shree Kalika Secondary School, is located at Tandi Village Development Committee of Morang district. The researcher’s selection of the school is directed to the standard of the English language at remote areas where there is no access to resource materials related to English Language Teaching.

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As per his objective, the researcher requested the head teacher and English language teachers of the respective level to allow him to observe their classes. The researcher and teachers entered the class simultaneously. The researcher took his seat at the back of the class and observed the class for one week. Diary keeping was the major technique of data collection and on the basis of collected data the researcher had informal post-class-discussion with the teachers. He observed classes of three English teachers for one week.

3. Politeness and Power

Before discussing what politeness and its relationship with power is, it is fruitful to go through an explanation based on an empirical observation of discourse strategies used by teachers in American public schools.

’Sally, would you like to sit down?’ If Sally is a visitor in my home or office, I might ask this as a genuine question, or at least a suggestion. Sally might answer that she’d rather stand and admire the view from the window, or that she’d been sitting for hours in the car and would prefer to stay on her feet for a while. But suppose that Sally is a student, and I am a teacher, and I say “Sally, would you like to sit down?’ The most likely interpretation of what I have said is a direct command, ‘Sit down, Sally’. The most likely result is that Sally will take seat.

- Manke (2001, in Collins et al; p. 81)

This explanation, as White (1989) pointed out, shows that ‘unrelenting politeness’ is an ‘institutionalized presence’. The institutionalized authority of teachers lies behind the politeness. Rare is the classroom where teachers and students have built power relationships in which a student need not attend to a command or request from teacher. That is why the force of ‘Sit down’, ‘Would you like to sit down?’, ‘Please, will you sit down’, or even, ‘I would like to request you to sit down’ for student is same.

Brown and Levinson (1966) developed the concept of indirect speech acts, which may have an apparent meaning quite different from their actual force in the conversation. Grice (1975) suggested that when someone makes a statement whose real meaning is different from its surface meaning, there is a reason, an intention, behind the discrepancy. Brown and Levinson (1978) hypothesized that the principal reason for using politeness formulas is to avoid threatening the ‘face’ (which is described below), personal dignity, of other participants, and that they are used more often by weaker participants than by stronger.

One of the challenges in the study of discourse strategies, mainly in the study of politeness, is understanding the differences of interpretation that different cultures make of certain kinds of behaviour. However, this study is not concerned with interpretation of cross-cultural linguistic behaviour. The translation of behaviour in one language is hardly found in another language. In other words, what counts is an apology in one culture may be seen as an expression of thanks in another, and what constitutes a proper request in one culture may seem very rude in another. Delpit (1988) and others have suggested that this is a culturally based assumption that leads to miscommunication, adopting the widespread belief that use of such formulas and strategies is a characteristic of White American culture, and students of color do not understand that they are being told what to do when a teacher uses them. They suggested that in the homes of children from various minority groups, adults address children very directly, and that non minority teachers confuse them when they use indirect discourse to express their wishes. The observation that the researcher made in the English teaching classroom also reflected the same case. The indirect speech acts used by teachers to address students were found almost unintelligible for them who were cultured to learn every subject, including English, in the Nepali language culture and learning environment.

Brown and Levinson (ibid.) have provided a useful framework for understanding how politeness may be interpreted by different culture in different
ways. According to them, all people have a strong interest in preserving face, which has two aspects; i. Positive face and, ii. Negative face. Positive face is speaker’s wish to be liked by others; his desire to have his interests approved; his desire to have what he likes and wants shared by others. It is concerned with self-image, and self-respect that a person has. It includes utterances like ‘nice thing’, ‘well done’, ‘great’, etc. Negative face is the speaker’s wish not to be coerced, ordered or forced into things; his desire not to be encroached upon or have his actions impeded by others. It is concerned with the claim to privacy, freedom of action, and other elements of personal autonomy. It includes utterances like ‘Could you close the windows?’, ‘Sort of…’, ‘I’m sorry for mistake’, etc. Any utterance, which constitutes a threat to face in some, is called a Face Threatening Act (FTA).

4. Direct Speech Acts

Almost all teachers whose classes were observed were found using direct speech acts. Rare is the case found in which there was the use of indirect speech acts. The cultural flavour of Napali communication behaviour had been reflected in teacher-student interaction. Let us see some examples from the field note:

(Teacher changes the topic)

T: Now today’s lesson. What is our today’s lesson?

SS: (No response)

T: Our lesson is time for grammar- Reported speech. There are two types of speech: Direct and Indirect.

(Pause)

T: What are two types of speech?

SS: Direct and indirect.

Common formulas used by teachers included:

- commands in place of questions: ‘Give me a book’ in place of ‘Would you give me a book?’;
- commands in place of statements of preference: ‘Write the answer’ in place of ‘It’s better if you copy the answers on the board’;
- commands in place of requests that use please, excuse me, thank you: ‘Come here’ in place of ‘Please come here’;
- single words in place of interrogative sentence: ‘Finished?’(in a loud voice) in place of ‘Have you finished?’.

The teachers whose classes were observed consistently used these direct forms in their speech to students, much more often than they used polite forms. In the informal post-class-discussion, the teachers revealed their expectations that students should use polite forms although their speech was not polite in itself. Among the teachers, only one teacher has the knowledge of using polite and impolite language. It was also found that students used very informal and impolite language with their teachers. Here are examples from field notes:

T: Hari, What was funeral place?

S (Hari): What sir?

………………

T: Who is the dead person in the second article, Rekha?

S (Rekha): No sir. (Meaning, I don’t know).

T: (Remains silent)

S (Rekha): Give answer, sir.

5. Use of Mother Tongue (translation)

All teachers were found to use mother tongue. It was also felt that students were comfortable in understanding the English language used by teachers and written in the textbooks. Use of mother tongue was found to be major tool of making students understand. Here are some examples from the field notes:

(Teacher enters the class)

SS: Good morning, sir. (They stand up).

T: Good morning. Sit down. (Teacher asks the students to look at their book and reads out a loud voice)
the questions himself). What do you see in the picture? (He translates the questions into Nepali: timiharu nakshama ke dekhda chau?) Later the teacher translated the whole text into Nepali and a few students in the front seat gave answer in a single word and short phrases like: two people, mirror, etc. It was found out that the use of mother tongue dominates the English classroom. The use of mother tongue is the most commonly used technique of interaction between teachers and students. The teachers did not make any attempt to use other strategies like explanation, simplification elaboration and so on to make students understand the content and language in English. If they did not understand the things taught, the teacher used the mother tongue to facilitate comprehension. The interesting thing was that almost all classes, which started with English gradually, changed into Nepali and the classes ended in exclusive Nepali.

T:  la aba kehi prashna haru herau. (Now, look at some question.). The teacher asks some questions to the students but there is no answer from them.

T:  la yaha hera. (Look at the board). He continues writing on the board without speaking.

SS: sar, tyo ensar ho? [Seeking confirmation] (Sir, is that answer?)

T:  ho (yes)

SS: tyo ke lekhnu bhayeko cheuma? [Seeking clarification] (What have you written at the side?)

(Teacher continues writing and students copy the answer for sometime and the bell rings).

T:  aja hamile yo path sakyau aba bholi arko path padhne. (Today, we finished this lesson and tomorrow we will start another lesson).

All the teachers were also found to use mother tongue for the description of subject matter to be taught. For example:

T:  We must bring our book in class. (‘Must’ bhaneko kunaihni kura kunaparcha athaba garnai parcha bhanne arithama prayog garinch in English ‘must’ is used to describe the action or activities which are obligatory to do).

This observation makes us clear that the use of mother tongue is the last resort for the English teachers in government-aided school out of valley where there is no access to resources in English Language Teaching. The condition of English language in classroom seems to be poor.

6. Indirect Speech Acts

As mentioned earlier, there was rare use of indirect speech acts. They rarely used the expressions like, ‘Excuse me’, ‘I’m sorry’, ‘It’s better…’, ‘You’d better…’, etc. rather they were replaced with imperatives. Here are some examples in which the teachers used indirect speech acts:

SS: (Making noise in the class).

T:  Excuse me. (meaning, keep quiet).

SS: (Continue making noise).

T:  Why are you making noise? (meaning, keep quiet).

SS: (Become silent)

T:  (Asking a question to back bencher) Who is writing the sympathy?

S: (Answers in an inaudible voice).

T:  I’m sorry, I couldn’t hear. (meaning, speak louder).

When these strategies were used, it was not always completely clear to the researcher, an outsider, whether choices were being offered to the students, or whether they had to comply regardless of how the teachers’ wishes were expressed. My judgment on this was based on the students’ responses, believing that as regular participants in power relations of their classroom, they were the experts on what the teacher really meant (McDermott and Roth, 1978). The interesting example from the field note is given below:

T:  (enters the class) Shall we go? (meaning, let’s start the lesson).

SS: Where sir?

What I found was that there was no relationship
between the indirect strategies used by the teachers and response of the students. Students used direct and impolite language in response to teachers’ indirect and polite language. It was crystal clear from the students’ utterance ‘what sir’ when they asked for clarification to the teachers.

7. Faces of Politeness

The strategies that were found to be used for politeness can be described in the following way as a checklist, which is based on the positive and negative strategies of the face provided by Simpson (1997).

(Table 1: positive politeness strategies)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive politeness strategies</th>
<th>Frequency and Example from the field</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Complement the hearer</td>
<td>Rarely used (nice thing, right good)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use in-group markers</td>
<td>Never used</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Claim common opinions and attitude</td>
<td>Sometimes used (Is he right? Is this right?)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indicate deference</td>
<td>Rarely used (good student, nice)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apologies</td>
<td>Rarely used (I’m sorry)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Table 2: Negative politeness strategies)

The analysis of negative faces of politeness is described as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Negative politeness strategies</th>
<th>Frequency and Example from the field</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Use indirectness</td>
<td>Rarely used (I’m sorry, Could you answer?)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use hedges</td>
<td>Frequently used (mumbling and hesitation, er..., this is......um...... ah....)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8. Shift in Strategies

The observation showed that there was only one-way interaction in the classroom. When the researcher entered the class on the first day of observation there was no interaction at all. The teachers entered the class, started their lesson with short revision of previous lesson, and spent almost all time with their lecture with the help of mother tongue. It was found that (as mentioned above) there was shift in discourse strategies; all types of strategies had been shifted to commands (which are given above under indirect strategies). The classroom language used by both teachers and students was not polite. It was not because of power relationship rather of culture and lack of exposure. Because of influence of their cultural behaviour of mother tongue, students were found to use impolite language, which seemed as a translation of their L1. Although teachers were aware of the use of polite discourse strategies, students were found not to understand the polite language and indirect discourse strategies used by teachers.

9. Ground Reality

This observation reflects the present condition of English language teaching in government-aided schools. The ground reality is very miserable. English is taken as the most difficult subject. It is because of lack of exposure to both the teachers and students. The teachers opined that there is lack of training and resource materials for teaching English. Although students were found motivated to learn English, because of difficulty in understanding the language used by the teachers they have to understand English with the help of Nepali. All
teachers said that the background of students is also responsible for this factor. This implies that there is a high need of improving the standard of teaching and learning English at primary level. To ameliorate this condition of English, training should be provided to the teachers in classroom English along with the resource materials. Although the objectives of the research were to find out politeness and indirect strategies, the researcher found that there was the rare use of polite and indirect strategies of discourse. It is the ground reality of almost all government-aided schools located in remote areas of Nepal.

References


Diversity in Lecture-Deliver

Mallika Joshi*

Introduction

Idealism, a branch or philosophy, gave birth to the concept of lecture-technique where a teacher was considered as an ideal model and mature personality who the students had to follow (R. A. Sharma 1997). All of the students’ acts were directed by them. However, these concepts have not been strictly followed. Nowadays the teacher tries to encourage and incorporate students’ ideas on the topic. We, teachers, don’t confine only to ourselves. We also enjoy and incorporate students’ ideas. So lecturing is no longer fully autocratic in nature.

Most of the teachers, educators and instructors speak for the student centered techniques where the students themselves are accountable for their learning activities. Teachers’ jobs are to observe them and their activities, and provide feedback for the improvement. But let’s ask ourselves -do we carry out this ideal? Probably, not. Most of us often minimize them not letting them share.

It is also because of the crowded classes with heterogeneous abilities, there is a wide gap between our thought and doings. However, our lecture can have effective results on the part of student learning when it is handled with proper care and full preparation.

Stages in lecture delivery

No matter what techniques we adopt, they have strengths and weaknesses. Our skill lies on how we handle them and eliminate their weakness. Lecturing doesn’t mean just transferring the topic-based ideas but something more than that. Effectiveness can be brought into lecture by combining it with other activities like pair work and group works for sometime as students can not fix their attention on mere transmission of ideas for more than twenty-twenty five minutes. To introduce variety in a lecture in can be divided into 3 stages:

Abstract

In most of the educational institutions, colleges and universities, teachers prefer to adopt the lecture technique to present facts and ideas on the topic or content matter. The present write-up is an attempt to broaden their lecture-delivery skill. The article discusses the measures that help to deliver a lecture skillfully.

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(i) The introduction of lecture

It covers the first three to five minutes of the lecture. It prepares the environment for student’s learning as it aims to capture their attention in learning. It includes the following activities:

a) Establish a relationship with students:
We should use warm-up activities like joke, puzzle, game, etc. to create a positive learning environment where they feel comfortable. We can also ask about their health before starting the lesson.

b) Promote motivation:
It is said that motivation arouses interest. Interest is the source of attention and attention, in turn, is the source of learning. This can be done by putting a problem among them and letting them feel that the following lecture serves as a solution to that problem. We may also tell them how our following lecture helps them in their education and careers.

c) Relate their pre-existing knowledge with the new lecture information:
It is necessary to explore their pre-existing knowledge and link it with the new one. So whenever possible, we should welcome their ideas on the topic.

d) Clarify the objectives (purposes) of lecture:
Students achieve at higher levels if they know what knowledge and skill they gain from the instruction. For this, we should-

- Announce the title topic,
- Inform how it will be developed or organized,
- And make generalization about the topic or simply list the objectives.

For example- An ELT class could begin: ‘Listening to the foreign language is a difficult job. Today I’m going to show you how this complex skill can be developed in us. We will discuss about its steps. The objectives for today’s class are etc’.

(ii) The body of the lecture

It is needless to pinpoint that the teacher should have a good command over the subject matter. In addition to this, our knowledge should be beautifully and clearly presented. Our endeavor should be to present it methodologically and effectively.

Our topic should be developed in not more than four our five points in an organized way. According to researchers, a lecture with more than four or five points causes the mental tiredness and this leads to failure. The lecture-body includes the presentation of the main lesson. The following variations in between the lecturer make the students alert and increase their interest.

Some vital points for the body:

a) Use the verbal transition or link words help to establish the connection between the pieces of lecture information and to keep them alert to more significant information.
(e. g. therefore, that is why, because, so as a result, by these facts, etc.)

b) Back up of lecture-delivery with audio visual aids, maps, charts, diagrams is equally helpful.

c) Including the active learning during lecture-delivery by providing them with an opportunity of practicing the beginnings of lecture information in the midway helps them to associate a body of information.

d) Use of rhetorical questions to produce an effect rather than to get concrete answers helps to assert something important and sustain their attention.
For example: Are you following me?
Don’t you think so?
Do you notice it? etc.

e) Continuous lecture-delivery may decrease their attention. So we should employ the following strategies for maintaining attention.

- Change the mode of presentation (for example, oral to visual),
- Encourage note-takings by speaking slowly and repeating important information,
- Bring variety in pitch. It adds effectiveness
to our lecture delivery and makes it lively,
- Provide motivational cues (“The coming exam may ask you to…….)
- Use humor to release their tension and monotony of the class,
- Demonstrate our enthusiasm about subject-topic,
- Vary student activities. We should lecture for some moments and then -involve them in short activities (pair-work, group-work, etc.),
- Use question-answer techniques to keep them attentive in presentation,

Many researches have shown that a person can’t fix his or her mind to a lecture which extends for a longer period of time. Variety gives a new taste to the habitual pattern. We could provide them with some handouts, notes, guidelines, etc. in this section and they could be asked to work on them.

iii) The conclusion of the lecture
It is the most neglected segment. It gives an instructor an opportunity to make up the gaps and lapses in the body of lecture (McKeachie 1986). He further adds that an instructor should also encourage them to form topic related questions which strengthen their memory and understanding. In addition to this, we should try to include following strategies in our lecture-conclusion:

• **Repeat and emphasize** the striking points with new examples. This keeps them awake.
• **Encourage questions** from students. They provide feedback to our lecture. So we could judge ourselves how far we were able to communicate ideas and content-matter on the topic.
• **Encourage them to summarize** the main points about the topic delivered. This makes them attentive right from the beginning.
• **Try to establish the relationship** between the previously taught related topics a new one.

Apart from the strategies mentioned above, time allotted for the lecturer should be taken into consideration. When time is over, they start looking outside; manage to close their note books and pen, etc. This signals that we should end our lecture activities within allotted time. So good teaching doesn’t mean teaching a lot but teaching with a well structured manner within a periphery of time. However, sometimes they don’t wish to study for some other causes. It is better not to start our lecture. But this should not be frequently exercised.

**Verbal and Non-verbal Features in Lecture**

Verbal and non-verbal features are supportive factors which are equally accountable for the success of lecture delivery. They should be taken into consideration while delivering a lecture.

Verbal channel is the medium to disseminate lecture information. So until and unless our voice is powerful, students’ interests may not be captured. With our effortful voice with clear pronunciation, we can transfer a sense that we have something within us and we enjoy disseminating it. Here effortful and powerful voice doesn’t mean ear-irritating voice. Let me make it more clear with the concepts of ‘Five S’s’.

1) **Speak thoughtfully:** Plan lecture and develop a clear idea of what we want to disseminate.
2) **Speak clearly:** Neither shout nor whisper. Don’t speak too fast and too slowly. It is said that 120-130 word per minute is the standard speed.
3) **Speak precisely:** Use exact words to express ideas. Don’t take twist and turn to express them. They may be veered away from the content.
4) **Speak facing** the students, not the floor, ceiling, or notes (all the time).
5) **Sit or stand tall** while speaking. Be proud of what we have with us.

(Bell et al.)

Non-verbal features are equally accountable for the effectiveness of a lecture. They are related to our body-language. We should always make an eye contact with students. It is said that twenty five
percent of information is conveyed through our eyes. We should not look outside the windows and doors. We should look cheerful and attentive, keep our hands above our waists and use them for gestures. These help and provide cues to interpret the message. We should neither keep our hands inside the pocket not fold them. Instead of them, we should make purposeful movements of our arms, shoulders and heads. Our movements from right to left and front to back also add effectiveness to lecture-delivery. These reflect that we are sincere and enthusiastic in our jobs. We should not itch our nose, ear and head whenever we are confused.

Conclusion
The explosion of knowledge in the present era has enriched the education field with many methods and techniques. They mainly belong to student-centered ones. However, we see the majority of instructors, lecturers and professors using the lecture-technique in their classes. Some concepts can be made more clear and transparent through it. So it has also been proved to be fine and excellent in spite of its teacher-centeredness, and defects don’t rest on it but on how it is handled. Our efforts should be to lessen its drawbacks by taking into consideration of strategies mentioned above. No matter what technique we exercise in teaching, until and unless it is cultivated with meticulous and optimum use, our goal lags behind our expectation.

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A Lesson Plan: What, Why, and How?

Bhesh Raj Pokhrel*

Introduction

Lesson plan is a plan for learning. A daily lesson plan is developed by the teacher to guide his instruction. Planning the instruction is much more difficult than delivering the instruction. In the lesson plan we arrange the activities in a logical sequence so that learning can take place. It is only with careful lesson planning that we can ensure we have included everything we need to teach the students effectively and that the material is organized in a manner that encourages learning.

Many experienced teachers often reduce lesson plans to a mental map or short outline. New teachers, however, usually find detailed lesson plans to be indispensable. Of course, all details should be written down to assist the smooth delivery of the content. The extent of the detail will vary depending on the number of years of experience that the teacher has and the number of times he/she has taught the lesson. Obviously an experienced teacher may have much less detailed plans than the inexperienced ones.

Purposes of a Lesson Plan

Good lesson plans do not ensure that students will learn what is intended, but they certainly contribute to it. Think of a lesson plan as a way of communicating, and without doubt, effective communication skills are fundamental to all teaching. Lesson plans also help new or inexperienced teachers organize content, materials, and methods. Like most skills, you’ll get better at it the more you do it and think of ways of improving your planning and teaching based on feedback from your students, their parents, and other teachers. Developing your own lesson plans also helps you "own" the subject matter, content you are teaching and that is central to everything good teachers do.

The idea behind the lesson plan is to provide all instructors with a standardized tool for presenting instruction. In short, any instructor should be able to use the lesson plan and know exactly what needs to be taught and in what sequence. The primary purposes of lesson plans are:

Abstract

This article is an attempt to present the overall description of the lesson plan by highlighting its different facets. The article begins with the introduction of the lesson plan. The subsequent topics focus on the purposes and importance of the lesson plan. Then, it also presents the necessary components of the lesson plan.

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1) They aid the instructor in preparing for instruction.
2) They specify the instructional objectives, which help the teacher to move his teaching to the appropriate direction.
3) They provide a tool for giving the instruction.
4) They document course content.
5) They provide the necessary techniques for assessing the students so that the teacher can get immediate feedback for the success or failure of his teaching.

Importance of a Lesson Plan

Have you ever walked into an exam totally unprepared? Ever taken a fitness test when you were out of shape? Occasionally, you may "pull something off," but usually such unpreparedness ends in disaster. Teaching is similar to the scenarios above, in that, in order to do a good job, you must be properly prepared.

You prepare to teach a class by reviewing materials, ensuring the equipment works, setting up student supplies, etc. You must also prepare by developing lesson plans. It's simple; effective lesson plans communicate, ineffective ones don't. Teachers create lesson plans to communicate their instructional activities regarding specific subject-matter. Almost all lesson plans developed by teachers contain student learning objectives, instructional procedures, the required materials, and some written description of how the students will be evaluated.

In fact, five important points included above under the topic “Purposes of Lesson Plan” have clearly highlighted the usefulness or importance of a lesson plan. Moreover, the following points will show the importance of a good lesson plan:

Prepare: When planning a lesson, the teacher should thoroughly understand the subject. Professionals should be consulted or additional reading done if further understanding is needed. At least through lesson planning every teacher is bound to have some preparation for his teaching.

Establish Learning Outcomes: Through lesson planning, desired learning results are established based on the level, needs, and abilities of the participants, which help the teacher direct his/her teaching to achieve these learning outcomes.

Internalize the Lesson: The teacher develops his own teaching outline in course of lesson planning. This helps him/her internalize the lesson based on what he/she knows about himself/herself, the subject, the learners, and the learning environment.

Sequence the Lesson: Sequencing is highly required in the lesson planning process, as a result of which concepts are introduced in an appropriate order.

Evaluate Performance: Addressing questions such as what did the members learn, what went right, what went wrong, and how can I do better next time are considered important by the teacher in a lesson plan.

Manage Class Time: A good lesson plan allocates the time for all the necessary components of teaching/learning activities (for example, 5 minutes for warming up, 15 minutes for presentation of the lesson, 15 minutes for practice, and 10 minutes for evaluation). This is how the teacher can use his/her class for the optimal benefits of the learners.

Develop Confidence: Since all the necessary details for teaching are included in a lesson plan in advance, the teacher can manage the class and teach the lesson with full confidence.

Components of a Lesson Plan

In fact, there is no one "best way" to plan lessons. Regardless of the varied forms, there are fundamental components of all lesson plans that you should learn to write, revise, and improve. The old saying, "Practice doesn't make perfect; perfect practice makes perfect" is at the core of learning this skill. By taking the formats of lesson plans into consideration, we have preferred to divide the essential parts of the lesson plans into two groups: Head parts and Body parts.
1) **Head Parts**

I. **Unit name:** Identify the unit that this lesson is a part of. Write the name of the unit.

II. **Lesson Title:** What is the title of the lesson? Write a descriptive title of the lesson that identifies the content for the reader.

III. **Grade, Level / Subject Area:** Identify the grade level and subject area for which this lesson is written. Enter the grade level and subject area that this lesson is designed for.

IV. **Time Allotted for Lesson:** This is the time that this lesson will take for completion. Write the time planned for the lesson.

Here, as the Head Parts, the teacher’s name, the number of the students, the school's name, and the period of the lesson in which it is taught in the school's hour can also be included.

2) **Body Parts**

a) **Objectives:** These instructional objectives are the learning outcomes for the lesson. In other words, what do you want the student to be able to do when the lesson is over? Write the instructional objectives for the lesson. The objectives serve as the foundation for the entire lesson plan. For this reason, careful thought should go into their development. The objectives must be student centered, which is why the phrase "the student will..... is used in writing the objectives. They must be student centered to show what the student is required to learn, not what we want to teach! These objectives should be ‘SMART’ (i.e. Specific, Measurable, Attainable, Reliable, and Time Bounded).

b) **Materials and Resources:** What materials, resources and technology will be needed for the lesson? List all materials (e.g. textbook, other books, maps, pictures, realia, flash cards, flannel board, etc), technology resources (computers, printer, scanner, internet connection, digital cameras, etc) and also web addresses that are needed for this lesson, if any.

The subject, the method, the ability of the students, and the size of the class, along with other factors will determine how much support material you require. For instance, if students have no background knowledge of what you are teaching they will probably require more proof support. On the other hand, if you have some very experienced students in the class who share their own personal experiences, you will require less support to get your point across.

c) **Activities:** There are a number of items to consider in the procedural section of the plan. This section includes all the instructional procedures that you plan to use to develop the lesson motivate the students, facilitate thinking or monitor the learning process.

Each lesson should begin with a Warming-up section (i.e. introduction part), which is followed by Presentation section (i.e. the body of the lesson in which you include what procedures you are going to use to teach the content.) and then Practice section (i.e. students’ involvement in practising the concepts taught). These different sub-steps under Activities may overlap, for example, during the Presentation stage the teacher can also involve the students for practising the concepts taught. These sub-steps are briefly described below.

- **Warming-up:** Each lesson should begin with some warming-up activities. In this segment, you can relate the present lesson to previous learning and to real life experiences. Jokes can be a good way to break the ice as long as they are relevant to the material being presented. The three necessary elements in this introductory part are: gain attention,
motivate, and provide an overview of the lesson to be taught.

In fact, the warming-up section is quite important because it serves the following purposes:

- Establish a common ground between instructor and students.
- Hold the student’s attention.
- Outline the lesson and show how it relates to the entire course.
- Show the student how the instruction will benefit them.
- Lead into the instruction.
- Presentation: When beginning the body of the lesson you must first decide how to organize main points and sub-points. Proper arrangement of the main points will help you, the instructor, teach the material, and it will help the students learn the material. Generally, lessons, regardless of length, should have from two to five main points. Main points and sub-points are arranged in an appropriate sequence. For the presentation of the content, there are strategies (such as known to unknown or simple to complex) to be used. Although it may sound like a lot of decisions to make, once you’ve laid out your instructional procedures they will lend themselves to one particular pattern and strategy. In this way, at this stage you should include the teaching strategies that will be used; what instructional strategies (instructional methods) you will use in this lesson. There should be a variety of strategies (methods) used.
- Practice: There should also be time for guided practice and review to get feedback from the students. How will you promote student participation in the lesson? This is referred to as learner involvement while the environment of the classroom is referred to as learning environment. There should be a variety of questions or problems to get students involved in learning environment. After you determine these factors, you must determine how you are going to close the lesson.

- Evaluation: Although the students, to some extent, can be evaluated under Practice section of the Activities, there should be a separate section of Evaluation to assess the progress of the students on completion of the present lesson. The tools/questions of the evaluation should be fixed in such a way that the students’ progress could be judged in relation to Objectives fixed in advance. With the help of evaluation, we will judge the overall success or failure of the whole teaching/learning activities.
- Homework: If the teacher feels that the practice in the classroom is not sufficient for the students to internalize all the concepts taught, then he may assign homework to them. The homework gets the students to have self-study at home. Thus, the homework optionally occupies the last section of the lesson plan.

**Conclusion:**

From the entire description given above, we can now assert that lesson planning is a special skill that is learned in much the same way as other skills. It is quite important thing to have the skill to develop your own lesson plans. When you are able to create your own lesson plans, it means you have taken a giant step toward “owning” the content you teach and the methods you use, and that is a crucial thing.
It needs a lot of thinking and practice to sharpen this skill, and it won't happen overnight, but it is a skill that will help to define you as a teacher. Knowing "how to" is far more important than knowing "about" when it comes to lesson plans, and is one of the important markers along the way to becoming a professional teacher.

**References**


A Critical Evaluation of ‘Communication English’ Syllabus

Dubi Nanda Dhakal*

I. English for Specific Purpose (ESP): An Introduction

Harmer remarks, “The term English for special or Specific Purposes has been applied to situations where students have some specific reason for wanting to learn the language. For example, air traffic controllers need English primarily to guide aircraft through the skies” (1995:2). Halliday says, “Foreign languages are learnt for a wide range of different purposes, and for some of these purposes it is appropriate to teach selectively one or more specific varieties (1970:174)”. The professionals, a medical doctor to a production manager, are therefore in need of the technical or registered language. More often than not, we have encountered such circumstances in our practical lives as well because a technical professional is also an administrator, coupled with several roles. The diplomats for example need to be familiar with the diplomatic correspondence and protocols just like an engineer to be expert in writing technical reports. English required for these professional and occupational needs are often explained as English for Occupational Purposes (EOP).

Students going to study at a university in the USA, Great Britain, Australia or Canada, need English so that they can write reports or essays and function in seminars. This is often called English for Academic Purposes (EAP). Students of physics or nuclear physics – or other scientific disciplines need to be able to read articles and textbooks about those subjects in English. This is often referred to as English for Science and Technology (EST). The varieties of English can thus be summarized as:

Abstract

English is both the medium of instruction and a separate subject at many Faculties and Institutes of Tribhuvan University. An English course entitled “Communication English” is designed for Engineering students of Diploma (Certificate) level of all programs. This article attempts to make the critical evaluation of the course as the course of “English for Occupational Purposes (EOP).

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Figure 1. English for Specific Purposes
Harmer; 1995
Harmer again remarks, “What is interesting about all these examples is that the type of English the students want to learn may be different: waiters may want to talk and listen, whereas scientists may want to read and write (1995:4). English has been taught in Nepal for a century and a half as a compulsory subject, as well as an optional subject including English as medium of instruction. The teaching English more or less is related with definite purpose and some function. English as a system of communication is used for varying purposes as foreign language in the Nepalese context. There are numerous varieties of English used for several occupational purposes. They are of use at the lowest level of communication, as well as but also to the highest level in the professional and academic application. The language varies in tone, vocabulary and structure to the speakers’ relation to the hearers. In recent years, the incorporation of some English language structure and writing in different competitive examinations conducted by several organizations including Public Service Commission is a manifestation of the application of English for occupational purposes. There is thus practical application of English language in our country in official professional application among others.

If the whole English language-teaching program is classified into two categories, the larger part can be termed as general English (or common core English) and smaller part is the specific English. The following diagram attempts to illustrate the same fact. Common core English tends to be general as it is used in day-to-day life with wider scope whereas the English for specific purposes is rather narrower, more specific and is thus the registered language of a specialized field. The following diagram can diagrammatically represents this:

![Diagram of English for Specific Purposes and General English/Core English]

Students of medicine for example need the English (ESP) used in medical field. In the same way, airhostesses need polite and pretty English. These points show the evidences that different registers in English language are used with the view to accomplish specific purposes. The more specified the job, the narrower and restricted the language use is.

### 2. Communicative Needs

Besides English as a medium of instruction, the ‘would be’ junior engineers are assumed to cope with wider contexts when they enter their professional career. They are therefore prescribed the ‘communication English’ course so that it is bound to acquaint them with the language varieties they need. The professional needs of these students are to be equipping them with the technical writing and communication. They need to prepare several written documents in their professional career. General notices, reports, letter, tender notices are to cite but a few. The course structure in English is prepared so that it can also be of immense help for them. Aside from some general topics, they are assigned very specific writing skills like writing tender notices and so on.

### 3. Course Components

The course of “Communication English” is meant for the students of Diploma on level at Institute of Engineering for all branches (programmes). The course treats English as a medium of communication, especially technical communication. The objective of this course is to provide students techniques in the use of English for communicative purposes. In the specific objectives of this course students will increase and improve their strategies and skills in oral communication, reading and written communication (Course of Study, 2001: 58).

The course is divided in three broad areas: Oral Communication, Intensive Reading, and Written Communication. Oral Communication includes oral practices such as how to speak effectively, comments on visual clips, round table discussion, group discussion and presentation, interviews
and resolving disputes. Written Communication includes the items like, theoretical discussion on fundamentals of effective writing, writing instructions, definitions, notices, memos, business letters, application and memo reports. Intensive reading includes grammatical exercises with some exercises on dictionary work. All the components of the course are incorporated in the evaluation processes in the examination. It is not logical to evaluate the oral communication through written examination, however.

4. Teaching Learning Situation

The course is taught to the students who complete at least one year of college education because the same course is prescribed for all programmes, third semester through the fifth semester at the Institute of Engineering, Tribhuvan University. By the time they happen to study this course the students have not very much been naturally exposed to the contents of the course. They are not ready to be versed in the contents immediately either. They are for example not acquainted with the tender notices, memo reports and even memo writing. Neither have they known the significance of the course components like group discussion and round table discussion, data collection for memo reports and so on immediately. A difficulty is felt at this stage to bridge the level of the students and the contents they should deal with. Unless they know what the course is really designed for, it is difficult to grasp the soul of the course.

Often the lecture method is used for teaching the course content which is far from satisfactory. Teaching oral communication by lecture method and evaluation this in written form seems neither productive nor effective.

5. Technical Communication

The discussed course is ‘Communication’ or more precisely ‘Technical Communication’ or to put in the broader sense ‘Technical Writing’. ‘Technical Writing’ would not encompass all the items incorporated in the course because of the term ‘writing’ despite the fact that the skills in the course are evaluated and tested in writing. The paper therefore can be termed as “Technical Communication” or “Technical Writing”. Pouley and Roordan (2000:6) say technical writing has three basic principles: to inform, to instruct, and to persuade. They comment:

Most technical writing informs. To carry out their functions in the workplace, people must supply or receive information constantly. They need to know or explain their scheduled time for a meeting.... Technical writing also instructs. Writers give readers directions for using equipment and for performing duties....Finally technical writing persuades. Writers present readers with cogent reasons to follow a particular course of action. On the job, people must persuade others to do certain things... (2000:6).

Several aspects of interpersonal communication such as speaking skills, discussion techniques, group conferencing and persuasive writing are integrated in the existing course. Despite the terminology in the course title, the course is meant to be technical communication. These three basic formulae should be taken into consideration while preparing the technical syllabuses and technical writing and communication.

6. The Problems

There are crucial problems of teaching English in general and teaching Communication English at Diploma in particular. They can be summarized under several heading as pointed out by Adhikary about 30 years back (1977:124):

(a) the teachers
(b) the students
(c) the teaching learning situation
(d) the textbooks
(e) the examination

(a) The teachers are of either literature based or a purely language based. Most of them are not trained in language teaching and particularly in teaching technical communication. Although we talk of integrating language and literature teaching, we have not been able to do so. Again, the teaching technical communication is even
more difficult for both the groups. Besides, for the teaching of technical English, teachers should be trained with new set of vocabulary, and with unfamiliar information contained in the curriculum. The opportunity of being trained in technical English is likely to widen their horizon of learning and teaching.

(b) The students bear an immense possibility, despite the strangeness they feel towards what has been prescribed. They don’t pay considerable attention to the course as a whole because this is not their core subject. Unless they imbibe the significance of the course, there is a good chance that they will not pay due attention to the subject.

(c) The two points just discussed are worth detecting here. Neither the situation is entirely a failure nor completely successful. In the present context of Institute of Engineering, a wide cleft is visible between the students of higher and lower stations in terms of their efficiency when they have been merged in the same classroom. This makes the situation not only alarming but also a complete fiasco occasionally. Moreover, teaching oral communication of English by in the lecture method does not pursue the spirit of oral communication.

(d) Every textbook is written with good intention and no text is incorrect and unworthy. We have, however, no textbooks written in Nepalese context relevant to this course. What is prepared is the Manual which is the only the available materials found to consult with. However, the books given as references might be worth consulting but not available. As long as the textbooks and reference books are with the teachers, the teaching learning is difficult for the teachers. The course has thus been made enigmatic and mysterious in lack of the availability of the textbooks including reference books.

(e) Examination always controls the learning environment. The both ways: students worrying only about the questions in the examination and the teachers repeating same questions repeatedly have paralyzed the spirit of the ‘Communication English’ course. The more creative questions, the more eager the students will be. More challenges in the examination will make them more resourceful, imaginative and innovative. Mechanical repetition in questions has in fact hampered the students’ creativity.

7. Recommendations

(1) I would prefer to name the course as “Technical Writing, or Technical Communication” as such because the course is designed only for the students currently studying engineering who are the ‘would be’ technicians.

(2) The course should be treated more specifically. It would be more relevant to include the features of technical writing rather than the features of effective writing in the theoretical discussion. Awareness at least should be created in them to explore what technical writings are like with several varieties.

(3) The teachers should no doubt be trained in the technical writing. Provided a teacher is not given opportunities to see and train in technical writing, he is simply obliged to teach but is not forced to be more creative. This obligation will not leave an impressive impact on the teachers because teachers from non-technical fields are unaware of such details.

(4) Availability of the textbook is one of the major components of the curriculum. If they are not easily accessible, they are obviously of no use. The curriculum designers should include the references considering the availability of the textbooks. The textbooks should provide enough examples regarding all the topics presented. The present course for example includes the references, which are not commonly found in the market. I would like to give some titles for this purpose:


Ocular communication should be judged and evaluated orally. Provided this is not done in the right time, the students’ oral efficiency cannot be corrected, improved, and evaluated.

8. Conclusion

The communication English course is timely, appropriate, and relevant. Wider varieties of English writings and documents should be exposed to the students, particularly for technical students. Technical communication is not a need only of the engineers but also of other professionals of other fields, viz. business administration, medicine, diplomatic relations, etc. There are several reasons why a technical writing or technical communication is urgently required for the students. English for occupational purpose help the target group gear up their workmanship among others. This is thus the only way to make the English language teaching not only appropriate and acceptable but also useful and relevant.

Notes

1 The course is prescribed for all branches of Engineering for Diploma level viz. Diploma of Automobile, Architecture, Civil, Computer, Electrical, Electronics, Mechanical and Refrigeration and Air Conditioning Engineering under Tribhuvan University. Many programs of Diploma in engineering run and affiliated by CTEVT follow the same course.

2 I owe much to my teacher Prof. Yogendra P. Yadava for his lecture notes on which the diagram is based when he was delivering the lectures on English Language teaching for Master's of English at Central Department of English, Tribhuvan University.

References


Teaching Short Stories in the Language Classroom

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Introduction

Short stories can be used as one of the means to achieve the ultimate goal of the language teaching program. The ultimate goal of language teaching program is to develop communicative competence in language learners. Being communicatively competent means to be able to use the language appropriately in the given socio-cultural matrix. For this, the users should possess the rules of lexico-grammar and the rules of the language use. Short stories can be used for this purpose.

Why short stories in the language programme

The purpose of teaching short stories in the language classroom is obviously different from the purpose of teaching them in the literature classroom. In the former case, the short stories are used as a means to develop communicative competence, while in the latter case; they are used as a means to develop 'literary competence'. To write with Lazar (1991), the study of short stories makes short stories themselves the content or subject of the course whereas the use of short stories as a resource draws on short stories as one source among many different kinds of texts for promoting interesting language activities.

Linguistically speaking, short stories develop language awareness in learners. Similarly short stories are authentic materials for language learners. They can be used as a huge authentic source of new vocabulary items and grammatical structures. The learners can see how the words and structures can be manipulated in a variety of ways to create meanings in a text.

From psycholinguistic perspective, short stories facilitate language acquisition by providing ‘...meaningful and memorable contexts for processing and interpreting new language’ (Lazar, 1991). They are highly motivating which always encourage hypothesis formation and make the language learners inquisitive.

The use of short stories in the language classroom is based on the ‘pleasure principle’. That is to say in the language program, we no doubt

Abstract

Literature has been an appendage to language teaching. The use of various genres of literature, as a means, has occupied a very important place in language teaching. This article tries to explore various rationale behind the use of short stories in the language classroom. In addition to this, it presents some of the techniques of teaching short stories to develop communicative competence.

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have to concentrate on teaching of various aspects and skills of language, and it is assured that it is the pleasure of exploring the text that motivates the learner and ‘pushes’ them ahead without making them aware that they are being pushed. A good story is experienced pleasurably.

From sociolinguistic viewpoints, short stories help language learners get knowledge on how the language operates in the society. Teaching of a language can never be kept aloof from its culture. Since the short story in some way reflects the culture of the community it represents, it can provide the learner with access to the target language culture.

Philosophically speaking, short stories deal with the fundamental issues of human life such as love and sex, compassion and hatred, life and death and so on. The short story, though certainly man-made, reflects the truth. Facts and fictions around which short stories revolve are not mutually exclusive, but rather are complementary to each other.

**Techniques of teaching short stories**

As we discussed above, there is a distinction between the study of short story in the literature classroom and the use of short story as a resource for language teaching. That is to say the short story can be taught and learnt for different purposes. However, in both of the cases the learners are expected to be alert to its plot, characters, meaning, perspective and language. The teacher can adopt the following three stages to teach short stories in the language classroom:

I. **Pre-reading**
II. **While-reading**
III. **Post-reading**

I. **Pre-reading**: This can be regarded as a warming up stage in which the activities that can be supportive for while reading are adopted. Most of the activities of this stage sign post the learners to the actual reading. The preparatory activities help the learners to focus their attentions on the topic, and they activate the prior relevant knowledge and already known language. In this stage, the teacher is required to give the clear instruction to the learners. The learners should know what they are expected to do before reading the actual text.

**Objectives**:
- To make the students interested in the topic.
- To signpost them to the text.
- To activate the learner’s prior linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge.
- To develop some kind of ‘schema’ about the story they are going to read.

**Activities**
- Look at the pictures and title, and guess what the story is about.
- Underline the difficult words (No need to read the passage thoroughly).
- Find the synonyms/ antonyms of the words given on the board.
- Underline or read aloud the sentence that contains....(word).
- Underline or read aloud the sentence that contains *if clause/ relative clause/ No sooner... than*...etc.
- Write a readable story with the help of the following outline. (The teacher gives a skeleton of the story similar to the one they are going to read.)

II. **While-reading**: This is the actual reading stage. The main purpose of while reading activities is to develop the skills of eliciting the message from the written text. In this stage, the comprehension of the text, establishing the relationship between what is actually read and what the learners are going to read, macro-level prediction (predicting in a general way what is going to be read) and micro-level prediction (prediction in a specific way, what words and/or sentences are going to be read), interpretation of the overall meaning of the text are of primary importance.

**Objectives**
- To develop the skills of eliciting the required information from the story.
- To develop the skills of interpreting the overall meaning of the text.
- To engage the learners in prediction and matching what is actually read and what they expect to read.
Activities

- Read the first/second paragraph and tell/write in short what will happen next.
- Read the story and write whether the statements given on the board are true or false.
- Pick out all the phrases that suggest physical action of ...(the name of the character).
- Discuss possible answers to these question:
  a. What do you think he/she means by ‘…….’
  b. Do you think ......?

III. Post-reading stage: This stage consists of all the activities which are done after the whole task of reading the story is completed. Some of the post-reading activities can be the extension of the while reading activities whereas others can be the activities that are loosely related to the theme of the story itself.

Objectives:

- To check whether the students have understood what they were expected to understand.
- To provide them with the opportunity to express their attitudes towards the story.
- To make them able to transfer the information of the story to the context.
- To check to what extent they have completed while reading activities successfully.
- To find out why some of the students have failed to understand the story.

Activities

- What would happen if.........?
- Write 5 sentences about the character you like most.
- Draw the picture of the character you like/hate most.
- Rewrite the story in about 120 words.
- Write an essay on....... 
- Discuss the relationship between ..........and ...........

Some useful tips

- The tasks must be suitable and appropriate for the level. The above suggested activities, for example, are suitable for the students of the secondary level and/or intermediate level.
- The students should be encouraged to work together in pairs or groups.
- So far as possible immediate feedback should be given to the students for their work.
- The students should be informed about the time they are given for each class activity.
- Avoid ‘the read this approach’
- Reading ‘word by word approach’ or reading aloud should be discouraged.
- Tell the students that it is not necessary to know the dictionary meaning of each and every word. Encourage them to infer the meaning of the word from the context.
- Be specific about the weak students; encourage them to take part in the classroom activities.
- Theme or summary of the story may be given at the end of the lesson.

Although theoretically these three stages of teaching short stories are treated separately, practically there must be a continuous flow right from giving background information (pre-reading activities) to the completion of the activities based on the reading text (post-reading activities).

References


Note: This article is based on the paper presented in the Ninth International Conference of NELTA, 2003.
Introduction:

Despite its small size, Nepal accommodates amazing cultural and linguistic diversity. There are more than 90 languages spoken as mother tongue and English has got a status of foreign language. There is no particular speech community as such that uses English for day to day communication. Despite this fact it is taught as one of the core subjects from the very beginning of our education, because English is the language of global importance of library, diplomacy, business, education and employment and the promotion of human rights. In other words, it has been taught as a compulsory subject from grade one to Bachelor level. In Nepal, English was introduced formally at the school level in 1854, that is, about one hundred and fifty years ago. But a glance through the past century of English language teaching gives an interesting picture, i.e. even with a long history, ELT in Nepal has not been much effective. Even after spending 10 to 16 years on learning English, the students do not seem proficient in language skills. In many cases, a child can be proficient in a language in five years if s/he is given proper environment. In this context, John Norrish’s (1987) argument appears reasonable when he says ‘If we can all learn a language as infants but find second language so difficult, then may be it is the teaching methods that are at fault.’ I also have the same feeling regarding learning a language. As a matter of fact, one of the main reasons for hindrance in language learning is our teaching procedures. I feel that if we teach English through English we can help students learn English more effectively than they are doing now. In this case they can achieve a good deal of success.

What Is Teaching English Through English?

According to Jane Wills (1990) “Teaching English through English means speaking and using English in the classroom as often as you possibly can, for example; when organizing teaching activities or
chatting to your students socially. In other words, it means establishing English as the main language of communication between your students and yourself.” He further argues that your students must know that it does not matter if they make mistakes when they are talking, or if they fail to understand every word that you say. Similarly John Norrish argues that one of the most inhibiting factors in any formal learning situation is the fear of making mistakes and being ridiculed either by native speakers or by the teacher. This leads to the characteristic hesitancy among learners to say anything in a foreign language for fear of appearing a fool. This form of behavior has been described by Earl Stevick (1976) as defensive learning. The learner is not so much concerned with attempting to express what he would like to say, either orally or in writing as rather with saying what he thinks he can without making mistakes. Then can he learn the language effectively? Of course not.

To eliminate students’ hesitance and make them feel relaxed, the English language should be used in the classroom from primary level. In this environment, they can learn the language more effectively since it is well known that language skills like other skills can be acquired only through practise. The child needs sufficient scope for his practise. More the exposure, better the language learning. If the language in question is used as the main language, of course, the students can get more opportunity to practise it. At the early stage, it may be very difficult both for the teacher and students. So a lot of praise and encouragement is needed rather than the threat and punishment. It is no doubt that students make many errors in their early stages. But neither the teacher nor the students should worry too much about small mistakes although some teachers regard mistakes as a sign of failure. It is an Italian proverb sbagliando s’impara (we learn through our errors) can make them think twice. Making mistakes can indeed be regarded as an essential part of learning. The learners should be given encouragement in the situation where errors arise when they attempt to express. Disapproval should on no account be shown. While practising, no doubt, correction will also be needed. But correction of mistakes should be kept to a minimum otherwise the students will lose confidence and give up. Ideally correction should only occur during the presentation and practice of the lesson, if they are getting the main teaching point wrong. We should remember that the main aim of learning a language is to be able to communicate in that language; if we understand what a student says despite his mistakes then he has communicated successfully. We should encourage them to speak more. If they are afraid of making mistakes; they may never practice and learn how to communicate in English. So in the name of correction, students should not be discouraged to use the language.

It may not be possible to use English all the time, unless we have a multi lingual class or more advanced students. According to Wills (1990) there are times when it is preferable and more economical as far as time is concerned to drop English for a few seconds and use the students’ own language. For example;

(i) If it would take a long time to explain the meaning or use of a new word in English, we could give it to them in L1 i.e. in the students’ own language.

(ii) We might find it quicker to explain the aims of our lesson or of the next activity in L1 just to make sure that everyone knows what they are learning and when they can use it.

(iii) As a check of our students’ understanding; after the presentation stage; we can ask them how you would say that in your language. It will boost their confidence and help reinforce learning.

(iv) We might ask an early intermediate class to discuss in L1 in pairs; the main ideas of reading passage but only where the aim of your lesson is to improve their reading skills, e.g. reading for the main points where subsequent discussion in their own language; in pairs might help them develop this skill.

But we should not let our students speak in L1 without our permission. If our students begin speaking in their own language without our permission we have to regard this as a danger signal. Are they bored? Or haven’t they understood? Or anything else? It generally means that something is wrong with
the lesson and a change of activity is needed. The teacher should be very careful. He has to create English environment every time and encourage the students to use English. Then only they can develop their communicative skills. However, we cannot expect immediate results. It may take time for them to improve. But by the end of the course, we can produce students who can not only pass their exam but who can also communicate in English. So it is very important to create a culture of speaking English in the classroom to improve our students’ English.

**How can we start using English?**

It is possible to teach entirely in English even with a class of beginners starting their first English lesson. For this, we should understand that gestures and tone of voice are more important than the actual words or phrases used to tell the students what to do and how to do it. If beginners get used to hearing non-other but English language during their English lesson they will very soon understand and later learn to say words like good, thank you, sit down, come here, go there etc. But we need to select and adapt the language to suit our students bearing in mind their age, interest, background, every day life and so on. We sometimes can use gestures as well to ease learning. If the teacher uses structures and gesture together the learners will be highly excited to learn and they can easily understand what the teacher is saying which facilitates them to learn the structures. The teacher should let them feel relaxed and make the class more enjoyable, praising, and encouraging them to do things they are doing. The teacher should understand that praise and encouragement are much more valuable tools than anger and punishment. Then when they learn some basic structures they should be asked to use the language in real situation. The teacher should slowly introduce new structures and ask them to use them. The teacher should keep in mind that language is more than simply a system of rules and it is learnt through real use than through drills and exercises. A teacher should try to make the classroom environment joyful by playing different roles or asking them to play different roles. According to Breen and Candlin (1980) the teacher has three main roles in the communicative classroom. The first is to act as a facilitator of the communicative process, the second is to act as a participant, and the third is to act as an observer and learner. The main idea is that following different techniques the teacher should use only the English language in the classroom at any level.

**Different Techniques That Facilitate Teaching English Through English**

There are many techniques which help teaching English through English. A few of them are discussed below.

**Role play**

After students learn some basic structures, they can be asked to play roles of different characters in order to persuade them to learn and to exploit opportunities for authentic communication in English. The students can practice the language effectively and purposefully. For this, role play cards should be prepared. If it is possible, the chairs should be arranged to make separate groups. As I feel if the students are asked to play the roles by providing role play cards they will be highly excited to participate. Even the quiet students may be interested. Then unknowingly they will learn the language. But the teacher has to be able to manage the class properly so that the class won’t go out of order.

**Dialogue practice**

Practicing dialogue is another way of teaching English through English. For this to happen, dialogues of different people can be recorded and the students can be asked to listen to the tape without looking at the scripts. Then they can practice together in pairs; helping each other with pronunciation. Then they can be asked to say what they have heard or learnt. This helps them to develop their listening as well as speaking skill.

**Use of visual aids**

As we know, a single picture is better than hundred words. Visual aids can easily attract the attention of the students. So while teaching, simple visual aids...
can be used for language works which are teacher initiated but they must be student-centered. The teacher can use magazine, picture or poster or wall chart or charts or diagrams or photographs or flash cards with pictures or realia or others which can easily be collected. With the help of these visual aids he can encourage the students to speak in English. For example, he can show a picture of a man and ask them to describe him. Similarly he can teach vocabulary items effectively with the help of flash cards. In my opinion, visual aids are the best tools to create English environment in the class.

Use of tape recorders and other electrical equipments

Language can be taught effectively through audio or audio/visual aids. One way of giving our classes more practice in listening and exposing them to English spoken situation in a meaningful way is the use of visual aids. The teacher should manage, at least, one audio or audio visual aid for his classroom. If the students get chance to see the pictures with sound they will be highly excited and attracted. Then they can be asked to listen to the text and give the answers. If it is done they can learn the language more effectively.

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Ways of Effective Language Teaching in Heterogeneous Class

Hari Maya Sharma*

Abstract

This paper is an attempt to present some tips of effective teaching in general and teaching language in particular. This paper tries to discuss how a language class becomes heterogeneous and the ways of making welcoming and inclusive learning environment. This paper talks about six main aspects of effective teaching. The main focus of this paper is to highlight inclusive procedure to provide equal opportunity in a mixed-up class.

Introduction

While talking about child right, we must talk about their right to education. In this millennium, 'Education for all' has become slogan in the world. For this purpose different conventions have been passed in different time. Special education, the special needs education, have been practised or have still been practising to meet the goal. Inclusive education is also a means to achieve "Education for All".

All children have rights for education, although it has only been a slogan not in practical. In the world, it's almost impossible to find totally homogeneous class. The class may be homogenous in one aspect, will be heterogeneous from another. Therefore, a heterogeneous class can be compared with miniature society, where different types of persons are included.

On the other hand, there have been different approaches, methods, techniques practised in course of time in the field of language teaching. In spite of the age of science and technology, this century hasn't found the totally successful methods of teaching and still it is searching for the perfect way of teaching simultaneously to different people with individual differences.

Now, it is the demand of world that, inclusive approach, materials, techniques and inclusive teaching learning environment should be created by concerned people or particularly by the teacher in his class by adapting different ways - planning classroom management, teacher' leadership, presentation, students' participation and way of evaluation.

The planning

It is true that, teaching is very difficult and responsible job which impresses the learner's behavior, attitude, his present and future and also his entire course of life. The teacher should possess different positive

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qualities to impress learner’s habit. Just entering into the class, giving lecture and going out after ringing the bell, is not a duty of a good teacher. And being the best teacher is also not an easy task. It is very complicated and a never ending task. There are many factors responsible for making person a best teacher. It needs rigorous commitment, devotion, dedication and continuity. As a teacher, someone should always be punctual, fit, ready, responsible and tactful as well.

Besides these qualities, the teacher should be well-prepared and an example him/herself. The well-prepared teacher needs to have clear idea about the objectives of the lesson, the nature of the class whether it is heterogeneous. The class becomes heterogeneous when it contains boys and girls who are able and disables, from different castes, cultural background, religious boundary, linguistic background, poor family, and so on. The class may include conflict-victimized, disease-victimized and other exploited and helpless street-children. The child may be victimized from abduction, imprisonment and disaster, etc. The teacher should make plan according to the above mentioned situations.

The teacher should plan to include all types of students in the mainstream of teaching-learning process. For the purpose, she/he has to select the language item to teach, the skills s/he is focusing, learning aids s/he using, the classroom management s/he can maintain, different techniques s/he will apply to include all the students, the way of presentation to make the lesson fruitful, the student-centred activities and evaluation techniques to diagnose the strengths and weaknesses of the learners and his own teaching strategy.

The teacher should have vision; s/he should fix up goals and objectives to make the vision real. To meet the already fixed objectives, s/he should launch tasks or activities within a fixed period of time and evaluation whether it is fulfilled or not. To meet the objectives or aim of the nation she should prepare yearly plan at the beginning of session, weekly/unit plan before starting a unit and daily lesson plan, before going to the class. This process of preparation is planning. It provides the teacher a roadmap for language teaching in a heterogeneous class.

The well-managed classroom

Generally speaking, it is hardly possible to find totally homogeneous class. A class can be homogeneous from one aspect may be heterogeneous from another. To illustrate it, if a class includes same-aged students may have different family/cultural/religious background, interest, abilities, sex and so on. If we try to make it homogeneous from sex still be heterogeneous from other and ultimately it becomes heterogeneous. Therefore, a heterogeneous classroom is a miniature society. That’s why, one factor is not enough to include all the students in the mainstream of teaching-learning process. There should be balanced adjustment in different aspects.

A well-managed classroom is inevitable for effective teaching and learning. The inclusive, conductive and welcoming classroom itself motivates the learners in learning. The welcoming classroom includes many factors like adequate size, well-ventilation, enough number of furnitures, different teaching aids, enough space/ place for walking, easy to conduct project work/group work and other classroom activities. It should have the facilities of using electronics devices such as OHP, slides, film strips and others.

The classroom should include multi-typed teaching aids. The teacher should use them turn by turn so that all of the students can get equal opportunity to learn. Individual differences should also be respected and cared. Movable furniture, for using in different situations to work together or separately, is another part of a good classroom. The group division should be done analytically so that weak/ disable students can get support from the talents. Both girls and boys should be mixed up in group or in general sitting.

A well-managed classroom provides special care for the disables/deprived and mentally impaired children both by the teacher and students. No discrimination, but equal opportunity is the motto of inclusive classroom. Students are treated without any bios. Easy and free environment co-operative and disciplined students, well managed classroom make the class welcoming and inclusive for everyone to learn, although it is a heterogeneous class.
**Teacher’s leadership**

The teacher is a guide to students. As a believable guide, s/he should be friendly and an example herself for the students. Her/his leadership is seen if s/he practises the slogan "I do from today". The teacher’s leadership leads to teaching and learning. Teaching means not saying what ought to be done, it means changing the behaviour of the learners. To change behaviour, the learners should be self-motivated and for it the teacher should reflect her/himself as an example. S/he must practise the opinion that leadership means not only a management, but it is a behaviour. The students often try to copy the teacher’s behaviour therefore; s/he should be an example to convey the message "Do as what the teacher says". For this, s/he should have different good manners such as positive attitude towards teaching, students and teaching environment. The teacher should have smiley face, close relation with the students, positive and biasless but special care for weak/disables and deprived children. Tolerance and co-operation in classroom are other good examples of successive leadership of a teacher which helps the teacher to be an example.

The teacher should avoid some negative manners like swaying from side to side, fiddling with pens, papers and so on. While teaching s/he shouldn't put hands in pockets or fold arms. Repetition of gestures, imbalanced body language such as, rubbing nose, tugging ears, adjusting clothes or ties convey negative message among the class. Rude voice while raising questions by the students and insulting them are very bad manners of a teacher. Therefore, these bad habits must be avoided and very good manner as described above must be accepted for the best leadership in the heterogeneous classroom.

**Effective presentation**

Effectiveness of language class is also based on how, the subject matter is presented. Presentation is that factor which affects learning. Normally in our context, the language classes are over crowded, mixed-up class from different socio cultural background. The attitude towards English and their pre-knowledge may be different in different students. Therefore, the teachers have been facing many problems for ages in language teaching. The language class with other facilities with the teacher’s planning, classroom management, his leadership is balanced but lack of effective presentation can’t be a lesson effective in heterogeneous class. Balanced adjustment of effective communication and reasonable application of teaching aids make the presentation very fruitful and effective.

**Communication**

Communication means ways of expressing ideas, opinions and emotions. Different people have different ways of expression. Their expression introduces themselves. Communication is the inclusion of voice, verbal and visual factors. The balanced combination of these three elements makes communication natural and effective. It is the most important factor in classroom which helps to provide opportunity to learn, to include all types of students in general classroom situation because the student with poor hearing capacity, can see the body movement and vice versa if there is balance among them.

**Voice**

Voice is a distinctive feature which helps to distinguish one person from another. It helps to express someone's emotion, attitudes, feeling and so on. Voice plays very important role to motivate the learners in classroom. When someone is presenting his/her lesson, s/he must be audible to all normal the students. The voice should be attractive with suitable characteristics like pace and pausing, pitch. Intonation, stress, chunking etc.

**Pace and pausing**

Here pace refers to the speed of voice/speaking. As a language teacher, someone should speak in a normal pace so that his/her students can catch it easily. Very fast speech doesn't work and very slow voice may be boring. Therefore the pace shouldn't be too fast and too slow.

Pausin is another element of effective voice. It is to give emphasis to the words or utterances that is
used. As a teacher we should have told them and give them time to anticipate what is coming next.

**Pitch**

Pitch is another feature of good voicing. It's the way of voice going up and down. When we listen to people speaking we can hear that some sounds or group of sounds goes higher of lower than others. This relative height of speech sounds as perceived by listener is called pitch. It aids meaning, colour and helps to express different emotion and makes the voice/communication effective. The teacher should have this quality.

**Chunking**

Chunking is the division of utterances into parts in the process of learning and comprehension. It helps the students to understand the meaning of the utterances the teacher used.

**Verbal aspect**

Verbal aspect refers to words used in communication. The words used in the class affects the student's attitude towards learning. The teacher should always be positive in the class. Before, talking or saying something to the learner. He should be careful about the consequences of them. In a heterogeneous class, some students may be disables, dull and some may be talent. If the teacher doesn’t care it and uses rude words, discriminately may pinch the students and s/he may drop-out the class or the situation may be offensive.

On the other hand, the words should be according to the level of students. From using words, the teacher shouldn’t show his/her supremacy in front of the class. The word selection should match the level, interest and should encourage them in mainstream of learning environment.

**Visual**

Visual aspect is another important component of impressive language presentation. Visual means body language. There are different visual factors responsible to make communication effective.

**Positioning, posturing and movement**

The teacher shouldn't hide his body from the class. S/he should be in front of them. Posturing and movement of body is another effective aspect of communication. Most of the message can be conveyed by the help of posturing. The teacher should make his body active while speaking.

**Movement of hands**

During, presenting language item, the teacher should keep his/her hands free. It's not better to put hands in pocket/ on waist, to fold arms and to put behind his/her back. There should be reasonable movement according to the words or voice.

**Gesture**

Gesture is another visual activity, simultaneously used while speaking. The gesture should be enough. It should be controlled, situational, and suitable in communication. If it's not controlled, it may create ambiguity. Therefore it should show what he is doing or describing. It shows he is emphasizing; feeling etc. If it's used effectively and naturally. It helps provide equal opportunity to learn to the students who have poor listening capacity. He/she can understand lesson by the help of gestures.

**Eye-contact**

Eye-contact is a very powerful aspect of establishment of relation. It helps to make classroom environment welcoming. The teacher should follow the principle of 'Look at all but don’t look at any". It means there should be eye contact with all the students but should not concentrate on certain face.

**Use of teaching aids**

Any things which help the teacher to teach and the students to learn are called teaching aids. Different kinds of things which can be used in classroom situation to facilitate learning, to bring life in the class and to create the permissive environment in teaching are called teaching aids.

It's needless to describe the importance of teaching aids in learning. It's value in language teaching is
immense. Although, teaching aids may be audio, visual and audio-visual the visual aid is better than audio aid in normal case both types of materials should be used turn by turn to provide equal opportunity to the students with weak hearing and seeing power. It will be better to use audio-visual aids, if possible. Sometimes, language games, rhymes and other supplementary aids can be used to include all types of students in learning.

The teacher should use different types of materials scientifically, systematically, reasonably to make his presentation very effective.

**Students' participation**

Although new methods replaced the old one, there are still some strengths and weaknesses everywhere. The degree may vary. The elective method is the inclusion of good aspect all methods which can be used according to the needs of the learners. This method is very helpful in heterogeneous class because there are individual differences as the way of their learning may be vary. We should provide freedom in their learning way. Sometimes the teacher should divide the class in group and group work should be conducted. The equal opportunity and care for all should be provided by creating supporting environment in learning. The methods can be used according to the students needs. The teacher should provide the task according the capacity of the learner. His/ her role should be of facilitator.

**Evaluation**

At the end of lesson the teacher evaluates whether the objectives of the lesson is met or not. S/he will ask the students some related questions and list them on the blackboard. She/he will highlight the most important points from each portion of teaching and at last s/he will conclude by telling them what he has taught and closes the lesson with happy closing.

**References:**


Introduction of teacher training

In the words of Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary the term, "training" means, "The process of learning the skills that somebody needs to do a job." To elaborate the statement extracted from Oxford dictionary, training is a pre-requisite phenomenon for handling any responsibility for everybody. Regarding teacher training and its importance Balsara (2004) states that teacher training provides the practical knowledge with emphasis on methods and techniques of classroom teaching and management. Balsara’s view focuses on the importance of training to the teachers to acquire practical knowledge. Here, practical knowledge implies ability of the teachers to handle the classroom and the activities as they happen in it. In a broader sense, teachers are called nation builders in every country and society. The importance of this profession lies in the fact that teachers produce other professionals. As the teachers are important components of a whole educational process, their performance plays a vital role to change the entire society as per the nation’s or society’s needs. It is obvious that knowledge is obtained through experience and study, henceforth, the teachers cannot remain untouched from the fact that their professionalism is enhanced through training. They are required to be efficient to impart knowledge with suitable methods and techniques how their learners learn effectively with having certain goals.

Unless and until teachers are trained, it is believed that no quality education is imparted. Keeping this view, teacher-training programmes have been launched worldwide. In the language of Farrell and Richards (2005) "Teachers need to expand their roles and responsibilities over time if they are to continue to find language teaching rewarding ..." (p. 3). Knowledge and the human world are ever-changing phenomena. In order to up-date with the ever-changing knowledge in the field of
Education teachers are to be trained. They are to be given training time and again to adopt the changing knowledge. To establish training as a required component in teacher education, I would like to quote two other definitions:

About education by Freeman, 1990 (as cited in Wallace, 1991) says that it is a process of learning that develops moral, cultural, social and intellectual aspects of the whole person as an individual and member of society.

Regarding the term "training", Wallace (1991) defines that training prepares any body for a particular function or profession.

From the above-mentioned two definitions of education and training, the relationship between them can be drawn. As in the first definition, education helps an individual in his or her over all development where as training is for a particular skill or profession. So, by the definitions, education seems to be a macro process and training a micro one.

Moreover, education consists of many levels or processes and one of them is training. Richards and Farrell (2005) said, "Training involves understanding basic concepts and principles as a pre-requisite for applying them to teaching and the ability to demonstrate principles and practices in the classroom" (p.3). From the above mentioned ideas of training, I came to know that training is a process which consists of theoretical and practical aspects that help somebody to do something. In the case of teachers, training as a process helps them to learn theories which help them to teach according to the methods and techniques as implied by those theories. As I have mentioned earlier, teacher training consists mainly of methods, skills and techniques which help teachers run a class very systematically giving benefits to teacher as well as learners. Therefore, training helps to strengthen the professionalism of a person of any field. In the case of teachers, training is a must since the teachers have very crucial role in the field of education and the classroom is considered as a laboratory where the teachers can test their theoretical knowledge i.e. principles and techniques to find out how effective they are. The trained teachers are basic requirement in the English as Foreign Language (EFL) setting to impart quality English education.

English Education and Training Institutions in Nepal: An outline

Talking about English at present, it has been a well recognized international medium of communication and has dominance over almost all other languages. It is a treasure house of knowledge as well. It is through English that non-English communities have imported foreign inventions, ideas, culture, literature, modern technology and so on. The global development brought about by information, technology and transportation have narrowed down the linguistic, cultural and geographical distances among the nations. It has further increased the need and importance of English in Nepal.

Historically the practices of teacher training in Nepal have almost a six decade history. Luitel, (2004) states that the first effort of formal teacher training programme in Nepal dates back to 1947 A.D. It was initiated by the basic teacher training programme which was based on the Gandhian philosophy of self-support. The same programme continued till it was replaced by National Teacher Training Centre. On the recommendations of the National Education Planning Commission, the centre was established in 1954 for giving some basic training to the primary school teachers as in-service course. After the establishment of the College Of Education in 1956, the trend of teacher training was set.

Regarding the training institutions, there are mainly three existing training institutions in Nepal (Shrestha, 2002). They are (a) National Centre for Educational Development (NCED), (b) different universities, and (c) Higher Secondary Education Board (HSEB). NCED launches training to both in-service (INSET) and pre-service teachers (PRESET),
different universities run degree programmes as PRESET and HSEB runs training to both INSET and PRESET teachers.

There are some institutions other than NCED, HSEB and different universities which run teacher training programme from non-governmental organizations (NGO) and International non-governmental organizations (INGO) sectors like; Nepal English Language Teachers’ Association (NELTA). The different NGOs and INGOs run mainly INSET training programmes. Here, the term INSET signifies the teacher training programmes run to give training to the working teachers and PRESET signifies the teacher training programmes run to give training to the teachers who are not working at present but going to work in the near future or it is for preparation of the new teachers.

From the existing training institutions, as I have just mentioned above, there are mainly two types of trends in teacher training; INSET and PRESET. From the very beginning, INSET has been conducted by the different universities for both primary and secondary level teachers. Talking about INSET, it has been conducted through NCED under the Ministry of Education and Sports for both primary and secondary school teachers, in the part of HSEB both PRESET and INSET have been conducted for primary and higher secondary school teachers.

**Objectives of the study**

The study aimed at exploring perceptions and practices of trained teachers towards ELT trainings. I intended to find answers to questions like: What do they say about the ELT trainings? And how do they practise or perform in the real life situation or, in the classroom? In the training sessions, they become familiar with various methods, techniques, procedures, teacher and learner roles and effectiveness of the particular method(s). To me, the teachers’ attitudes and practices also play a significant role in teaching and learning process and their outcomes. Being a trained ELT teacher and teacher-trainer, I tried to find out the contradictions between their practices and perceptions. After having been familiar with various methods and techniques whether the teachers implement such methods or techniques in the practical field to raise their students’ efficiency and competence in English or not. It was the main field/area of my research. Despite the contradictions likely to occur between their perceptions and practices, it is obviously important for every teacher to keep themselves up to date with the changing methods and approaches along with their essence in the practical field. Richards and Rodgers (2001 p.15) said, “The quality of language teaching will improve if teachers use the best available approaches and methods.” So, merely being familiar with the techniques and methods does no thing unless they are practiced. As suggested by Gnawali L. (2005 in his class notes) there are mainly two types of the teachers’ teaching trends or teachers’ concepts; words versus actions. The first trend is just limited in the words or concept in which teachers just say training is good, it should be run time and again but they never apply or share the ideas acquired from the training, and the second trend is the actions in which trained teachers implement the knowledge/ideas acquired from the training session in the classroom situation. To establish this fact that even being familiar with many techniques and methods and being trained through various institutions whether the ELT teachers practise or not was also a main concern of my research.

To sum up the aforementioned statements, the objectives were given as follows:

a. To find out the perceptions of trained teachers about teacher training.

b. To find out if they implement the acquired knowledge and skills during training in the classroom in terms of classroom dynamics, planning, the use of materials, teachers’ role, students’ participation, and other significant facts of the classroom.

c. To find out the contradictions, if they exist, between their practices and perceptions of the training.

d. To suggest some pedagogical implications.
Research Questions

English being a globally spoken international language, has been in practice in Nepal since 1953. At present, English is taught and learnt in all schools right from class one. It is taught as a compulsory subject at secondary level. Along with the rapid growing number of educational institutions, there are many ELT trained personnel. Government of Nepal has also formulated and implemented the rule that no one can be teachers in the public schools without training. From this rule we can infer the importance of training on the one hand, and on the other hand, there is increasing interests among the teachers on training. By the government policy, it is easy to find out the trained ELT teachers of secondary level. But the main concern is how they perceive the training taken and how they practise it in the real life situation. My present research, therefore, was concentrated to search for perceptions and practices of trained teachers towards training in the secondary level. Specially, this study aimed at answering the following research questions:

a. What are the perceptions of Secondary Level English teachers towards training provided?

b. What are their practices on the basis of their acquired knowledge during training?

c. What contradictions emerge from trained teachers' perceptions and practices?

Research methodology

Philosophical consideration

Ontology. I believe in getting multiple realities on perceptions and practices since my research is an ethnographic research. The term ethnography, in the words of Chaudron, 1988, (as cited in Nunan, 1992) “... demands as much training, skills, and dedication as psychometric research” (p. 53). The essence of this research can be captured as; ethnographic research is an approach that has been used to understand different cultures. In the context of classroom (as suggested by Gnawali, L. 2005 in his class notes) there are mainly four cultures; teachers generated, students generated, shared, and traditional. In the first i.e. in teachers generated culture the teachers’ knowledge is imposed to the students there is less responsibilities in the part of the students, in the second i.e. in students generated culture the students interests are valued so that the classes are run as per the students needs and interests, in the third culture i.e. in the shared culture the classes are run in negotiation between the students and teachers; the teacher facilitates students and help them when they need teachers’ help, and in the last i.e. in the traditional culture of classrooms the knowledge is prescribed so as the teachers embrace the only prescribed knowledge. So, in my research multiple realities are obtained through the ethnographic research since different cultures have different beliefs/realities.

Cohen et al (2000) opine, “... knowledge as personal, subjective and unique” (p. 6). Knowledge is a not-given- and- taken thing or it can not be poured as the fuel in the motor engine, so it may not be similar or same. Knowledge is the product of individual consciousness. The reality is the result of individual cognition and self interpretation. It is not objective and true every where even in isolation. The knowledge of/about the same thing may differ time to time, place to place, and person to person. So, ontologically, my study and findings are Nominalism or subjective; the aims of the study view world as being a much softer, personal, henceforth unique.

Epistemology. The world is created on the basis of his/her understandings of the society and subject matter. The knowledge is shaped based on his/her existing society and environment. Cohen et al (2001) says “...knowledge is a softer, more subjective, spiritual or even transcendental kind, based on experience and insight of a unique and personal nature” (p. 6). In my study I can get various perceptions and practices upon different issues and approaches in different ways. I believe those differences are the outcomes of the understanding of the way in which the individual created, modified and interpreted the world in which s/he finds herself/himself. So, it employs Anti-positivism or postmodernism philosophical consideration.
Axiology. Values are humanly created, softer and personal which can be selected from a comparable range of recent and emerging techniques, accounts, participant observation and personal construct. This study, what I believe, has the different findings or variation on data about perceptions and practices based on the participants; ELT professionals as they create their world themselves. The practices and perceptions may be unique. Cohen et al (2001) say “...the individual creates, modifies and interprets the world in which she or she finds himself or herself” (p. 7). So, my axiology is voluntarism as opposed to Determinism.

Data collection

To be more specific, I used the following tools for data collection/generation;

a) unstructured interview forms: the unstructured interview forms, as I have mentioned earlier, helped me to capture the essence of teachers’ perceptions of ELT teacher training based on the context. The interview was like the conversational talk since I asked the prompt questions.

b) semi-structured observation forms: basically, I established five parameters to find the practices of ELT teacher training which were: preparation/plan of the lesson, classroom dynamics, role of the teacher(s), participation of the students, and use of materials.

c) daily journal writing: in daily journal, I reflected the observed class(s) to have some more important information where I expressed my feelings about the observed classroom(s).

Paradigm

Interpretive. Pollard and Triggs, (1997 say, “The origins of this ‘interpretive’ approach can be traced back to anthropology and the concern to understand, describe and analyse ....”(p.64). So, this is not a new method but a very practical and influencing method among the ethnographic methods. They further add, “Among the ethnographic methods which were developed are participant observation and interview. These techniques ...are explicitly ‘qualitative’, rather than ‘quantitative’, and are concerned with opinions and perceptions rather than only observable facts or behaviour” (p. 64 and 65). As one of the ethnographic researches, I used observation and interview, to correlate with the view of Pollard and Triggs, to gather data from the teachers’ opinions and perceptions. Ritchie and Lewis (2003) say, “Perceptions relates not only to the senses but to human interpretations of what our senses tell us” (p. 6). Interpretation, itself, is a very challenging job for any researcher since it also reflects the understandings of the subject matter of the researchers.

Cohen et al (2000), view interpretive paradigm as characterized by a concern for the individual. They view it as, “...the central endeavour in the context of interpretive paradigm is to understand the subject world of human experience” (p. 22). So that individuals’ behavior can only be understood by the researcher sharing their frame of reference: understanding of individuals’ interpretations of the world. The purpose of this paradigm is to understand social reality as different people see it and to demonstrate how their views shape the action which they take within that reality. Cohen et al (2000) say, “To retain the integrity of the phenomena being investigated, efforts are made to get inside the person and to understand from within” (p. 22). The realities behind perceptions and practices cannot penetrate to what lies in social reality. So, I worked directly with teacher’s definition of reality through their personal viewpoint. People are deliberate and creative in their actions; they act intentionally and make meanings in and through their activities. Actions, experience, events, and individual are unique and largely non-generalizable.

My paradigm was given interpretive metaphor. Best and Kahn (2002) say, “...qualitative research is based on the phenomenological paradigm, which uses a variety of interpretative research methodologies” (p. 183). My research is a qualitative one and a pedagogical study which aimed at exploring individuals’ interpretations which was not confined in a prescribed form what I found.
Informants and sample collection
Out of the many trained Secondary Level English teachers the sample covered just ten English teachers and their five classes each for observation purpose. The samples were chosen as representative public and private secondary schools. Different schools of the Kathmandu Valley were used for data collection. I chose those schools where I had my personal contact with the head teachers and other cases included the contact with teacher as well as facilities of transportation.

Out of the ten different trained teachers; five from the government and five from private schools were chosen. Interviews were taken with those teachers just for two times; one before observation and the other after the observation of the first two classes. So, my informants were those trained teachers who had taken training for one, two or three years from any universities as the students at Bachelor’s degree in English education.

To be specific, for the study of my research, I collected, analysed and interpreted the data collected from those teachers who were trained by the different universities such as Kathmandu University (KU) and Tribhuvan University (TU).

Emerging themes/ findings, conclusion and recommendations

Themes/findings from the perceptions. All my participants were very positive to ELT teacher training. They had reflected their teaching experiences before being trained. They even compared their teaching style before and after receiving the training. They claimed that they had learnt many things from training. So, I found more or less similar perceptions among all my participants. Now, I am going to enumerate the major findings of my study.

a. There are positive perceptions towards training for ELT among my participants.
b. Generally, teachers from both private and government schools have similar perceptions towards teacher training.
c. They consider teacher training as a part of professional development. That is why training is inseparable to the ELT professionals.
d. All my participants had knowledge about classroom dynamics, teachers’ and students’ roles in the language classroom, importance of planning lessons and the use of materials.
e. As they claimed, teacher training mainly focuses the methodology aspect, to be more specific, on “how to teach.”
f. Regarding methodology they preferred CLT as the best which suits and corroborates with the English syllabi and contents of grade nine and ten.
g. They claim that they teach grammar through inductive approach.

The findings from my participants’ perceptions show that ELT teacher training helps ELT professionals to strengthen their professionalism. It is training that helps teachers impart quality education by making them confident and knowledgeable in dealing with different subject matter. The students taught by the trained teachers enhance the self exploring capacity and be able to assimilate in the English environment since they have more opportunities to develop their communicative competence. So that, ultimately, we will be able make our students as global citizens by imparting education through the trained teachers.

Findings from the practices. Most of my participants followed the essence of training in the classroom. They conducted different activities and dealt with subject matter based on the guidelines of their acquired knowledge during training session(s). However, some of the contradictions existed between some of my informants’ perceptions and practices, which will be discussed under the next subheading "contradictions.” This section deals with the findings from my informants’ practices.

a. About six teachers taught passages and poems very systematically. At first they set the scene, then they made their students predict about the content to be discussed, then they made the students read in groups and come to the
Unlike their perceptions of training, all of my informants did not perform as trained teachers in the classroom. So, the above given findings from perceptions and practices help me depict contradictions between their perceptions and practices.

Contradictions between perceptions and practices. There existed some contradictions between perceptions and practices towards ELT teacher training. The contradictions given below are presented on the basis of interviews with my informants and observations of their classes.

a. No teacher used supplementary materials in the first two lessons. As I mentioned earlier, only six teachers used them in the lessons they delivered after my feedback. But other teachers did not use them in any lessons.

b. Two teachers from government schools did not implement anything corroborating their perceptions with practices of training. They did not embrace my suggestions. So, there existed many contradictions between all my parameters of observation and their perceptions of training.

c. Despite the importance of lesson plan, four teachers did not make any even for a single day. But in interviews they justified the importance of lesson plan and even in the post observation interview they assured me that they would plan their lessons in the future.

d. Three teachers of government schools taught through lecture method so they did not activate their students. So, there existed contradictions regarding classroom dynamics.

e. Three teachers from government schools used their mother tongue very often while dealing the contents but in interviews they claimed CLT as the best method which is the next contradiction.

f. Four teachers from government schools taught grammar deductively which is the next contradiction because in interviews they claimed inductive as the best one to deal with grammatical items.
From the overall findings of perceptions and practices and contradictions between them I come to the conclusions that the teachers from private schools embraced almost all ideas acquired during training sessions. But very less number of teachers from government schools performed based on their acquired knowledge to some extent which can be said on the basis of my very prominent parameters of teacher training. Beyond the importance training and their knowledge on the same, they could not follow its guidelines due to various factors such as they do not have sufficient fund for making materials and so on as they claimed which were just the matters of escaping from the realities. But there can be found more or less similar perceptions among them towards ELT training. Henceforth, there exist many contradictions between their perceptions and practices even being the trained teachers.

**Conclusion**

The findings above help me to conclude that teacher training is crucial to teacher learning. To be more specific, ELT teacher training is indispensable in my informants’ context due to two reasons: a) English is their second or foreign language so that their level of proficiency is not similar to that of native teachers and training helps us to some extent to deal with the contents like the native teachers, b) the phenomena of teaching field such as contents, methodology, testing system and so on are not static for a long period of time rather they are ever changing so that we must be able to embrace those changes if we want to continue our profession which is possible only by the means of teacher training.

The study also showed that teacher training, an important facet of teacher development, helps teachers be professionally strong and best teacher in the sense of effective presentation. Teacher training is mainly related with methodology, skills and technique that enhance teachers to be capable with the contents to be taught. Equally it is concerned with the ways of giving and taking feedback, facilitating students in their study, importance of collaborative learning and the ways to solve the professional problems likely to occur in the teachers’ career and inside the classroom which is obtained through the teacher training so that only the trained teachers are familiar with those aspects, skills, methodology, technique which help them impart quality education. But, imparting quality education also equally depends upon teachers’ personal factors such as if they want to develop themselves or not in their profession and how much devoted and committed they are in their profession.

Finally, teaching and teacher training have very close relationship with each other. Training is compulsory for teachers for the entry to the teaching profession which is experience based so that they can advocate some methodology and approaches in accordance to their experience and can employ different techniques and materials that suit their contents to be taught. The next aspect of training is giving feedback as I mentioned earlier, six of my informants used materials in three classes after my feedback. So, feedback also helps teachers practise their acquired knowledge.

To conclude my study, I can strongly recommend that training plays one the most important roles in the field of ELT and to develop teachers in their profession.

**Recommendations and pedagogical implications**

Based on the generated findings of my study, and contradictions gathered from my informants, now, I would like to recommend the following points:

a. It is recommended to the concerned body; Ministry of Education (MOE) and so on, and various ELT teaching institutions to give training to the ELT teachers time and again, at least once in a year, unlike once in their life/professional career.

b. Merely teacher training may not be as effective as it should be until there is a series of inspection/observation, and suggestions on the teachers’ performance. So, along with the
teacher training there should be regular follow-up.

c. For follow-up, some kind of mechanism should be developed which can be done by the ELT experts, concerned body or by the school administration itself.

d. The institutions which launch teacher training should follow-up their products’ performance at least for one year even after their release from the institutions.

e. As the next way, the DEO and school administration should collaborate in handling the matters like follow-up, and refresher training with the help of MOE.

f. During follow-up and refresher training, feedback should be given for the purpose of improvement as opposed to the purpose of evaluation which is our widely practiced trend.

g. The teachers should have the practices of collaborative teaching and learning so that they can improve their weaknesses and strengthen their professionalism.

h. In a certain interval of time, that might be once a month, collaborative teaching should be done by the two teachers, one representing government and next from private schools.

i. The teachers should have the sense of professional development. Instead of blaming the school authority and the whole educational system.

j. Regarding the implications of training, teachers should try to implement their acquired knowledge to find out if their efforts work before blaming the other bodies.

k. Refresher training should be given as per the changes of contents and syllabi.

l. The teachers should not impose their ideas while dealing with any literary texts rather they should try to elicit responses of any content from the students so that the students can develop their interpretative ability and communicative competence respectively.

m. The teachers should be able to treat all the students equally no matter where they sit in the class.

n. Both the teachers and students should not use their mother tongue in the class while dealing with contents. To develop communicative competence and to understand English texts through English they should express their ideas in English.

o. The facilities should be provided to the teachers regarding the requirements needed for using supplementary materials.

p. Some times the head teachers, if they are knowledgeable, should visit their teachers’ classes not for the purpose of threatening but for the purpose for improving them so they can improve and strengthen their professionalism.

I hope the aforementioned recommendations will be considered by the ELT professionals, different institutions, school administration and government and all concerned bodies to narrow down the gap between their perceptions and practices, develop professionalism, and to impart quality education.

My learning from the research

By the end of this dissertation, I came to know that doing research is a very challenging task. What I believe is any research requires a researcher’s deep knowledge on the subject matter in which he/she wants to do research. As the second requirement, tremendous efforts should be made by the researcher. One should have adequate time to generate data and to study the related literature. One should go to the field to collect data for study and findings which is really a time consuming work if the research is ethnographic or action. As a researcher I also spent much time to collect/generate data, since mine is an ethnographic research. But when the work was finished, the experiences, and efforts helped me to boost up my confidence to carry out other research works. After having come to this point of my experience, I recommend all the readers to continue writing about something and continue searching for something. One day that some thing in which we are writing or for which we are searching will come to us as knowledge. So, searching for something is searching for knowledge and searching for something is the actual research, what I believe.
My learning of ELT teacher training

Teacher training is for the professional development of teacher. In the case of language teacher, what I learnt, about teacher training is that it is the pure fuel for their teaching learning process. Pure fuel in the sense that if the vehicle is filled with pure fuel it can run with fine engine for a long time on the contrary if the vehicle is filled with impure fuel, though the vehicle can run but it will have problems in the engine after a short run. So, to run with up to date knowledge during their teaching career they obviously need to be trained time and again at a certain intervals along with the changes likely to exist in the field of ELT. The education imparted by the trained teachers with the practices through the knowledge acquired from training sessions will be quality education. But merely training does nothing without realization of the essence of training and without the practices as guided by the various methods and/or techniques transmitted during the training sessions.

References


Background
How often do we as teachers ask our students to do something in class which they would do in everyday life using their own language? Probably not enough. If we can make language in the classroom meaningful therefore memorable, students can process language which is learned. Task-based learning offers the students an opportunity to do this. The basis assumption of task-based approach is the task and language is the instrument which the students use to complete it.

Introduction
The advocate of task-based learning have concentrated not so much on the nature of language input but on the learning task that students are involved. There is an agreement rather than pure rote learning or de-contextualized practice, language has to be acquired as a result of some deeper experience than the concentration on a grammar point. In 1970s the British applied linguist Allwright conducted an experiment which challenged traditional notion of language teaching. He theorized that ‘...if the language teacher's' management activities are directed exclusively at involving the learners in solving commutation problems in the target language, then language learning will take care of itself ...’ (Allwright.1977,b:5). It means there is no need for formal instruction. Instead students are simply asked to perform communicative activities in which they have to use the foreign language. The more they do the better they become at using the language.

In 1979 in Bangalore, Southern India, N.S. Prabhu originated a long-running project which used task-based learning in a very different context. Like Allwright he theorized that students were just as likely to learn structures if they were thinking of something else as they were if they were only concentrating on the structures themselves. Prabhu suggested that if the emphasis in class was on meaning, the language would be...
learnt incidentally. The way this was to come about was through a series of tasks which had a problem-solving element.

**What is task?**

Task is a goal-oriented activity with a clear purpose. Doing a communication task involves achieving an outcome, creating a final product that can be appreciated by other. Examples include compiling a list of reasons, features, or things that are needed doing under particular circumstances; comparing two pictures and/or texts to find the differences; and solving a problem or designing a brochure. Willis, J & Willis, D (1996) Task thus is an activity in which students use language to achieve a specific outcome. It reflects real life and learner's focus on meaning; they are free to use only language they want. Playing a game, solving problem or sharing information or experiences, can all be considered as relevant and authentic tasks.

**How can we use task-based learning in language class?**

A traditional model for the organization of language lessons has long been the PPP approach (presentation, practice, production). With this model individual language items (for example, the present continuous) are presented by the teacher, then practiced in the form of spoken and written exercise, and then used by the learners in less controlled speaking or writing activities. A frequent criticism of this approach is the apparent-arbitrariness of the selected grammar point, which may or may not meet the linguistic needs of the learners, and the fact that the production stage is often based on rather inauthentic emphasis on the chosen structure.

An alternative to the PPP model is the Test-Teach-Test based learning which is often adopted in task-based learning. In this approach the production stage comes first and the learners are required to perform a particular task (a role play, for example). This is followed by the teacher dealing with some of the grammatical problems that arose in the first stage and then learners are required to perform the initial task again or to perform a similar task.

Jane Willis (1996), in her book 'A framework for Task-Based learning' outlines the following model for organizing lesson. While this is not radical departure from TTT model, it does present a model that is based on sound theoretical foundations and one which takes account of the need of authentic communication.

**Components of a TBL Framework**

**PRE-TASK PHASE**

**INTRODUCTION TO TOPIC AND TASK**

Teacher explores the topic with the class, highlights useful words and phrases, and helps learners understand task instructions and prepare. Learners may hear a recording of others doing a similar task, or read part of a text as a lead in to a task.

Task-based learning, according to Willis, is typically based on three stages. The first is the pre-task stage during which the teacher introduces and defines topic and the learners involve in activities that help them to recall words and phrases that will be useful during the performance of the main task. This is followed by cycle stage. Here, the learners perform the task in pairs or small groups. They then prepare a report for the whole class on how they did the task. Finally, they present their findings. The final stage is the language focus stage, during which specific language features from the task are highlighted and worked on.
Conclusion

Task-based learning offers change from the grammatical practice through which many learners have previously failed to learn to communicate. This approach encourages learners to experiment with whatever English they can recall and to try things out without fear of failure and public correction. They can take active control of their own learning, both in and outside class. The main advantage of task-based learning is that language is used for a genuine purpose. Unlike traditional approaches it integrates all four skills and move from fluency to accuracy. The range of tasks available (reading texts, listening texts, problem solving role plays, questionnaires, etc.) offers a 'great deal' of flexibility and lead to more motivating activities for the learners.

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Autoethnographic Research:
An Emerging Methodology in the Nepalese ELT Scenario

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Abstract
Autoethnography is a way of doing research by reflecting the researcher's past experiences through the use of various kinds of data texts. Thus, it is assumed that this will be important for future professional development of researcher. The paper begins with the introduction of autoethnographic research and moves forward relating autoethnography with reflection. It further deals with how the personal experiences of the researcher can be the data text for research. The paper ends with ontological and epistemological considerations in autoethnographic research followed by a sample data text and its various interpretations.

Introduction

Etymologically, autoethnography consists of three different words – auto, ethno and graphy – which signify the textual representations of one's personal experience in his/her cultural or social context. This definition suggests us to base the study in one's own cultural or social experiences as a student, a teacher, a teacher educator in the world of ELT. However, our central concern of using autoethnographic approach is to improve our educative or pedagogical practices in ELT. For this, autoethnographic enquiry demands the use of personal narratives, as one of the ways of uncovering the self. These practices suggest, as argued by Jones (2005), “How personal stories become a means for interpreting the past, translating and transforming contexts, and envisioning a future.” (p. 767-768).

Autoethnography and Reflection

Using an autoethnographic method one can recollect his/her personal stories which result from reflective thinking. These personal stories are the researcher's own stories – researcher being the participant himself or herself. These stories are drawn from lived experiences of the researchers' – as for ELT practitioner, his or her experiences of language...
learning in different cultural environments: from experiences of informal language learning at home, formal education in different languages throughout childhood and adolescence, and finally adult experiences of language learning as an English language teacher and member of a bilingual or multilingual community. These stories or past experiences in turn provide us with a powerful insight or contribute to the professional development. To support our opinion, we quote Huddleston, Gribble and Taylor (2003)

[Auto]ethnography is a personal reflection on the events that took place. As a personal experience, it has been valuable and has opened my [Huddleston] thoughts to a wider perspective on research, beyond the traditionally accepted methodologies, and has encouraged me to follow a constant path of reflection to improve my teaching practice (p. 3).

This justifies that autoethnography is really very important for the professional development of language teachers through this type of research.

Autoethnography, thus, can precisely be defined as “self-investigations of one’s role in a context, a situation, or a social world” (Jones, 2005, p. 767). Such self-investigations generate “self-implication” (Gornick, as cited in Jones, 2005, p. 767). By self-implication, we mean looking into our own roles in the given socio-cultural setting which necessitates to work with our past memories and experiences of English language learning. This process of “exploring one’s identity (Palmer, 1998) through “critical reflective practice” (Brookfield, 1995) leads not only to “enhanced awareness of one’s personal practical knowledge as a teacher and a researcher” (Connelly and Candlin as cited in Settelmaier and Taylor, 2002) but also to “transformative learning” (Mezirow, 1991). Thus this personal narrative as language “learners in childhood, adolescence, and adulthood frame our approach” (Brookfield, as cited in Settelmaier and Taylor, 2002) to successful educative practices – successful in the sense that we reflect upon our past experiences, assimilate it in the present, learn from it and get prepared for the strategic actions for the future. In other words, these autoethnographic texts based on the sociocultural experiences not only frame our perspective in changing the self but also “to change the world” (Jones, 2005, p. 764). When we seek for our experiences, “our motives, our locations, our vested personal and political interests” (Neilsen, 1998, p. 10) shape our way of learning English language. This clearly shows that autoethnographic enquiry helps us to indicate our roles as an English language learner, teachers, and educators. In this context, we probably confront questions of “self, place, (and) power” (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005). For example; as for us, narrating and re-creating our experience based on memory, we can depict more clearly the path of our life that has brought us to the point of asking why we keep moving toward English language domination and what can be done to balance out this movement. By pondering our own experiences of English hegemony in our past, present and future, we become more mindful of what it means to be active and informed members of community open to cultural and linguistic diversity. If you ask us, we say that our English tutor has been integral to the development of our understanding and awareness of the role that language plays in our lives. They can be central to the stories of our language learning that will provide material to our research if we use an autoethnographic inquiry.

**Personal Experiences as the Data Text**

Since autoethnography helps us to produce personal text as critical intervention in social, political and cultural life, we have chosen it as an approach to academic research. By using an autoethnographic method, we can make the readers familiar with our story and they become aware of its importance in their pedagogy. For this reason, we can carefully associate the “autoethnographic impulses with ethnographic moments by using a self-narrative that critiques the situatedness of self with others in social contexts” (Spry, 2001, p.710). This clearly shows that self-study can become a wonderful and life changing research.

A researcher can make use of interdisciplinary nature of textual representation since autoethnographic
research involves the use of multiple forms of data texts, i.e. autobiographic, fictional stories, poetics and reflective. This is how we came to the point that autoethnography is “research, writing, and method that connect the autobiographical and personal to the cultural and social. This form usually features concrete action, emotion, embodiment, self-consciousness, and introspection (Ellis as cited in Jones, 2005, p. 765).” This definition justifies that envisioning through writing is the major premises of any autoethnographic inquiry.

**Who am I?**

In opposition to positivistic view of objective human identity, autoethnography believes "there is no solidified ethnographic identity. The ethnographers work within hybrid reality. Experience, discourse, and self understanding collide with larger cultural assumptions concerning race, ethnicity, nationality, gender, class, and age" (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005, p. xvi). The identity of an individual varies from time to time, place to place in various cultural situations. Thus the ethnographers must always ask not "Who am I?" But "When, where, and how am I?" (Trinh, as cited in Denzin and Lincoln, 2005, p. xvi). Thus we believe that a fixed identity seems impossible.

**Ontological and Epistemological Considerations in Autoethnographic Research**

The autoethnographic inquiry (under qualitative paradigm) suggests us to base our epistemological assumptions as the relationship between socio-cultural setting and language learning processes as the construction of knowledge actively rather than independent and universally accepted objective knowledge. In other words, personal narratives as a part of our experiences contribute to construct and shape perspectives in ELT practices. Therefore, our epistemological and ontological underpinnings will take the form of constructivism, i.e. the construction of knowledge and reality are derived from our experiences." In positivist research the outcomes are usually fully expanded and explained in terms of the hypotheses and questions being researched.

In an autoethnographic work this detail is absent leaving room for the reader to apply their own interpretations” (Chidres as cited in Huddleston, Gribble, and Taylor, 2003, p. 7). In autoethnographic research the readers have the equal role to recreate the text as writer. Autoethnography holds the view that knowledge is something which has to be experienced personally and shared socially. However, positivistic approach regards knowledge as hard, tangible, universal, objective and absolute which is not directly applicable to autoethnography.

Autoethnography regards human beings as the initiators of their own research. Huddleston, Gribble, and Taylor (2003) opine that “The rules held by positivist methodologies are not valid for research involving human interaction” (p. 7). For autoethnographers, reality is the product of individual consciousness and the result of individual cognition. Here, the view of reality is nominalist one that “objects of thought are merely words and that there is no independently accessible thing constituting the meaning of a word” (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2000, p. 6). Autoethnographic researchers regard that knowledge is temporary, developmental, nonobjective, internally constructed, and socially and culturally mediated. As mentioned earlier, the experience of the researcher is the data text in autoethnographic research and all the readers have the equal right to interpret the data text as the writer. Thus, in the subsequent section we are going to present a data text with its interpretations.

**Story and its Interpretation(s)**

The following data text is based on the experience of one of us followed by various interpretations including the author.

**Radio – The English News**

"Babu, turn off the radio", my father told me. It could be any morning in December 1991. It was the music played before the news broadcasting of Radio Nepal. My father always got the radio turned off whenever he could listen to the news.
broadcasting music of eight o’clock. He had never turned it off otherwise. He could listen to any program that could neither entertain him nor could it impart any information that he is interested in. He could listen to the news in Newari, in Maithati, and in any other languages that he could hardly understand any utterance. But it was the news in English that always made the radio to be tuned off. If he could listen to the other things, nevertheless, it could bring no meaning to him, what was the reason that bothered him to listen to English News, then? Why did this English News appear as a ghost for him? My childish mind started to contemplate upon the matter and tried to explore the reasons behind it. This was the precursor of my curiosity towards the mysterious language (then). Afterwards, I started to listen to English News by grabbing the opportunities of my father’s absence. However, I could barely understand few words in addition to the utterances like, “This is Radio Nepal. The news is read by Sailendra Rana.” With the time, I started to understand more and more utterances.

The data text (story) I reflected upon gives a glimpse of the vision of my society towards English language then. ‘Why my father turned off the radio with the music of English news?’ is the question that stroke my mind time and again. The craze for learning English in the younger generation could not be understood by the older generation. I found my father not encouraging me to learn English language since he has the pre-occupied concept that English is ‘Gai Khane Bhasa’ (language of the people who eat beef, which is sin in Hindu culture) and he, with religious influence, was reluctant to make me learn that language. That became one of the main obstacles to my enthusiasm for learning English language. My father could enjoy all other languages, though they make no sense to him, except English. Though this may not be the representative view for all, it may be similar to others stories. The repulsive concept of my father towards English became attractive concept to me, as a result I willed to attach myself to it.

The above data text was distributed to the participants of the presentation session in 11th International NELTA Conference, 24-26 February, 2006, Kathmandu and obtained various kinds of interpretations. Some of the interpretations were more or less similar to that of the writer whereas others were different. “Exposure is needed to learn English Language” said one of the participants. “Practice makes man perfect. The writer of the story wanted to practice English Language through listening the news, which was hindered by his father” another participant in the conference said.

The above vignette and multiple responses onto that clearly show our ways of revealing lived experiences, reframing our worldviews and envisioning career development that can effectively be represented as a three-dimensional temporal basis of personal professional development i.e. past, present and future dimensions of becoming a professional persona. Experiential learning, as defined by Kolb (as cited in Head and Taylor, 1997) is the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience. We have given this form of research methodology because through autoethnography, a professional can critically document his/her experiences as English language learner and teacher. Consequently, this well documented and lived experiences of his/her practices of English language learning and teaching can evoke and encourage the readers to revisit their past experiences and learn from them. This is how the autoethnography can be said to have a good potential towards learning transferability.

Conclusion

Since autoethnography demands for narratives and several other textual representations revealing one's personal and professional experiences, it explores his/her situatedness telling about his/her culture with reference to his/her personal and/or professional life. Similarly, autoethnography calls for introspection and retrospection of reflection.
that helps us to understand our professional ground opening an alternative way of understanding and looking into our practices. An ELT practitioner can professionally be updated only when s/he looks back into his/her educational landscapes in the past, reconstructs and renews his/her knowledge into current practices and envisions for the future. These three temporal dimensions of our educational practices can be understood and known through autoethnographic mode of inquiry.

References


Content and Language Integrated Learning

Daya Ram Gaudel*

INTRODUCTION:

Popular until 1990s, integrating language into subject learning has once again revamped in a bilingual context. Content and language integrated learning refers to "any form of language education in which subject matter is taught in a second or foreign language"(Craen). Many experts widely accept the view that language and content teaching is far more effective if content teaching is linked well with language teaching. Before making some suggestions of integration, it would be relevant to present an overview of subject teaching and its problems to take language factor into consideration.

Subject teachers often assume that language teachers enhance learning of English which will considerably contribute to improving both comprehension and producing answers of subjects. It sounds logical to solicit some kind of language support from language teachers as they possess more knowledge and can deal with the use of language in particular. It may be that subject teaching does not exact correct use of language objectively in teaching. It stems from the realization that subject teaching is content focus rather than grammar focus. This would give students impression that they should give careful attention to the use of language or grammar only in language study. They largely memorize the entire answer either from the text book or teacher note with no or little flaw in language use. The answer produced in this manner will have no space for language assessment as well. However, creative questions definitely look for original content and language. In this sense, subject teachers would realize the importance of language use.

Content teaching implies helping learners grasp any concept in their entire learning process. For instance, in science, handling the topic, "Living things and Inanimate objects" for third or fourth grade students, usually begins with concept of living and non-living things followed by some examples and their characteristics. The teacher assumes that the learner has already mastered basic words-common and technical. Occasionally, a more conscious teacher explains these words in more

Abstract:
Content and Language integrated Learning has received a considerable attention recently. Language teachers have achieved far less result than they could have had with respect to their effort put into language teaching. In collaboration with subject teachers, English teachers can make a significant shift from present position of teaching in isolation to learning by sharing common challenges of both subject and language teaching. The presentation will basically focus on how writing skill can be developed by the use of content and language integration. The aim of the paper is to look into how language coincides with content and how language can be improved working with subject teachers. It is also expected that the paper will be useful for both language and subject teachers to see how language influences the grasp of the content and vice versa.

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detail. However, he/she hardly considers the fact that the process of combining both common and specific words would ultimately lead to a greater understanding of the concept of living things and inanimate objects. The process entails spelling, pronunciation, meaning and use. A subject teacher identifies a different priority of teaching content, based on the curriculum and general practices of teaching the particular subject. Time line, an academic year, is another factor which bears on how much to cover within specified hours. It may not be compatible with subjects teaching to separately deal with linguistic factors. These are some factors which do not allow subject teachers to effectively integrate language into content teaching given the enormity of task of completing the course.

In most academic situations, language teachers are neither invited to nor equipped with the use a second language to teach mathematics, science, history, physical education, or other traditional content areas (Rogers 2003). So, it can be beneficial for both the subject and language teachers to foster exchange of ideas about the language to explore the areas of collaboration to improve students’ performance immensely. The language teacher is not informed or experienced as to what level of language is required at different stages of subject teaching. The Subject teacher needs to encourage students to draw on the ideas of language teaching on various topics like grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation etc. Similarly, students should be encouraged to consult dictionary as much in subject teaching as in language teaching.

Although subject teaching consists of teaching content in correct language, no language orientation is directly offered to subject teachers particularly for teaching purpose. Similarly, some subject teachers are not receptive enough to improve their own language consistently. The school should design a more realistic course to equip teachers with language for effective delivery of lessons.

In addition, there is another obstacle of finding suitable textbooks both linguistically and cognitively balanced as well as easily comprehensible to average students. Regrettably, some textbooks available in the Nepalese market are largely written by university teachers who possess very little experience of teaching or developing textbooks suitable for young learners. Ironically, some books on subjects contain long sentences wholly lifted from various sources in the form of ‘cut and paste’. It is hard to imagine how painful and de-motivating learning is for the students who have to study such textbooks. There are numerous textbooks incorporating passive structures and complicated words at a primary level where majority of the students have not learnt such structures yet. This makes textbooks linguistically and cognitively more difficult. To avoid this problem, careful attention should be paid to frame textbooks following the principles of textbook writing.

Books are the main teaching materials which should be designed according to the standard of the students. Comprehensible language is a prerequisite. Material at the appropriate language level is the first requirement for students working on their own (Sheerin 1991: 27). If good textbooks are not available, schools/teachers should make a selection of textbooks written considering the real standard of the students or improvise some teaching resources as they have first-hand experience of teaching in the classroom. However, it is also to be noted that students should improve their language as they reach upper grades. Language teacher should make students aware of potential use of the language in other subjects and teach the most useful language topics with special focus. The most significant aspect is to transfer learning from one to other subjects. It entails how to use vocabulary, structures, meaningfully in other subjects.

Short (2002:18) says, “age-appropriate knowledge of the English language is a prerequisite to academic success and attainment of content standards”. To achieve academic success, students need to accomplish some tasks competently. These tasks involve defining, showing, matching, finding, comparing, contrasting, classifying, explaining, applying, solving, dividing etc. The task words appear in the questions and students need to consolidate their ideas and language to respond to these questions.
The following may be some techniques of accounting for language component in content teaching:

1. To list all difficult technical and common words with their correct spelling from a text.
2. To produce and define these words distinctly.
3. To show the use of the word in a sentence to provide necessary contexts in speech and writing.

These are perhaps some basic steps followed in a content-based instruction to systematically present the content units with focus on both content and language. Here, content teaching is required to be extended further by providing appropriate structures to use the words in sentences. What types of structures are suitable is determined by the specific tasks set in the problem or question. Here are some examples:

**In defining**

What is a .........?
Define .............
Answer is produced with:

......... is a ........ (place/person/thing/concept/tool etc.) (where/who/which/that etc.)...........

Or

......... is called .............

**In Comparing/Contrasting**

The following structure can be used

In what way is ........ similar to / different from ........?

What similarities / differences are there/can you see between ........ and ........?

......... is like / unlike ........ (in that /in so far as........)

......... is similar to ........ (in that/in) (comparing)

......... and ........ are similar (in that/in so far as........)

Although / However / Nevertheless / But / On the one hand / On the other hand)

**In Predicting**

I predict that ........ will happen  If ........ happens, (then) ........ will happen

......... will happen  When ........ happens, (then) ........ will happen

......... will not happen, unless ........ happens

Because ........ happens, then ........ will happen

......... will not happen, if .... does not happen  This means that ........ will happen

The subject teacher has to show how the structures given above can be used to make students aware of language. If there are some constraints to discuss language in detail, it would be best to refer to language class where students practice various grammatical items which can be very useful to improve language of subjects.

The following is a model of teaching plan integrating content and language.

**Subject: Science  Grade: III/IV**

**Topic: Ability and Capacity of Living and Inanimate objects**

**Step I: Word Level**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Inanimate object and Living things</th>
<th>Action which they can do</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Elephant, plane</td>
<td>speak, think (brain)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fish, plant</td>
<td>bite, see, feel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bus, bat</td>
<td>hear grow eat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bacteria, snake</td>
<td>lift things, change shape</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clouds, house</td>
<td>reproduce, contain things</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>man, aeroplane</td>
<td>divide, swim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>birds, radio etc.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Step II: Sentence Level - Make true sentences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>All</th>
<th>Some</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>animals</td>
<td>living things</td>
<td>inanimate objects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>human beings</td>
<td>cell</td>
<td>plants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can</td>
<td>swim</td>
<td>fly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>divide</td>
<td>reproduce</td>
<td>change shape</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>speak</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Plants can grow

= Plants are able to grow.
= Plants have the ability to grow.
= Plants have capacity to grow.
= Plants are capable of growing.

Step III: Questions
a) What living things are capable of flying?
b) What living things have the ability to think?
c) What living things cannot walk?
d) What inanimate objects are capable of moving?

Step IV: Write answers in paragraphs adding some information of your own. Use linking words like and, or, whereas, but etc.

More activities can be arranged according to the objectives of the lesson.

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109. Lok Raj Regmi  Sanothimi Campus, Bhaktapur
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111. Madhu Neupane  Central Department of English Education, Kirtipur
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117. Matrika Prasad Gautam  Bal Srijanalaya
118. Maya Rai  Curriculum Development Centre, Bhaktapur
119. Medin Bahadur Lamichhane  Ullens School, Khumaltar, Lalitpur
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143. Padam Bahadur Pun  Centre Department of English, TU, Kirtipur
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145. Peshal Kumar Bastola  Department of English Education, Kirtipur
146. Pramod Kumar Gupta  Bethal English School, Kuleshwor, Kathmandu
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149. Prem Prasad Poudel  Mahendra Ratna Campus, Tahachal, Kathmandu
150. Pujan Khadka  GEMS, School, Lalitpur
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152. Purna Bahadur Lamichhane  Sanothimi Campus, Bhaktapur
153. Puspa Karna  Mahendra Ratna Campus, Tahachal, Kathmandu
154. Raghab Sharma  Brilliant College, Chabahil, Kathmandu
155. Rajesh Kumar Limbu  Brilliant Multiple Campus, Kathmandu
156. Raju Dev Acharya  School of Education, Kathmandu University
Outside the Valley

194. Arun Nepal Mahendra Ratna Multiple Campus, Ilam
195. Aruna Sherchan
196. Balaram Sharma Namuna English Boarding School, Tilahar, Parbat
197. Bhabendra Bhandari Sanjibani Higher Secondary School, Dhulikhel
198. Fatik Bahadur Thapa Member of Parliament, Area No - 1, Gulmi
199. Gopal Subedi Bidhya Jyoti Secondary School, Bardiya, Bheri
201. Harischandra Bhandari Dhikur Pokhari, Kaski
203. Jib Nath Timilsina Mahendra Ratna Multiple Campus, Ilam
204. Kalpana Adhikari Oxford Brooks University, UK
205. Krishna Prasad Marasini Mahendra Higher Secondary School, Tamghas Gulmi
206. Laxman Prasad Upadhyay Satyawoti Secondary School, Bhojpur, Bajhang
207. Prem Bahadur Tumbapo Damauli College, Damauli
208. Prithvi Narayan Shrestha Open University, UK
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<td>Ishwor Prasad Upadhya</td>
<td>Dhangadhi Secondary School, Dhangadhi</td>
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<td>311.</td>
<td>Jyoti Singh Saud</td>
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<td>312.</td>
<td>Keshav Dutta Bhatta</td>
<td>Panchodaya Secondary School, Hasanpur, Dhangadhi</td>
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<td>313.</td>
<td>Keshav Narayan Joshi</td>
<td>Saraswati MV Geta, Dhangadhi</td>
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<td>314.</td>
<td>Krishna Raj Bhatta</td>
<td>Galaxy English Boarding School, Dhangadhi</td>
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<td>315.</td>
<td>Laxman Dutta Bhatta</td>
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<td>Madan Bam</td>
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<td>317.</td>
<td>Madhav Sharma</td>
<td>International Public School, Dhangadhi</td>
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<td>Meena Ojha</td>
<td>Aisharya Secondary School, Dhangadhi</td>
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<td>Meera Ojha</td>
<td>Aisharya Bidhya Niketan, Hasanpur, Dhangadhi</td>
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<td>320.</td>
<td>Mohan Bahadur Kunwar</td>
<td>Cambridge English Boarding School, Hasanpur, Dhangadhi</td>
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<td>322.</td>
<td>Prem Nidhi Ojha</td>
<td>Aishwarya Bidhya Niketan, Hasanpur, Dhangadhi</td>
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<td>323.</td>
<td>Ramji Hamal</td>
<td>Stepping Stone English Boarding School, Dhangadhi</td>
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<td>Sarada Upadhyha</td>
<td>Stepping Stone English Boarding School, Dhangadhi</td>
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<td>325.</td>
<td>Sita Ram Bhatta</td>
<td>Sudurpaschimanchal Campus, Dhangadhi</td>
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<td>326.</td>
<td>Sunita Suri</td>
<td>Gurukul Academy Boarding School, Dhangadhi</td>
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<td>327.</td>
<td>Tarka Raj Joshi</td>
<td>Saraswati Madhyamik Vidhyalaya Geta, Dhangadhi</td>
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<td>328.</td>
<td>Tika Prasad Kandel</td>
<td>Modern Graded E.School, Dhangadhi</td>
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<td>Yadav Prasad Bhatta</td>
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<td>330.</td>
<td>Yagyaa Raj Pandey</td>
<td>Trinagar Secondary School, Dhangadhi</td>
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### Dhaulagiri Branch

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>331.</td>
<td>Balkrishna Sharma</td>
<td>Future Brighter Boarding School, Baglung</td>
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<td>332.</td>
<td>Chudamani Subedi</td>
<td>Shree Sigana Higher Sec. School Balewa Baglung</td>
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<td>333.</td>
<td>Ganga Prasad Kandel</td>
<td>Shree Lekhani H.S. Baglung</td>
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<td>335.</td>
<td>Mahesh Adhikari</td>
<td>Baglung</td>
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<td>Mahesh Pradhan</td>
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<td>337.</td>
<td>Netra Lal Neupane</td>
<td>New Oceans Academy, Shreenagar Tole, Baglung</td>
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<td>338.</td>
<td>Pradip Sharma</td>
<td>Mahendra Multiple Campus, Baglung</td>
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<td>339.</td>
<td>Purna Bahadur Chokhyal</td>
<td>Hari Mahyamik Vidhyalaya, Baglung</td>
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### Dolakha Branch

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>341.</td>
<td>Ambika Prasad Adhikari</td>
<td>Mahendra Ratna Multiple Campus, Ilam (at present)</td>
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<td>342.</td>
<td>Bal Krishna Sharma</td>
<td>Shree Pashupati Kanya Mandir Sec.School, Charikot</td>
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<td>343.</td>
<td>Bimala Gautam</td>
<td>Birendra Mahyamik Vidhyala, Dolakha</td>
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<td>344.</td>
<td>Gopal Dhoj Shrestha</td>
<td>Hnumanteshwor Hr.Sec. School, Dolakha</td>
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<td>345.</td>
<td>Kamala Khadka Karki</td>
<td>Campus, Jiri, Dolakha</td>
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<td>346.</td>
<td>Krishna Bahadur Karki</td>
<td>Hnumanteshwor Higher Secondary School, Dolakha</td>
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<td>347.</td>
<td>Shesh Nath Acharya</td>
<td>Nilakantheshwor Secondary, School, Jungu, Dolakha</td>
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### Gorkha Branch

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<tr>
<td>348.</td>
<td>Arjun Prasad Bhatta</td>
<td>Sarashwati Secondary School, Gorkha</td>
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<td>349.</td>
<td>Bom Bahadur Thapa</td>
<td>Educational Training Centre, Gorkha</td>
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<td>350.</td>
<td>Buddhi Bahadur BK</td>
<td>Chatur Mala Secondary School, Gorkha</td>
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<td>351.</td>
<td>Dhana Pati Tiwari</td>
<td>Notre Dome School, Bandipur, Tanahun</td>
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</table>
352. Dhurba Kumar Shrestha  Ratna Rajya Secondary School, Gorkha
353. Dilli Ram Dhakal  Aahal Bhanjyang Secondary School, Gorkha
354. Hari Maya Sharma  Gorkha Campus, Gorkha
355. Ishwor Prasad Lamichhane  Surya Jyoti Secondary School, Gorkha
356. Kashi Nath Dangal  Notre Dame School, Bandipur, Tanahun
357. Kedar Mani Aryal  Maha Laxmi Secondary School, Gorkha
358. Khila Sharma Pokhrel  Notre Dame Higher Secondary School, Bandipur, Tanahun
359. Khun Prasad Regmi  Bhagawati Himalayan Secondary School, Gorkha
360. Purna Man Shrestha  Gorkha Campus, Gorkha
361. Rajendra Prasad Dhakal  Bakreshwor Secondary School, Gorkha
362. Ram Chandra Duwadi  Drabya Shah Multiple Campus, Gorkha
363. Sanjaya Adhikari  Gorkha Campus, Gorkha
364. Upendra Raj Devkota  Thimarek Mahi Pate Secondary School, Gorkha

Kanchanpur Branch
365. Surendra Bhatta  Mahendranagar

Kalaiya Branch
366. Safiq Ansari  Nepal Rastriya Madhyamik Vidyalaya, Raghunathpur, Kalaiya

Makawanpur Branch
367. Abha Shrestha  Shining Star Eng. B.School, Hetauda
368. Purna Kumar Shrestha  GPO 13120, Kathmandu
369. Ramesh Kumar Ghimire  Jyoti Lower Sec. School, Makawanpur

Morang Branch
370. Amrit Prasad Acharya  Sukuna Multiple Campus, Indrapur, Morang
371. Ashok Kumar Adhikari  Sukuna Multiple Campus, Indrapur, Morang
372. Badal Devi Chamling  Godavari Vidhya Mandir, Belbari Morang
373. Bhagat Thapakiya  Singhabahini Secondary School, Sanishare, Morang
374. Bhagi Prasad Rai  Panchayat Higher Secondary School, Pathari, Morang
375. Bhash Raj Lamichhane  Urlabari Multiple Campus, Morang
376. Chudamani Dahal  Bhanu Memorial English School, Belbari, Morang
377. Deepak Subedi  Janata M. Campus, Itahari, Sunsari
378. Guru Prasad Adhikari  Sukuna M. Campus, Indrapur, Morang
379. Hikmat Bahadur Basnet  Sukuna Multiple Campus, Indrapur, Morang
380. Indira Mishra Acharya  Mahendra Multiple Campus, Dharan, Sunsari
381. Jagannath Sharma  Sukuna Multiple Campus, Indrapur, Morang
382. Kedar Man Shrestha  Sukuna Multiple Campus, Indrapur, Morang
383. Kumar Pokhrel  Radhika Secondary School, Urlabari, Morang
384. Kushal Ghimire  Madhumalla 3, Morang
385. Laxmi Bhandari Acharya  Sajilal Higher Secondary School, Sundarpur, Morang
386. Laxmi Prasad Gautam  Bhagawati Higher Secondary School, Belbari, Morang
387. Mahesh Chaudhari  Panchyat Lower Secondary School, Morang
388. Mohan Kumar Tumbahang  Sukuna Multiple Campus, Indrapur, Morang
389. Mukti Nath Dahal  Sukuna M Campus, Indrapur, Morang
390. Nara Prasad Bhandari  Sukuna M Campus, Indrapur, Morang
391. Narayan Subedi  Sacred Heart E.School, Belbari, Morang
392. Prem Prasad Bhattarai  Sukuna Multiple Campus, Indrapur, Morang
393. Prem Upadhy  Janata Secondary School, Pathari, Morang
394. Rajendra Prasad Giri  Rising English Boarding School, Indrapur Morang
395. Rudra Prasad Dahal  Urlabari Multiple Campus, Urlabari, Morang
396. Shankar Dewan  Sukuna Multiple Campus, Indrapur, Morang
397. Shyam Lal Sharma  Birendra Sarbajanik Madhyamik Vidyalaya, Morang
398. Sundar Budathoki  Godawari Bidhyamandir, Belbari, Morang
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<th>No.</th>
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<td>399</td>
<td>Surendra Prasad Bhattarai</td>
<td>Bhagawati Higher Secondary School, Belbari Morang</td>
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<td>Tanku Man Lamichhane</td>
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<td>Tara Bahadur Thapa</td>
<td>Public Campus Bangama, Morang</td>
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<td>Tika Prasad Dongol</td>
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<td>403</td>
<td>Toran Raj Poudel</td>
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**Nawalparasi Branch**

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<td>404</td>
<td>Anil Basnet</td>
<td>Devkota Multiple College, Nawalparasi</td>
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<td>405</td>
<td>Chandra Kala Pandey</td>
<td>Model Girls' School, Pragatinagar, Nawalparasi</td>
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<td>406</td>
<td>Chandra Raj Bhurtel</td>
<td>Tribhuwan Bal Secondary School, Dhoki, Nawalparasi</td>
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<td>407</td>
<td>Dhiraj Adhikari</td>
<td>Saraswati Secondary School, Hasaura, Nawalparasi</td>
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<td>408</td>
<td>Dhundi Raj Bhandari</td>
<td>Dibya Jyoti Multiple Campus, Chisapani, Nawalparasi</td>
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<td>409</td>
<td>Hari Prasad Sharma</td>
<td>Shree Janasewa Secondary School, Sunawal</td>
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<td>410</td>
<td>Homnath Acharya</td>
<td>Dibya Jyoti Secondary School, Chhiaspani, Nawalparasi</td>
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<td>411</td>
<td>Keshav Prasad Kandel</td>
<td>Shiva SecondarySchool, Shivabasti, Nawalparasi</td>
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<td>412</td>
<td>Krishna Lal Sharma</td>
<td>Janajyoti Higher Secondary School, Nawalparasi</td>
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<td>413</td>
<td>Manoj Kumar Shrestha</td>
<td>Janata Secondary School, Kawasoti, Nawalparasi</td>
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<td>414</td>
<td>Muktinath Pandey</td>
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<td>Narayan Prasad Kandel</td>
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<td>Narayan Prasad Lamichhane</td>
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<td>Pradeep Adhikari</td>
<td>Kumarwarti Multiple Campus, Kawasoti</td>
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<td>418</td>
<td>Ram Chandra Poudel</td>
<td>Dibya Jyoti Multiple Campus, Chisapani, Nawalparasi</td>
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<td>419</td>
<td>Ramesh Rajbhandari</td>
<td>Bhimsen Adarsha School, Nawalparasi</td>
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<td>Ratna Lal Subedi</td>
<td>Shanti Nikunj Secondary School, Amarapuri, Nawalparasi</td>
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<td>Rewati Prasad Adhikari</td>
<td>Saraswati Secondary School, Nawalparasi</td>
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<td>422</td>
<td>Salik Ram Sharma Wagle</td>
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<td>423</td>
<td>Shalik Raj Sharma</td>
<td>Shiva Secondary School Nawalparasi</td>
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<td>Shiva Koirala</td>
<td>Siddhartha Boarding School, Kawasoti, Nawalparasi</td>
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<td>425</td>
<td>Tirtha Raj Kandel</td>
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<td>426</td>
<td>Udaya Raj Adhikari</td>
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<td>427</td>
<td>Yam Prasad Ghimire</td>
<td>Laxmi Higher Secondary School, Nawalparasi</td>
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**Nuwakot Branch**

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<td>428</td>
<td>Birendra Kr. Shah</td>
<td>Ran Bhuwaneshwori Higher Secondary School, Nuwakot</td>
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<td>429</td>
<td>Narad Rijal</td>
<td>Orchid Academy, Nuwakot</td>
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<td>430</td>
<td>Tul Dhwoj Khatiwada</td>
<td>Rana Bhuwaneshwary College, Devighat, Nuwakot</td>
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**Palpa Branch**

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<td>431</td>
<td>Dinanath Parajuli</td>
<td>Dibyajyoti Secondary School, Khaseni, Palpa</td>
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<td>432</td>
<td>Gopal Prasad Basyal</td>
<td>Mohan Kanya Higher Secondary School, Tansen Palpa</td>
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<td>433</td>
<td>Kishor Kuamr Khanal</td>
<td>Kusum Khola, Palpa</td>
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<td>434</td>
<td>Krishna Gyawali</td>
<td>Bhairev Janta Higher Secondary School, Bhairevasthan, Palpa</td>
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<td>435</td>
<td>Santa Bir Baral</td>
<td>Mahendra Bodhi High School, Tansen, Palpa</td>
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**Pokhara Branch**

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<td>Ashok Gurung</td>
<td>River Dale School, Pokhara</td>
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<td>437</td>
<td>Ashok Shahi</td>
<td>Little Step Higher Secondary School, Pokhara</td>
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<td>438</td>
<td>Babu Ram Baral</td>
<td>Rainbow Academic Homes, Pokhara</td>
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<td>439</td>
<td>Dania R.K.</td>
<td>Sishu Niketan Boarding School, Birauta, Pokhara</td>
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<td>440</td>
<td>Darp Lal Rajbansi</td>
<td>Jyoti Kunj Boarding School, Pokhara</td>
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<td>SOS Hermann Gmeiner School, Pokhara</td>
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<td>Deepak Bonzon</td>
<td>Alpha Boarding School, Lamachaur, Pokhara</td>
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<td>443</td>
<td>Dibesh Kanta Adhkari</td>
<td>Notre Dame Higher Secondary School, Bandipur, Tanahu</td>
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<td>444</td>
<td>Dilli Ram Bhattarai</td>
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Durga Prasad Poudel  Fishtail Academy, Pokhara
Durga Prasad Upreti  Gandaki Boarding School, Lamachaur, Pokhara
Ganesh Man Singh Bhandari  Saraswati Adarsha Bidhyashram, Lamachaur, Pokhara
Govinda R. Sharma  Gandaki Boarding School, Pokhara
Guddu Gurung  Paramount Public School, Pokhara
Harish Raj  Sishu Niketan Boarding School, Pokhara
Harka Gurung  Phulbari, Pokhara
Ishwori Prasad Tiwari  Everest Language Institute, Pokhara
Jamuna Timilsina  Jyoti Kunja Boarding School, Rambazar, Pokhara
Karna Gurung  Sishu Kalyan Boarding School, Pokhara
Karna Gurung  Lotus Academic School, Pokhara
Keshav Prasad Acharya  New Horizon Consultancy, Pokhara
Khadananda Sharma  Gandaki Boarding School, Pokhara
Krishna Prasad Adhikari  Gandaki Higher Secondary School, Pokhara
Lok Raj Bhandari  Karunamidhi Bidhyashram, Bagar, Pokhara
Man Bahadur Pun  Morning Glory School, Pokhara
Meen Gurung  Mary Gold Boarding High School, Pokhara
Minu Shrestha  Paschimanchal Boarding School, Pokhara
Nanda Bahadur  Manakamana Boarding School, Pokhara
Narayan Prasad Timilsina  Global Collegiate School, Pokhara
Nirmala Baral  Step By Step Boarding School, Pokhara
Pampha Gurung  Little Step English School, Pokhara
Puran Kunwar  Jyoti Kunj Secondary Boarding School, Pokhara
Rajendra Prasad Tiwari  Prithivi Narayan Campus, Pokhara
Ram Chandra Ojha  Cardinal International Boarding School, Dolla, Pokhara
Ratna Man Gurung  Tops English Boarding School, Ramghat, Pokhara
Sadana Gautam  Base Line English Boarding School, Pokhara
Shadananda Gautam  Baseland English Boarding School, Pokhara
Shiva Tripathi  Pragati English Boarding School, Pokhara
Shree Krishna Adhikari  Rainbow Academic Homes, Pokhara
Shreeman Gurung  Ramghat Public School, Pokhara
Sumanth Sharma  Sishu Niketan English Boarding School, Pardi, Biraunata, Pokhara
Sundar Pradhan  Siddhartha Love Dale Boarding School, Pokhara
Surendra Prasad Bhatta  Bhanu Sanskrit Campus, Tanahu
Yaggya Prasad Bastola  NELTA Pokhara
Yogendra Sharma  Kumudini Homes, Gairapatn, Pokhara
Yuva Raj Dawadi  Prithivi Narayan Campus, Pokhara

Pyuthan Branch
Jhapendra R. Baidhya  Mukti Higher Secondary School, Pyuthan
Kailash Pandit  Sworgadwari Campus, Pyuthan

Sankhuwasabha Branch
Anjana Shrestha Karki  Saraswati Secondary School, Chainpur
Bal Bahadur Katuwal  Mahendra Secondary School, Manebhanjyang
Bhawani Prasad Bhattarai  District Education Office, Khandbari
Damber Prasad Barakoti  Himalayan Higher Secondary School, Khandbari
Dik Bahadur Karki  Bhagawati Lower Secondary School, Chitlang
Durga Bahadur Bista  Mahendra Secondary School, Khandbari
Gopal Prasad Niraula  Bageshwori Madhyamik Vidhyalaya, Dhungedhara
Kuber Prasad Bhetwal  Barun Multiple Campus, Khandbari
Lal Bahadur Khatri  Saraswati Secondary School, Chainpur
Mani Kumar Rai  Manakamana Higher Secondary School, Tumlingtar
Mitra Kumari Rai  Sarada Lower Secondary School, Dhompur
Padma Raj Tamang  Barun Multiple Campus, Khandbari
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<td>Uma Gautam</td>
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<td>Chandra Bahadur K.C.</td>
<td>Syangja Higher Secondary School, Syangja</td>
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<td>Punya Prasad Aryal</td>
<td>Bhagvodaya Higher Secondary School, Syangja</td>
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<td>Toya Nath Koirala</td>
<td>Daahathum High School, Syangja</td>
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<td>Yam Bahadur Kunwar</td>
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<td>Bimal Nepali</td>
<td>Surkhet Horizon Academy, Birendranagar, Surkhet</td>
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<td>Bishnu Prasad Upadhyaya</td>
<td>Amar Jyoti Higher Secondary School, Neware, Surkhet</td>
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<td>Chitra Khatri</td>
<td>Elite Secondary School, Kalunchowk, Surkhet</td>
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<td>Dhani Ram Sharma</td>
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