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Editorial

Save The Children – The Core Of Teaching, Learning, And Development – Investing In Our Golden Future: A Call For Empirical Research

Tareq M Zayed[1] iD

Children are the very heart of all teaching and learning initiatives. As we dedicate this issue to exploring the rich landscape of teaching, learning, and teacher development, it's vital to remember that every theory, strategy, and tool discussed ultimately aims to serve one purpose: to empower and protect our children. Our position is the belief that the role of education is not just to impart knowledge but to ensure that children grow up safe, emotionally supported, and prepared to face the challenges of tomorrow. "Save the Children," therefore, is more than a call for safety and security—it is a philosophy that connects every aspect of nurturing a child's well-being, from the home to the classroom, to society at large.

Our goal is to protect and support every child—along with their friends, now and in the future, near and far, across every classroom, digital platform, family, and community in Bangladesh. We want to teach children and everyone who cares for them: parents, fathers, mothers, elders, and leaders. We want to spread the message across Bangladesh: Save and protect every child, whoever they may be and wherever they are.

We must save children because they are the future of our society. If we fail to protect them, we risk losing the generation that will build, lead, and sustain our tomorrow's world. Children's problems are vast and complex. These go far beyond issues like 'malnutrition'. Children are often vulnerable to various forms of harm, from national and international threats to cultural and psychological pressures. Beyond physical threats, children face cultural and mental pressures too. They are exposed to negative influences that can harm their self-image, values, and beliefs, especially through social media and other digital platforms. Harmful cultural norms or international trends can disrupt their personal growth and identity. Sometimes this disruption pushes them toward unhealthy lifestyles, toxic relationships, or even substance abuse.

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Children are also at risk of physical dangers, armed conflicts and violence. They can become victims of war, displacement, and human trafficking. In many parts of the world, they may even be forced into labor or armed conflict. Other issues such as environmental degradation, lack of access to quality education, and inadequate healthcare are ongoing global challenges. Climate change, pollution, and the loss of safe public spaces leave children exposed to environmental risks that can impact their health and safety.

The range of physical, mental, emotional, and social safety issues are, therefore, wide and interconnected. To protect children fully, we must address each of these areas. We need to shield them from harmful influences, provide a safe learning environment, ensure good health, and create a world where they can thrive. So, saving children means investing in their safety, health, and well-being today.

Building Safe Learning Environments for Children's Security
Family and societal stability are foundational to this mission. When children experience the trauma of family breakdowns, they often carry those emotional burdens into the classroom. Teachers and schools, therefore, play a crucial role as stabilizing forces. Teachers provide children with the reassurance and structure they may lack at home. By offering emotional support, and promoting a nonjudgmental space, teachers help children develop resilience and security. This support can offset the impact of family upheaval.

Healthy family dynamics and positive parental involvement also reinforce children's educational progress. Home life and school life are highly interconnected. When families work together with teachers, children benefit from consistent messages and support that develop the children both emotionally and academically. This cooperation can be the difference between a child who merely copes with challenges and one who thrives despite them.

Protecting Children Online: Cybersecurity in Education
Children are often vulnerable to cyber threats such as online predators and cyberbullying, exposure to inappropriate content etc. Schools and educators can play role as stewards to ensure safe learning environments. They are responsible for equipping children with tools and knowledge to navigate online spaces safely.

Digital literacy programs are now essential components of modern curricula. Integrating cybersecurity education into teaching practices safeguards children at one side and on the other side ensures their autonomy and sense of responsibility. In this way, education serves a dual purpose: building knowledge and building resilience. When children understand how to stay safe online, they are more empowered to learn and connect without fear.

Managing Digital Addiction: Balanced Digital Engagement
Another dimension of saving children in the digital age involves protecting them from digital addiction. Even mild addiction can interfere with their social, mental, and emotional well-being. With the expansion of online learning and digital engagement, excessive screen time increased significantly. Teachers and parents should guide children toward balanced digital use. Schools can encourage purposeful digital engagement by promoting educational content. All these support children's mental health for sure.

Through classroom activities and discussions, teachers can model and promote healthy screen habits. Teachers can help students understand the value of moderation and intentionality. This balance is key to raise a healthy relationship with technology.

Family Stability and Emotional Health: Teaching Beyond Academics

Saving children also means supporting their emotional and psychological well-being. Children's mental health is often influenced by their family dynamics because family is a critical factor in educational success. Teachers are uniquely positioned to identify when a child is struggling and when to give him or her intervention by offering emotional support with counseling resources.

When families go through conflicts or separation, children can carry that burden into the classroom. This impacts badly their ability to focus, engage, and learn. Teachers must acknowledge that children's academic performance and emotional health are deeply intertwined. Schools can serve as supportive environments where children can find caring adults. Thus, educators and families must work together.

Advocacy and Support for Holistic Child Development

Education goes beyond academic achievement. It is a means to empower, protect, and enrich children's lives in all aspects. Save the Children's mission emphasizes advocacy, health, and welfare as essential components of a child's growth. This slogan reminds all educators, parents, and communities that a child's well-being encompasses their physical, emotional, and intellectual development.

This editorial underscore the need for a holistic approach to teaching and learning. Just as teachers adapt their methods to meet diverse learning styles, they also have a responsibility to address the broader factors from family circumstances to digital safety to mental health.

Reimagining Education as Child-Centered Protection

Every teacher, parent, and community member play a role in the mission of child protection. When we commit to providing not just knowledge but security, compassion, and guidance, we are truly saving the children. We will save them in moments of crisis as well as in everyday acts.

A Call For Empirical Research On Children's Personality, Career Development, Mental Health, Moral Character, Learning Styles, And Future Aspirations

To truly understand and support children in all facets of their growth, we must recognize that every child represents a valuable and unique investment in society's future. While the concept of investing in gold has long been seen as a symbol of security and wealth, there is no investment more valuable than ensuring the well-being and potential of our children. Protecting them, nurturing their growth, and empowering them for the future should be seen as the golden investment that yields the most precious returns. As we embark on this mission, empirical research across various dimensions of child development becomes essential. This editorial allows us to make informed decisions and create environments that help children reach their full potential.

One area of vital importance is understanding children's personalities and how they influence early career choices. Research in this area can help educators and parents support children in discovering and pursuing paths that align with their unique strengths and interests. If we study how personality traits affect decision-making and career aspirations, we can build systems that nurture children's natural inclinations. Such studies can guide curriculum development, career counseling programs, and even inform policy decisions that impact the future workforce.

Another important area is the assessment of mental health, particularly as children face increasing pressures both at home and in school. Stress, anxiety, and other mental health challenges are rising among children. A gap remains in our understanding of how these issues develop and impact learning. Empirical research on mental stress assessment is needed to create interventions that support children's emotional well-being. If we identify stressors and understand their effects, we can ensure children have access to mental health resources that build resilience and promote lifelong mental well-being.

Moral character and ethical development are also essential to a child's growth. Developing strong moral character from a young age becomes crucial for nurturing responsible, empathetic citizens. Through research on moral character development, we can explore how values are formed, how social influences play a role, and how education can instill a sense of integrity and social responsibility. By understanding these factors, educators can make programs that encourage ethical thinking, empathy, and social responsibility.

Additionally, research into learning styles and cognitive preferences enables educators to create more personalized and effective teaching approaches. Each child learns differently, so understanding these learning styles can lead to strategies that increase engagement, comprehension, and retention. In an era of rapid technological advancement, empirical research on learning styles and preferences is must. We help children excel academically and build a love for lifelong learning by introducing teaching methods to various learning preferences

Finally, conducting research on children's future aspirations can shed light on how we can lead them toward their goals. Research in this area ensures that we are not only preparing children for success but are also empowering them to shape a world that reflects their ideals and aspirations.

This commitment is a golden investment, ensuring that as we save our children, we are also saving the future of our society.

RESEARCH ISSUES

Some research ideas on saving and supporting children, maintaining both qualitative and quantitative approaches. Each idea includes possible theoretical frameworks and methods. First proposed study could be titled *Assessing the Impact of Digital Use on Children's Mental Health* and would use quantitative methods to explore the link between screen time and mental health outcomes such as anxiety and attention difficulties in children aged 8-14. Media Effects Theory, which examines how media consumption impacts psychological states, provides a relevant theoretical foundation. To conduct this research, surveys would be distributed to children and their parents, gathering data on digital use patterns, screen time, and mental health indicators. The study would employ a cross-sectional design, analyzing data with regression analysis to identify correlations between screen time and mental health symptoms, while controlling for factors like family income and parental education.

Another study, *Parents' and Teachers' Views on Moral Education and Character Development*, could use qualitative methods to explore how these adults perceive their roles in cultivating children's moral values and character. The study would draw on Kohlberg's Moral Development Theory, which describes stages of moral reasoning and decision-making. Researchers would conduct focus groups with parents and teachers to capture their beliefs, attitudes, and approaches to character education. Data would be analyzed using grounded

theory to identify shared perspectives and potentially develop a new framework for understanding how adults contribute to children's moral development.

A study titled *Measuring Early Career Aspirations in Primary School Students* would apply quantitative methods to investigate factors that shape career interests in children ages 6-10. Social Cognitive Career Theory, which highlights the roles of self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and personal goals, would guide this research. Surveys could assess children's career interests, skills, and the influence of family and media on their aspirations. Structural equation modeling (SEM) would be employed to analyze data and reveal predictors of early career aspirations, helping to understand how children's environments shape their career trajectories.

Exploring how different learning styles impact academic performance, *Understanding Children's Learning Styles and Their Impact on Academic Achievement* could use a mixed-methods approach. Multiple Intelligences Theory, which proposes varied cognitive strengths and learning preferences, would support this research. First, a quantitative survey would classify children's learning styles (e.g., visual, auditory, kinesthetic) and correlate these with academic records. In-depth interviews with a sample of students and teachers would then reveal contextual insights, providing qualitative data to explain the quantitative findings. This approach would offer a well-rounded understanding of how learning styles affect educational outcomes.

Another valuable study might investigate *The Effectiveness of Mindfulness Training on Reducing Digital Addiction in Children*. This quantitative research would test if mindfulness practices can reduce symptoms of digital addiction in children. Drawing on Mindfulness Theory, which emphasizes increased self-awareness and control, this study could use a randomized controlled trial (RCT). Children in the experimental group would participate in mindfulness exercises, while a control group would receive no intervention. Researchers would measure digital addiction symptoms before and after the intervention, analyzing results with ANOVA to assess the effectiveness of mindfulness in reducing digital dependency.

In a qualitative study titled *Children's Experience of Social Support in Families Post-Divorce*, researchers would explore how children perceive and receive support within divorced families. Attachment Theory, which highlights the importance of secure emotional bonds, would frame this research. Conducting in-depth interviews with children from recently divorced families, researchers would use narrative analysis to uncover how these children understand and experience social support, with particular focus on factors that enhance resilience and emotional health post-divorce.

Evaluating the Influence of Cultural Norms on Children's Moral Development could use quantitative methods to study how cultural norms shape children's moral reasoning. The study would apply Cultural Development Theory, which posits that cultural values play a crucial role in cognitive and moral growth. A survey with moral dilemma questions would be distributed to children from diverse cultural backgrounds, and the responses would be analyzed using factor analysis to compare moral reasoning levels and choices across cultural contexts, offering insights into how cultural expectations shape ethical decision-making.

Each of these studies addresses a distinct aspect of child development, using theoretical frameworks and methods to provide meaningful, data-driven insights into how society can better support children's growth and well-being.

CONCLUSION

To truly protect and empower our children, we must all work together—teachers, parents, social organizations, counselors, and even investors. This mission calls for collaboration because the challenges children face today are varied and interconnected. No single group can ensure a safe environment alone; it takes a joint effort from all corners of society to build a future where every child can thrive. When each of us commits to this mission, children gain a foundation of support that extends beyond the classroom and home.

Investing in children is more than a moral choice; it's a golden investment with lifelong returns. Instead of focusing on traditional assets like gold or other material investments, let us turn our resources to those for whom the future belongs. By investing in their health, education, and emotional well-being, we're securing a society that will flourish for generations. The value of these efforts goes beyond money.

We know, the more valuable a goal is, the more complex and organized the approach must be. Creating a safe and supportive world for children requires well-thought-out plans, multiparty involvement, and strategic investments. We need funding, educational reforms, mental health programs, and community support systems that work hand-in-hand. Only by creating and sustaining this framework can we tackle the layers of challenges children face. Let's view this mission as a priority, combining resources and efforts to ensure that our most precious responsibility is fully realized. As we explore various facets of teaching and learning in this journal issue, let us remember that each article and insight contributes to a greater purpose: building an educational system where children are safeguarded, supported, and given every chance to grow in a world that values and protects them at every step.

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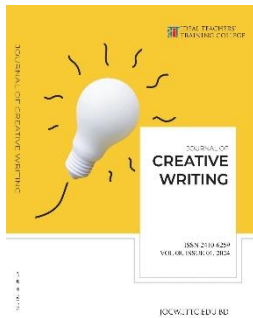
OPTIMIZING TEACHERS' CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT THROUGH PEER OBSERVATION: A CRITICAL ANALYSIS FOR IMPLEMENTATION IN A GOVERNMENT COLLEGE, DHAKA

TAHMINA SHARMIN[1] iD

ABSTRACT

Peer observation is a useful tool for the professional growth of teachers as it enables two peers work together, observe each other's teaching, share helpful suggestions, and engage in reflection on their instructional abilities. This study aims to explore the effectiveness of peer observation in tertiary education to foster teachers' continuing professional development, formulate a framework for its implementation to improve teaching performance and seek possible solutions to some potential challenges regarding the implementation of the peer observation of teaching (POT) program in a Bangladeshi government college. Therefore, the researcher used a secondary data analysis method in which around 30 papers, including journal articles, conference proceedings, research reports, were studied, analyzed, and discussed. Moreover, two case studies in international contexts were reviewed elaborately. The result found that the implementation of peer observation of teaching program would enhance teachers' professional development and consequently, the students' success would be accelerated. After analyzing the documents, an implementation plan for POT in the researcher's college was devised and some strategies were suggested to overcome the challenges that might arise during the process.

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KEYWORDS
Peer Observation of Teaching (POT), continuing professional development (CPD), Observer and Observee

INTRODUCTION
In today's rapidly evolving educational landscape, the role of teachers extends beyond imparting knowledge; it encompasses continuous adaptation to new pedagogical techniques, educational technologies, and diverse student needs. With globalization and technological advancements reshaping the way knowledge is accessed and consumed, higher education institutions face growing demands for more effective teaching strategies. Teachers, particularly in tertiary education, are challenged to keep up with these shifts, balancing traditional instruction methods with innovative approaches.

In this context, Continuing Professional Development (CPD) has emerged as a critical component of modern teaching. However, despite its recognized importance, teachers in many parts of the world, including Bangladesh, struggle to access robust CPD programs due to financial constraints and institutional limitations. Peer Observation of Teaching (POT) offers a promising solution. By fostering collaborative reflection, POT allows educators to learn from one another, share constructive feedback, and refine their teaching practices, making it a potent tool for enhancing professional growth.

This study critically explores the effectiveness of POT in the context of a government college in Dhaka, Bangladesh. Through a comprehensive analysis of existing literature and international case studies, it aims to design a feasible framework for implementing POT as part of a CPD strategy in this institution. By doing so, it addresses a pressing need in Bangladeshi higher education: equipping teachers with the skills and support necessary to navigate the complexities of modern classrooms and elevate the overall quality of education.

Teaching in higher education has grown complicated and difficult due to the globalization of knowledge acquisition in world markets (Donnelly, 2007). This suggests a variety of disciplines, rising student expectations, new course designs, and innovative methods of instruction. To keep up with the changes, teachers should experiment with various theories and methodologies in different teaching scenarios and critically reflect on them with their colleagues' feedback on teaching (Danko et al., 2016). Nowadays, peer observation of teaching (POT) is receiving a lot of interest in the teaching-learning process. During the POT process, both teachers-the observer and the observed- learn by observing other's instructions and receiving feedback (Richards & Farrell, 2005). According to Alam et al. (2020), peer observation is a useful technique for the professional growth of teachers as it enables them to share helpful suggestions and engage in reflection on their instructional abilities. Therefore, this study will explore the effectiveness of peer observation in tertiary education to foster teachers' continuing professional development in a Bangladeshi government college.

BACKGROUND OF THE PAPER
Teachers' continuing professional development (CPD) is a widely addressed topic in today's era due to its crucial function in maintaining the professional skills of the lead learners. CPD procedures help teachers identify the most recent student-learning strategies, maintain their technical expertise, and keep their professional skills and knowledge up to date (Awal, 2022). Recognizing the significance of teachers' professional development, in the National Education Policy-2010 of Bangladesh, a few provisions regarding teacher training have been included. However, college educators in Bangladesh are not getting the necessary professional training due to state financial limitations and a lack of concern. The researcher's institution, one of the leading government teachers' training colleges in Bangladesh, offers both professional courses and training programs for teaching and learning. To provide high-quality education to students and future teachers, educators must stay updated with the latest pedagogical theories,

technological advancements, and training methodologies. In order to create more inclusive and productive learning environments, newly recruited and permanent teachers of various disciplines also need to learn about a variety of learning styles, assessment methods, and strategies for meeting the needs of individual students. Like many higher education institutions, this institute also requires to meet specific accreditation and quality standards. Teachers who participate in CPD can better match their teaching practices with these requirements and contribute to institutional improvement initiatives. Therefore, enhancement of CPD is a must in this institution to ensure that educators remain effective, adaptable, and responsive to the changing educational landscape, to improve teaching quality, foster student learning experiences, and contribute to the overall success of the institution.

Different CPD activities, such as self-monitoring, teacher support groups, team teaching, journal writing, teaching portfolios, peer mentoring, peer observation, peer coaching, and action research, are available to enhance teachers' knowledge, skills, and practice (Richards & Farrell, 2005). Among them, peer observation of teaching (POT) can be a tool to increase the teaching skills of the teachers of the researcher's college and provide the students with a better education. When POT will be introduced, the teachers will get the opportunities to observe one another's teaching strategies, which will help them reflect upon and bring about necessary changes in their current practices for further development. The newly appointed teachers can significantly enhance their teaching performance by observing their experienced teachers (Bell, 2001). Novice teachers frequently find themselves in difficult situations to handle mixed-ability learners in large classrooms. Though most of them have foundation training which emphasizes on developing administrative skills, few teachers received training programs for professional development. Therefore, most teachers can depend on collaboration by reflecting on one another's classes and providing constructive feedback to improve their teaching practices, classroom management strategies, and assessment techniques. The experienced teachers can also find POT as a reflective tool (Bell, 2001). When observing other teachers' teaching practices, they can evaluate the teachers' instructional practices with much more insight developed through experience. Besides, the experienced teachers can update their teaching performances by observing other teachers' instructional practices, cutting-edge educational technology, and approaches in the classroom. Thus, the POT process will allow experienced teachers to modernize their teaching practices and share their experiences and reflective feedback with other teachers. Therefore, to ensure teaching standards and institutional goals, the implementation of peer observation to enhance CPD of the teachers is imperative in this institution. That is why, based on sufficient evidence from literature and the case studies, the study aims at designing a model for implementing peer observation to enhance teachers' CPD at the researcher's institution.

RESEARCH PROBLEM

In Bangladesh, government colleges face significant challenges in providing effective Continuing Professional Development (CPD) for teachers, largely due to financial constraints and limited institutional support. These barriers prevent educators from keeping up with modern pedagogical techniques and meeting rising educational standards. Peer Observation of Teaching (POT), a collaborative method of professional development, offers a promising solution for fostering teacher growth in contexts where traditional CPD is lacking.

International case studies, such as Tenenberg (2016) and Danko et al. (2016), have demonstrated the effectiveness of POT in enhancing teaching practices, promoting reflective learning, and increasing collegiality among educators. However, the application of POT in a Bangladeshi government college, which operates under different cultural, financial, and institutional conditions, remains unexplored. Specifically, the question arises as to how the

models of POT used in international contexts can be adapted to meet the unique challenges faced by educators in Bangladesh.

Therefore, the research problem this study seeks to address is: How can Peer Observation of Teaching (POT) be effectively implemented as a tool for Continuing Professional Development (CPD) in a government college in Dhaka, Bangladesh, and what challenges and opportunities might arise in adapting POT models from international contexts to this setting?

In order to address this research problem, two case studies taken from foreign contexts as the best practices were discussed, analyzed, and connected to the researcher's institution's present milieu.

Case Study 01: Learning Through Observing Peers In Practice (Tenenberg, 2016)

Overview of the study

The case study of Tenenberg (2016) sheds light on how teachers might learn by observing one another's practices. The majority of research on peer observational learning in higher education has been conducted from the viewpoint of the teacher being observed. However, this study explains how observing a peer teacher facilitates learning for the observer. This paper also contributes to showing the advantages of peer observation for the learner's growth and learning.

Identifying the key issues

The data used for this qualitative study came from interviews conducted as part of a faculty development project. The project's objective was to encourage knowledge exchange and introspection among a team of academics who work in several institutions of higher education in the same geographic area and instruct the same discipline. Each cohort of between 10 and 20 people meets once a month for a few hours during the course of an academic year. The partners were instructed to conduct a three-part format for their meetings (pre-meeting, observation, and post-meeting). The observers were apart from any formal institutional arrangement and unacquainted with the context, but they were acquainted with the details of the observed course. A leader who served as the facilitator for each cohort planned the agenda for each meeting and organized the participants' specific activities. Nine teachers who taught Computer Science were chosen as participants in the faculty development project, and semi-structured interviews were employed as a tool to get insight into their experiences. The interview protocol contained inquiries about the focus and effects of participation, opinions of the participant's portfolio, changes in participants' views of instruction, and adaptations to teaching methods as a result of participation. For the distance, all interviews were conducted by phone for 30 to 60 minutes four months following the cohort's final monthly meeting. Every interview was transcribed professionally. From the interviews of nine participants, one interview with a university lecturer named Elizabeth (a pseudonym) is focused. The story is depicted using interpretive phenomenological analysis (IPA). Through IPA, the researcher interprets the interviewee's reported experience in the third person, and thus he tries to move from meaning construction to information processing.

Analyzing the findings of the study

Three important features of the observer's process of change as a result of observation are noticed-double-seeing (using culturally assimilated ways of seeing to compare the observer's classroom activities to those of the colleague who is teaching the same content because both teachers have already gone through similar activity sequences in their own classrooms), creating a problem and solution pair (identifying an issue in the observer's own classroom after noticing a solution to a related issue in another colleague's classroom), adapting a solution to the local context (implementing the colleague's method in the observer's particular

circumstances). The two conditions of the observation session's structure that appear to be significant for learning are that both of the pair's members teach the same subject at different universities, and power dynamics are eliminated from the observation process. Since learning for the observer is the primary goal of peer observation, there may be less need for the post-observation discussion, which would minimize the time and effort costs for both sides. Moreover, a pre-observation meeting that was intended to give the observer context may not be necessary if the observer is well-informed about the course that is being taught by the observer.

This study explores how learning can occur from observing a peer engaged in practice from the perspective of the observer. Two structural conditions and a theoretical model for observation-based change are presented through an interpretive phenomenological analysis of a case of peer observation. This kind of peer-to-peer learning goes beyond the confines of constructivism, as the learner's prime objective is not only the active construction of meaning and its incorporation into current knowledge, but also the evaluation of actions that are already effective and comprehensible to the learner.

Case Study 02: Peer Observation In Higher Education As An Agent Of Change In Teaching And Learning (Danko Et Al., 2016)

Overview of the study
The case study of Danko at al. (2016) explores the views of teachers and students about the pedagogical process. The study experimented on a peer observation of teaching (POT) program that was developed at the Faculty of Administration (FA), University of Ljubljana. Its goals were to analyze observations rather than evaluate the teaching and learning process, investigate how teachers and students view the teaching process and compare the observations to identify the aspects of teaching practice that both groups consider crucial and any areas where they may have agreed or disagreed.

Identifying the key issues
The 'peer review model' in which teachers observe one another's teaching, had been chosen for the FA POT project. A three-part activity, including a pre-observation session, an observation, and a post-observation reflective session, was adopted. The aim, goals, and advantages of POT were first explained to the FA staff, along with a brief literature study of teaching observation practice. Students were included in the observation process to promote a teaching and learning environment. In this qualitative study, the survey was carried out using observation forms for both teachers and students. The data analysis was conducted with 24 teacher observation forms and 170 student observation forms. The observation forms for teachers and students were designed to obtain information on teaching. Data from student and teacher observation forms were analyzed using a well-known technique for organizing qualitative data called qualitative content analysis (QCA). It is a method for condensing many words of text into fewer content categories using specific coding principles. The analysis alone just reveals what is written or spoken, without revealing why, who, or how it was said.

Analyzing the findings of the study
The FA's pilot POT experiment identified valuable strategies to create a more engaging and effective teaching environment. Students demonstrated higher motivation when theoretical concepts were linked to real-world applications and relatable, everyday examples. Active participation and student engagement increased with teamwork and the use of ICT tools. However, challenges emerged when the lecture pace was misaligned with students' needs—too fast or too slow—and when information was excessive, repetitive, or presented in a monotonous reading style without interaction. Improvements could include beginning each session by clearly stating learning objectives, demonstrating knowledge confidently, and using a clear, engaging voice, while also providing accessible study resources. Techniques like role-

playing, debates, teamwork, practical tasks, thought-provoking questions, and randomly calling on students can elevate engagement levels. Short quizzes at the end of each lecture or tutorial provide useful feedback on student comprehension. Moreover, teachers who show enthusiasm, preparedness, and an ability to deliver content with clarity are seen as role models, inspiring students to emulate their commitment and approach to learning.

This study explores that both the teachers who are being observed and their peer observers find the POT project at the FA to be beneficial. It offers the observed teachers an opportunity to reflect on their lectures to make them better, and the observers get the ability to learn more about their colleagues' teaching methods both from the perspective of the students and from their own presence. It also gives students a chance to contribute creatively to the changes occurring in higher education. In the next part, the comparative analysis of the two case studies is highlighted in light of the literature.

Connecting the Two Case Studies to a Bangladeshi College Context
The findings of the two case studies provided the scenario of POT implementation to enhance the professional development of their teachers. They inspired the researcher to apply POT at her college as this tertiary level college has not yet gone through the process. The government colleges of Bangladesh can implement the POT process to increase the teaching skills of their educators. Thus, if the educational institutions follow the peer review model, the novice or inexperienced teachers may observe the expert or experienced teachers. To identify the effectiveness of POT and confirm the accountability of teachers, proper feedback should be ensured and the three stages of the POT process should be followed to get optimal learning. Since both case studies focus on observations rather than evaluation of the teaching-learning process, and far from formal and institutional systems, administration should not interfere in the POT process as evaluators because peer observation is solely a teacher-led activity with the goal of enhancing instructional practices. The instructional leader can help educators improve professionally and mutually through arranging trainings or workshops in a friendly and cordial setting. Students as important stakeholders, should be involved in the POT process and trained to become excellent and interested partners in the recognition of achieving the desired objectives of learning in higher education. In the next section, the researcher proposed a POT implementation model to enhance the collegiality and professional development between the novice and experienced teachers.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK
This study draws on Gosling's (2002) peer review model, which categorizes peer observation as a tool for either evaluation, development, or peer review, but critically, it does not adequately address the role of senior teachers as observees. In traditional hierarchies, senior teachers may be reluctant to be observed by less experienced colleagues, leading to potential gaps in their own professional development. This study will adapt Gosling's model to include strategies that ensure senior teachers also benefit from observation, fostering a mutual learning environment.

Additionally, the study reflects on Richards & Farrell's (2005) three stages of the POT process (pre-observation, observation, and post-observation). While this model is effective in fostering reflective practice, it lacks accountability mechanisms linking the process to institutional goals or oversight from a monitoring committee. Without institutional engagement, POT can become informal and inconsistent, limiting its long-term impact. This research will integrate Bandura's social learning theory to emphasize the role of feedback loops in ensuring institutional accountability and teacher motivation for continuous improvement.

To address these gaps, the researcher uses insights from two international case studies (Tenenberg, 2016; Danko et al., 2016) to design a context-appropriate POT framework for a

government college in Bangladesh. These studies highlight the importance of collegial relationships, student engagement, and the adaptation of teaching practices. By triangulating these findings with Gosling's and Richards & Farrell's models, the researcher proposes an adapted POT framework that incorporates both bottom-up reflective learning and top-down accountability structures to enhance professional development in the Bangladeshi context.

This theoretical framework will guide the development of a peer observation model that is sensitive to local cultural dynamics, addresses the professional development needs of both novice and senior teachers, and ensures institutional commitment to the process.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The researcher attempts to achieve the following research objectives:

1. To find out the effectiveness of peer observation as a CPD tool
2. To explore the best methods to implement a peer observation of teaching (POT) program in a government college offering tertiary education
3. To seek possible solutions to some potential challenges regarding the implementation of the POT program

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study employed a secondary data analysis approach, relying on the review of scholarly articles, conference papers, and research reports published between 2000 and 2024. The data were gathered from reputable academic databases, including Google Scholar, ERIC, JSTOR, etc. with a focus on research related to Peer Observation of Teaching (POT) and Continuing Professional Development (CPD). More than 30 sources were analyzed to explore the effectiveness, challenges, and best practices of POT in enhancing teacher professional development.

To support the study's objectives, two international case studies were selected and analyzed in detail: Tenenberg (2016) and Danko et al. (2016). These case studies provided valuable insights into how POT was implemented in different educational contexts and were used to inform the design of a localized POT framework for a Bangladeshi government college. A thematic analysis of the literature and case studies helped identify key patterns, challenges, and strategies relevant to the context of Bangladesh, guiding the development of a practical and culturally appropriate implementation plan for POT.

FINDINGS OF THE LITERATURE REVIEW

In this section, the definition of POT, the goals, the process, and the advantages of peer observation are reviewed on the basis of the literature.

What Is Peer Observation Of Teaching (POT)?

Peer observation is a significant tool for professional growth, introspection, collaboration, and ultimately improving student learning experiences in higher education. Generally, this activity is a procedure where a teacher watches the instruction of another teacher (Kenny et al., 2014). Peer observation, according to Bell (2012), is a cooperative, developmental process in which professional people support mutually by watching one another teach, delving into what was experienced, exchanging teaching strategies, obtaining student feedback on how well they were taught, reflecting on their own perceptions, feelings, and behaviors, and experimenting with new ideas. Hendry & Oliver (2012) define peer observation as a practice that involves two teachers working together and observing each other's instruction with the basic purpose of improving teaching standards. This offers them fresh perspectives for their classes and reinforces their own teaching strategies. Gosling (2002) asserts that peer observation of teaching is frequently utilized for new lecturers as well as in the process of developing individual teachers or the department as a whole. This is occasionally agreed upon by both parties, and sometimes it is imposed. Shortland (2004) concurs with the idea that POT is a

component of an ongoing development program for both novice and expert faculty, providing teachers with a great opportunity to foster self-knowledge and self-improvement. Gosling (2002) also emphasizes the necessity for POT to address student feedback, assessment procedures, learning outcomes, and instructional materials in addition to teaching.

Though the person being observed usually benefits from peer observations (Hammersley-Fletcher & Orsmond, 2004), there is a growing realization that the observers who embrace the best practices utilized by the teacher being observed are the main gainers of peer observations (Hendry & Oliver, 2012; Tenenberg, 2016). This claim is in line with Bandura's theory of self-efficacy, which contends that watching someone else succeed at something gives other people the courage to give it a try. Motallebzadeh et al. (2017) also agree that peer observation fosters collaboration and the sharing of learning experiences among teachers, which can be advantageous for both the observer and the observed. Therefore, POT is more about learning through observation, than just focusing on the feedback that the observing teacher provides.

Three Models Of Peer Observation
According to the three models identified by Gosling (2002), peer observation is often structured inside an organizational framework: evaluation, development, and peer review. These can be differentiated most clearly based on **who** is observing (senior officers, pedagogical specialists, and other educators, respectively), the **objective** of the observation (quality management, improving instruction, self-reflection), and the key **concerns** involved in this type of observation (alienation, lack of impact, complacency).

The Phases Of Peer Observation
The main objective of observation is learning from the perception of observation (Richards & Farrell, 2005). They also claim that for the purpose of POT, the following three distinct yet interrelated activities are carried out:

i)   Pre-observation meeting: The observer and the observee decide the observation's focus during the pre-observation meeting. Farrell (2001, p. 368) calls this interaction between the observer and observee 'critical friendships: professionals supporting one another improve' during the POT. The observers can also learn about the classroom setting and issues that will likely arise in the classrooms in advance during this meeting, which truly helps them reflect on what will likely happen (Richards & Farrell, 2005).

ii) Observation of the lesson: During this phase, the observer makes a scheduled visit to the observee's class. Informing students about the observation and assuring them that it is not meant to evaluate them but to help the teacher or observer improve their professional abilities is important (Donnelly, 2007). He also added that during the session, the teacher observer would focus on students' enthusiasm, listening, understanding, and learning. The learners should also be informed of the observer's presence (Kohut et al. 2007). The written narrative format of field notes is ideal for recording the observation (Richards & Farrell, 2005). The observer can provide the observee with precise feedback and ample evidence with a written record.

iii) Post-observation meeting: In this meeting, the couple discusses the instruction from both the perspectives of the observer and the observed (Carroll & O'Loughlin, 2014). This meeting will serve as an example of how to provide and receive feedback (Donnelly, 2007). According to Ewens (2001), feedback should be constructive and motivational. The feedback could be provided at a predetermined time and location, either right away after the observation session or the next day (Hampton et al., 2004).

Peer Observation And CPD

Continuing professional development (CPD) is an ongoing, structured, and long-term learning process that teachers can use to improve their individual and professional effectiveness and progress their knowledge, abilities, and practices, and this empowers instructors, and benefits both institutions and students (Padwad & Dixit, 2011). According to Awal (2022), CPD is a prerequisite for every lead learner because it enhances the content's standard, broadens the subject knowledge, and improves classroom management and student-evaluation ability. Among many CPD activities, peer observation serves as one of the best instructional tools that encourages collaboration for professional growth (Alam et al., 2020). Peer observation allows educators the opportunity to examine one another's instructional strategies and explore new techniques that could improve teaching and learning while also allowing them to assess their own strengths and weaknesses. Richards & Farrell (2005) claim that such a practice may enable them to learn from one another and, as a result, have a more perceptive attitude toward their professional development.

The Advantages Of Peer Observation

Peer observation provides several advantages that can assist teachers in improving their instruction, student learning, and professional development (Belarouci & Abdellatif, 2023). The researchers also found that peer observation enables the observee to apply new or successful teaching approaches that have been learnt in workshops, conferences, and training courses. One of the features of POT is that it fosters a culture of collaboration and community learning. Corcelles-Seuba et al. (2024) in their study confirmed that reciprocal peer observation improves teacher collaboration which is a crucial aspect of professional development. Moreover, this collaborative practice fosters teachers' sense of collective agency and teachers' preference for collaboration over individual work. Another benefit is that POT allows educators to reflect on their own pedagogical practices and enhance their instruction. Peer observation, according to Hammersley- Fletcher & Orsmond (2005), promotes reflection and satisfies individual development goals by offering teachers the freedom to rethink their teaching style and experiment with new techniques. Handayani & Fithriani (2024) also added that POT involves colleagues in observing each other in a reciprocal process to improve classroom teaching through self-reflection. Another advantage is that peer observation can enhance the quality of educations by developing teacher professionalism because correlation and input from peers can provide better teaching methods and innovation (Handayani & Fithriani, 2024). Moreover, Grech (2024) claimed that POT acts as a mechanism for enhancing teaching practices, promoting professional growth, and cultivating a culture of continuous improvement which is in line with Richards & Farrell (2005)'s study. Katal et al. (2022) also supported this idea by stating that POT is a beneficial tool for teachers' professional development. The study of Miquel et al. (2024) showed that at the post-observation phase in reciprocal peer observation process, most teachers identify their area for improvement, reflect on it further in the feedback meeting and finally write it down as a learning goal. Thus, peer observation acts as a technique to identify professional learning goals.

Based on the theoretical framework the researcher devised an action plan for implementing peer observation in her college to enhance professional development.

Implementation Plan Of Peer Observation At The Researcher's College

Since the principal as an instructional leader can decide regarding the implementation of POT in his institution, he should initially be informed and convinced about the POT's effectiveness in the college context. To prepare and motivate the teachers about the POT process, a preparatory workshop or in-house training session with a pool of experts can be arranged where the purposes, benefits, and the teachers' responsibilities can be elaborately discussed. Following the preparatory workshop, the implementation of the POT process can be taken in

the respective departments. In this regard, two case studies and literature review findings will guide the implementation of POT in a faculty of the researcher's college.

The effectiveness of peer observation largely depends on how well it is designed, implemented, and embraced by participants. For an effective POT process in a faculty, the following action plan is proposed, and a detailed description is given below:
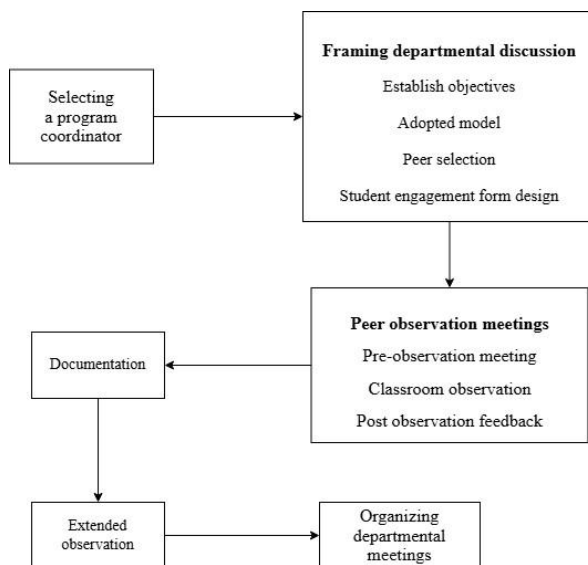
Figure 1: The action plan for implementing peer observation in a faculty

Step-1 Selecting a program coordinator

The college authority will select the department head as a program coordinator to facilitate the POT program among the faculty members. The primary focus of the coordinator will be to supervise the teaching-learning process. The leader will set the agenda for each meeting and organize the participants' specific activities in accordance with Tenenberg's (2016) recommendations. He will also act as a go-between for the department and the administration.

Step-2 Framing departmental discussion

The department will make core decisions regarding basic objectives, form design, peer selection, student engagement, and the adopted model associated with its POT process.

Establish objectives: The basic purposes of POT in the department will be-

i)   to detect expertise and areas for development in teaching
ii)   to learn what teachers and students think about the pedagogical process
iii)   to know about innovative teaching and assessment strategies

Adopted model

The POT process will be based on the peer review model developed by Gosling (2002), in which teachers observe each other's classes, engage in mutual reflection, analyze, and discuss a variety of teaching methods, receive constructive feedback, and get mutual benefit from the experience. In this model any teacher can be the observer for another one. Danko et al. (2016) and Tenenberg (2016) also used the peer review paradigm for promoting academics' reciprocal observation.

Peer selection

POT participation will be voluntary, as recommended by Danko et al. (2016) and Gosling (2002). Educators will be invited to self-select their peers from the same department to reduce anxiety and worry about the process. According to Carroll & O' Loughlin (2014), an effective peer observation strategy is primarily built on peer self-selection, interpersonal support, and teamwork between participants.

Student engagement

Students will participate in the POT process as they are the real stakeholders in the pedagogical process, and they will highlight areas for improvements in teaching and learning as proposed by Danko et al. (2016) and Khan (2019).

Form design

To record information on teaching techniques, observation forms will be designed for both observers- students and teachers. The observation forms will be prepared in accordance with Danko et al. (2016). The observation form for students will include open-ended questions on a variety of observational topics, like the classroom environment, the teaching methods, the inspiring aspects of the lecture, students' interactions, instruction materials, how organized the teacher's explanation was, how well the lecture achieved its goals, student evaluation, and potential future improvements.

The teacher observation form will also focus on the observer's reflections on the teaching being observed and his/her feedback on it while learning from the process through some semi-structured questions. This observation form will include the four parts of observation: the introduction of the lecture, its main points, its finishing activities, and the observer's own views. At the beginning of a lecture, the observee's presentation of the objectives of the lecture and the main ideas of previous lectures will be observed. The central part of the teacher observation form will include various lecture-related topics, such as student engagement, teaching materials, pace of lecture, teaching strategy, etc. In the ending activities, observee's assessment of the taught material and attainment of the lesson's learning outcomes will be observed. In the personal reflection part, the observer will discuss what he or she has learned from the observation and the further actions he/she intends to take to disseminate the experience.

Step-3 Peer observation meetings

Peer observation meetings will be conducted following a three-part structure: pre-observation meeting, classroom observation, and post-observation feedback, according to Danko et al. (2016) and Tenenberg (2016).

The observer and observee will discuss during the pre-observation meeting on the teaching schedule, the timeline for feedback meetings, the learning objectives, the preference of classroom activities like group work, the delivery styles of lectures, the learning materials, or discussions on potential difficulties in the class to gain an optimal advantage, as suggested by Donnelly (2007).

During the observation of teaching, students will be informed about the objectives of observation, though some of them will participate in the observation process and will also be made aware of the observer's presence. We will provide observation forms to both teacher and student observers to record classroom observations with quick writing, as recommended by Montgomery (1999). For adequate evidence, the observer and the observed will be convinced to use video recording, as it provides precise feedback and unambiguous proof (Keig & Waggoner, 1994).

A post-observation meeting will be planned either sooner following the observation session or a day later to facilitate reflection by the teacher observer and observee. A dialogue

model will be followed in which both the teacher observer and the observed will be seen as equal and get mutual benefits from the experience instead of the conventional concepts of 'giver' and 'receiver' (Gosling, 2005). The feedback will acknowledge the observee's efforts, be specific and grounded, and focus on a procedure to implement the teaching techniques where the observee was deficient (Brookhart, 2017).

Step-4 Documentation

The coordinator of the POT process will preserve all submitted observation forms to ensure that every faculty member will go through the POT procedure twice a year, which will reinforce the idea of continuing enhancement in teaching ability. The best performers will be rewarded as recommended by Khan (2019), as it will help boost their performance in a healthy competitive setting.

Step-5 Extended observation

The valuable data gathered on teaching effectiveness and instructional strategies from the observation forms of both students and teachers, will be used to inform institutional decisions related to professional development and curriculum enhancement. After a successful POT implementation, the design will be implemented in other faculties at the researcher's institution, and the observers of the same discipline from other institutions of higher education will also be invited for getting unbiased feedback, as suggested by Tenenberg (2016).

Step-6 Organizing departmental meetings

The department will schedule biannual meetings to reflect individually and collectively on the innovative teaching and assessment strategies of their observed experiences and record their reflections in a personal course portfolio, as recommended by Tenenberg (2016). The report of these meetings should be communicated to the principal by program coordinator. Undoubtedly, these meetings will foster educators' ongoing professional development and the academic excellence of the institution.

The above structure of the POT process convincingly illustrates that the faculty members and the institution as a whole in the researcher's college will get benefit from implementing the POT program. To successfully implement a peer observation program in an institution, the environment must be supportive. The researcher's institution possesses some key strengths that are helpful for effective peer observation implementation. In this college, there is a culture of open and constructive communication where faculty members can feel comfortable discussing teaching practices and giving and receiving feedback. Moreover, it is well-equipped with some experienced and trained academics who received trainings on pedagogy from many local and foreign institutions. They share their insights about modern teaching techniques and teaching tools through workshops, seminars, and in-house trainings. The instructional leader of this college values continuous learning and so, prioritizes professional development and welcomes diverse perspectives and teaching styles. One very important aspect is that teachers have the autonomy to plan their lessons without any interference from outside forces. They enjoy flexibility to handle each of their classes individually. Undoubtedly, these strengths and qualities of this institution can create a conducive environment for the implementation of peer observation and a community of educators committed to continuous improvement.

CHALLENGES OF IMPLEMENTATION

This institution can indeed face several potential challenges while implementing peer observation. Some faculty members might be resistant to the idea of being observed by their peers or changing their teaching methods. As a potential barrier to the POT process, faculty opposition to change was also mentioned by Knight (2002). Some educators might fear that peer observation will be used as a basis for formal evaluation or criticism. Khan (2019) asserts that psychological fear prevents observee from performing naturally, even in formative

evaluation. Richardson (2000) also claims that the fear of being judged, more than the act of being watched, is what makes people uncomfortable about peer observation. Faculty members may perceive peer observation as time-consuming, especially if they have heavy teaching loads. It is possible that observers lack the skills needed to conduct effective peer observations or provide constructive feedback. Peer observation may often lead to biased commentary because of individual differences. Moreover, observers and observees may come to the idea that they should favor one another throughout their respective sessions as their positions are frequently reversed. Carroll & O'Loughlin (2014) also feared that might happen in POT.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Addressing the challenges proactively can help ensure a successful and effective peer observation program. Based on research, some strategies to overcome those challenges are briefly discussed below:

- The benefits of peer observation should be explicitly explained to reluctant faculty members through in-house training, workshops, and seminars. Donnelly (2007) encourages faculty buy-in and adoption for a successful POT program.
- It should be emphasized that peer observation is primarily a formative process aimed at improvement rather than evaluation.
- Constructive comments should be non-judgmental, meticulous, and assisted by lots of proofs and real cases (Peel, 2005).
- It is important to provide training on observation techniques, effective feedback practices, and facilitating productive discussions (Cosh, 1998; Khan, 2019).
- The nervousness and worry of bias can be avoided by establishing mutual trust and collaboration between the participants and inviting external faculty as observers (Khan, 2019).
- The instructional leader should be engaged in the planning process of POT to ensure confidentiality, technical and financial assistance. The study by Ahmed et al. (2018) asserted that the administration should act as a facilitator rather than an evaluator in the POT process.

A peer observation program that benefits both faculty members and the institution can be successfully implemented at the college by addressing these challenges with thoughtful planning, clear communication, and ongoing support.

CONCLUSION

Continuing professional development programs help teachers grow personally and professionally. Peer observation is a popular CPD activity used as a catalyst for change in tertiary classroom instruction and student learning. This paper reviews some scholarly articles and analyzes two case studies by Tenenberg (2016) and Danko et al. (2016) on the effective application of the POT process in their respective institutions, and following their strategies, an implementation plan for the POT process in a faculty of a teacher education college in Bangladesh is provided. As the real assessors and unbiased collaborators in the observation process, students are empowered to address areas for teaching and learning improvement. It is proposed that the department head be chosen as a program coordinator to supervise the teaching-learning process among the faculty members and mediate between the department and institution. The department will decide fundamental issues like the POT process's goals, the design of observation forms, the choice of peers, and the accepted model. The three stages of peer observation meetings will be set up to help the observer and the observed accomplish their objectives. The information obtained from the observation forms will be recorded to ensure that all faculty members participate in the POT procedure biannually. The implementation plan also proposes rewarding top performers, inviting external academics, and holding biennial departmental meetings to share observed experiences.

Moreover, this study has identified some key strengths that are needed for a productive peer observation framework, like collegiality, experienced faculty, teacher autonomy, reciprocal trust, and teamwork. Some possible difficulties are also noted, like reluctant faculty members, the fear of being judged, anxiety, inexperienced observers, and biased criticism. To address these challenges, some strategies are recommended, like organizing internal trainings, workshops, and seminars about POT's goals and observational techniques, providing non-judgmental constructive feedback, and including administration in the POT process. Before it can become a common practice for all faculty, administration must recognize POT as a crucial component in producing top-notch academics and in evaluating the academic performance of the teaching staff and institution. The instructional leader should provide financial support and allocate resources to run the program to help educators grow professionally and collaboratively. In conclusion, this assignment views POT as a chance for both professional and personal development and a process of learning for both the observer and the observed. Thus, peer observation as a crucial instructional tool can lead to improved teaching practices that can meet the ever-changing needs of learners and provide an inclusive learning environment.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

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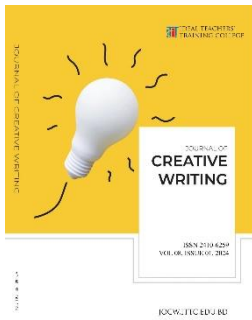
UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS' READINESS TOWARD ENGLISH MEDIUM INSTRUCTION IN HIGHER STUDIES IN BANGLADESH: A COMPARISON OF POSSIBILITIES OF PUBLIC AND PRIVATE UNIVERSITIES' INTERNATIONALIZATION

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ABSTRACT

Assessing students' readiness for English Medium Instruction (EMI) is crucial for understanding the efficacy of EMI as a pathway to internationalization in non-native English-speaking higher education contexts. This study investigates undergraduate students' readiness for EMI in higher education in Bangladesh, compares the preparedness of students of public and private universities. The objective is to assess how readiness—defined by perceived ability, engagement, attitudes toward EMI, and perceived challenges—varies across different academic years and institutional types. Using a cross-sectional correlational design, data were collected from 267 undergraduate students from public and private universities through a structured survey questionnaire. Key variables included perceived ability to succeed in EMI (PASE), attitude towards EMI and internationalization (ATEI), learning engagement of students in EMI (LESE), and perceived challenges of facing EMI (PCFE). Independent samples t-tests, one-way ANOVA, and multiple regression analyses were employed. Results

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showed no significant differences in EMI readiness across the four academic years, meaning that progression in readiness is limited despite increased exposure to EMI. The t-test revealed significant differences only in perceived challenges (PCFE) between public and private universities, with private university students reporting higher challenges. Regression analysis indicated that PASE, ATEI, and PCFE significantly predicted LESE, with ATEI having the strongest impact on learning engagement. These findings suggest that sustained exposure to EMI alone may be insufficient to enhance readiness, especially without institutional language support and resources. Therefore, universities must take care of the strategic goals of internationalization in higher education.

KEYWORDS
English Medium Instruction (EMI), Student Readiness, Internationalization in Higher Education, Learning Engagement, Public vs. Private Universities

INTRODUCTION
The use of English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) has gained prominence in many non-English speaking countries as a response to the increasing demand for global competitiveness and internationalization in higher education. In Bangladesh, the adoption of EMI, particularly in higher education institutions, let the students to prepare for global career opportunities. EMI also improves the international standard of universities. However, the readiness of students to adjust with EMI, especially in terms of language proficiency, learning engagement, and institutional support, remains a critical concern. This study seeks to assess undergraduate students' readiness toward EMI in both public and private universities, and highlights differences in institutional preparedness and the implications for internationalization.

Furthermore, by comparing students in different years (1st through 4th), this study can investigate whether there is indeed a developmental progression in readiness for EMI. English competency is a skill that develops through consistent practice over time. In the context of EMI, as students progress through their academic years, their perceived abilities, attitudes, and engagement improve, while challenges diminish. This logical progression is supported by various language acquisition theories, educational psychology frameworks, and empirical studies on EMI. For example, previous studies have shown that language learning follows a developmental trajectory (Lightbown & Spada, 2006), where learners' abilities improve with time and practice, which supports the rationale for comparing different student groups. Furthermore, such comparisons can provide insights into whether certain groups (e.g., 1st-year students) require additional support to reduce challenges and enhance readiness for EMI.

Despite the growing adoption of EMI in Bangladeshi higher education institutions, there is limited empirical research on students' readiness to engage with this medium of instruction, especially when comparing public and private universities. The varying levels of support and resources available across these institutions may impact students' ability to succeed academically and prepare for future international opportunities. This study aims to bridge this gap by investigating the factors influencing students' readiness, attitudes, and challenges toward EMI, and how these vary between public and private universities.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK
This study posits that English competency is a matter of practice and takes time. This position is supported by many educational empirical studies. All past literature emphasized the importance of continuous exposure and active practice in language acquisition. All of the following concepts restrengthen the conceptual framework of this study.

ENGLISH COMPETENCY AND PRACTICE

According to Krashen's Input Hypothesis (1985), second language acquisition occurs when learners are exposed to comprehensible input slightly beyond their current proficiency level. This input needs to be understood through contextual clues, and over time, this leads to internalizing language structures. This means that regular and consistent use of English in an academic setting, such as English Medium Instruction (EMI), facilitates gradual language acquisition through practice.

Similarly, Vygotsky's Social Development Theory (1978) also highlights the role of interaction in learning. Learners acquire language skills through social interactions, especially in environments where the target language (English) is regularly used for instruction and communication.

PROGRESSION OF SKILLS OVER ACADEMIC YEARS

As students move through their academic years, their exposure to English in EMI classes increases. Cummins (2000) finds difference between Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP). His thought suggests that academic language proficiency, which is required for understanding complex lectures and texts in EMI, develops over time with deliberate and continuous academic engagement. For example, in their first year, learners may rely more on BICS, but by the fourth year, they are expected to have developed CALP. This advancement of English enables the learners to understand complex academic content delivered in English.

Furthermore, the Language Learning Theory (Ellis, 1997) supports this idea too. According to him, language learning is a gradual process that benefits from exposure, practice, and feedback over time. Thus, in the context of EMI, learners' language skills improve progressively as they receive more exposure to the academic use of English throughout their program. Both thoughts are connected to the second hypothesis of this study.

ATTITUDE TOWARD EMI AND INTERNATIONALIZATION

Learners' attitudes toward EMI and internationalization improve over time as they become more comfortable with using English in academic settings. Dörnyei's Motivation Theory (2001) points out that motivation is a crucial factor in language learning. As learners progress through their university years, they often see the practical benefits of EMI, such as better preparation for global job markets. Therefore, their attitudes toward EMI should be enhanced.

LEARNING ENGAGEMENT IN EMI CLASSES

Engagement in learning tends to increase as students progress through their academic program too. They become more confident in their language abilities and adjust to the expectations of EMI. Schaufeli and Bakker's (2004) work on learning engagement describes engagement as consisting of dedication in academic work. As engagement increases, students are more likely to participate actively in discussions, complete assignments with greater effort, and feel a sense of achievement.

CHALLENGES TO EMI OVER TIME

The Affective Filter Hypothesis (Krashen, 1985) posits that learners' affective states—such as anxiety and self-confidence—can impact language acquisition. Early in their academic journey, students may face significant challenges including understanding course materials and engaging in discussions. However, over time, as their confidence and competence in English improve, these challenges are likely to decrease as their proficiency and comfort level with the language increase. Research on EMI in non-English speaking countries (Hamid et al., 2013) has shown that students who persist in EMI environments experience a gradual reduction in perceived challenges or gradual increase in perceived resilience.

VARIABLES OF STUDY

Based on the conceptual framework, this study has two types of variables. Independent variables are year of study and type of university, learners' perceived ability and skill of attending classes with EMI, attitude toward EMI, perceived challenges. In contrast, dependent variables are learning engagement, and institutional readiness. Learning engagement directly assesses readiness because they capture how students feel engaged in daily classes. Besides, institutional readiness is measured by perceived institutional comparison.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Based on the conceptual framework, this study answers the following research questions:

1. How does students' readiness for EMI differ between public and private university students?
2. What are the differences in students' readiness for English Medium Instruction (EMI) across different years of study (1st, 2nd, 3rd, and 4th year)?
3. What are the determinants of learning engagement in EMI among students, and how do perceived ability, attitude, and perceived challenges influence it?

These research questions collectively investigates the drivers of readiness based on the data of perceived skills, attitudes, and challenges to actual engagement. This can also help to identify which factors are most important for promoting successful adaptation to EMI.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The shift to EMI in non-native English-speaking countries, particularly in Asia, has been widely discussed in the context of internationalization and its implications for student learning outcomes. Studies suggest that EMI improves students' employability in the global market and enhances the international reputation of universities (Dearden, 2014). However, many students face challenges due to insufficient English language proficiency, lack of institutional support, and inadequate faculty training (Aguilar, 2017). In Bangladesh, research on EMI is still in its infancy. Few studies compares the readiness of students from public and private universities. Private universities, often perceived as more internationally oriented, may offer more robust support systems for EMI, while public universities face challenges such as resource limitations and resistance to change (Hamid et al., 2013).

EMI AS AN INDICATOR OF INTERNATIONALIZATION

The adoption of English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) is considered as a key indicator of internationalization in higher education. EMI not only aims to enhance students' English language proficiency but also prepares them for global academic and career opportunities (Dearden, 2014). Many universities of non-native English-speaking countries have implemented EMI as part of their strategy to increase competitiveness on the global stage and attract international students (Aguilar, 2017). To position universities as potential players in the international education market introducing EMI inside and outside university's classroom is important (Hamid et al., 2013).

Research has shown that EMI creates such educational environment that is conducive to internationalization such as exposing students to a globalized curriculum and enhancing their intercultural competencies (Aguilar, 2017). Private universities in Bangladesh are often viewed as more internationally oriented. These have embraced EMI to attract both domestic and international students, as well as to improve graduates' employability in the global market (Hamid et al., 2013). However, this shift also presents challenges, as many students may lack adequate language skills to thrive in an EMI environment. Consequently, the success of EMI as an internationalization strategy is often contingent on institutional support, such as language resources and faculty training, which vary widely between public and private institutions (De Wit, 2013).

Moreover, the introduction of EMI as an internationalization tool is associated with the perceived benefits of better preparing students for participation in international collaborations and career opportunities. The shift to EMI is therefore not only a pedagogical decision but a strategic one aimed at positioning institutions in a globalized educational landscape (Dearden, 2014).

READINESS TOWARD EMI

Readiness for English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) encompasses not only linguistic proficiency but also the psychological and behavioral readiness of students to engage with an English-based academic environment. Readiness in this context is multidimensional, incorporating language skills, motivational attitudes, and the ability to navigate challenges, all of which are essential to succeed in EMI settings (Dörnyei, 2001; Schunk et al., 2014). The following variables are critical in measuring students' readiness for EMI:

PERCEIVED ABILITY AND SKILL

Perceived ability in EMI reflects students' confidence in their linguistic capacity to function in an English-medium learning environment. This construct captures students' linguistic readiness, which includes their ability to understand lectures, engage in class discussions, and complete assignments in English. Research has highlighted that language proficiency is a fundamental aspect of success in EMI, as it directly impacts comprehension and academic performance (Macaro et al., 2018). High levels of perceived ability and language skills contribute to a student's academic self-efficacy, or belief in their capacity to succeed in specific tasks, which in turn fosters resilience and persistence in EMI (Bandura, 1997; Cummins, 2000).

ATTITUDES TOWARD EMI AND INTERNATIONALIZATION

Students' attitudes toward EMI and internationalization play a key role in their readiness. Positive attitudes foster motivation and a willingness to engage with the challenges associated with studying in a second language, ultimately enhancing readiness (Dörnyei, 2001). In the context of EMI, students who recognize the benefits of English for future career prospects and global engagement are often more receptive to EMI (Dearden, 2014). Furthermore, attitudes toward internationalization are closely linked to the global orientation of educational institutions, where students perceive EMI as a gateway to global opportunities and cross-cultural competence (Aguilar & Rodríguez, 2012). These attitudes support students in overcoming the psychological barriers associated with EMI and encourage them to engage actively in the learning process.

LEARNING ENGAGEMENT

Learning engagement is indicative of how effectively students participate in their studies and is often viewed as an outcome of readiness. High engagement levels imply that students are coping well with EMI, demonstrating focus, motivation, and a willingness to exert effort in their studies (Gray & Diloreto, 2016). Engagement, according to Schaufeli and Bakker (2004), includes vigor, dedication, and absorption in academic tasks, all of which contribute to a student's persistence in navigating the demands of EMI. Therefore, if a student is highly engaged, it suggests they are not only prepared linguistically but are also psychologically ready to succeed in an EMI environment. Some researchers suggest that learning engagement could serve as a proxy for readiness itself, indicating that readiness involves both the active use of language skills and a proactive approach to learning (Schunk et al., 2014).

PERCEIVED CHALLENGES

Perceived challenges serve as indirect indicators of readiness, reflecting potential obstacles that students need to overcome in adapting to EMI. These challenges can include difficulties

in understanding course content, limited institutional support, and the psychological strain of transitioning to English-based learning (Aguilar, 2017; Hamid et al., 2013). Students facing fewer challenges generally show greater readiness to adapt to EMI, as they demonstrate a higher comfort level in managing academic tasks in English. Conversely, students who perceive more challenges may experience lower readiness, as these obstacles can hinder their academic performance and engagement (Krashen, 1985).

LEARNING ENGAGEMENT AS A MEASURE OF READINESS TO EMI

Learning engagement is often seen as a direct measure of readiness for EMI, as active engagement implies that students can meet the academic demands of an EMI setting. However, perceived ability and skill also provide valuable insights into readiness, as they capture students' confidence in their language proficiency and academic capabilities (Macaro et al., 2018). Therefore, readiness can be understood as a combination of both learning engagement and perceived ability, where students who feel linguistically prepared and are actively engaged demonstrate the highest levels of readiness for EMI.

HYPOTHESIS OF STUDY

H_{01}: There is no significant difference in students' readiness for EMI between public and private university students.

H_{02}: There is no significant difference in students' readiness for EMI across different years of study (1st, 2nd, 3rd, and 4th year).

H_{O3}: None of the Perceived ability, attitude, and perceived challenges do not significantly influence learning engagement in EMI among students.

METHODOLOGY

DESIGN

This will be a cross-sectional correlational design with multiple regression analysis. This study ultimately uses a quantitative approach. The study collected data from four groups of undergraduate students (1st, 2nd, 3rd, and 4th years) across public and private universities in Bangladesh. Here cross-sectional refers to collecting data at a single point in time from different participants (e.g., students in different years and from public/private universities). This design helps researchers compare groups and examine relationships at a specific moment by means of correlation and multiple regression analysis. Correlational implies investigating the relationships between variables (e.g., how perceived ability, attitudes, and challenges relate to learning engagement or readiness for EMI). Multiple regression analysis is the statistical technique used to examine the relationships between multiple independent variables (e.g., perceived ability, attitude, and challenges) and a dependent variable (e.g., learning engagement or readiness).

Thus, the research design of this study is cross-sectional correlational study with the use of multiple regression analysis to identify the predictive power of various independent variables.

PARTICIPANTS

267 Undergraduate students from some selected public and private universities of Dhaka, across all four academic years, have been participated in the survey. The participants studied in various academic departments such as Computer Science and Engineering (CSE), English Language and Literature, Textile Engineering, Business Administration, Telecommunication Engineering (ETE), Islamic Studies, Environmental and Natural Sciences, Pharmacy, Social Sciences, Mathematics. Besides some academic departments are not available in private universities therefore, few participants from public universities filled the survey questionnaire

from History, Education, Medicine, Philosophy, Bangla, Japanese Language and Culture, Mass Communication & Journalism, Management Information Systems (MIS), and Physics.

SAMPLING PROCEDURE

In this study stratified random sampling would be appropriate to ensure that each group of students (by year and university type) is adequately represented. The topic of EMI involves personal perceptions of one's own language abilities. Questions on EMI can evoke feelings of inadequacy or embarrassment. Participants may fear that their responses could reflect poorly on their academic abilities or their opinions about the institution's policies. Online anonymous methods minimize this concern. Therefore, when participants are reluctant to answer survey questions, especially on sensitive or complex topics such as the learners' perceptions and abilities regarding EMI, online anonymous surveys are often considered the most appropriate method. In Bangladesh ability and competence in EMI is considered as social desire, so in overcoming response hesitancy, this approach is effective because. Studies have shown that when participants are guaranteed anonymity, they are more likely to provide honest and accurate responses, particularly on sensitive topics like perceptions of personal abilities, attitudes, or controversial educational practices. The anonymity reduces social desirability bias, where respondents might otherwise answer in a way they believe is expected or acceptable.

A meta-analysis by Joinson (1999) highlighted that anonymity in surveys increases the likelihood of truthful responses and decreases the fear of judgment. This is particularly relevant when discussing topics like EMI, where students may fear that their true perceptions could affect their academic standing or be seen as critical of the institution. Similarly Online Surveys Are Convenient and Reduce Pressure to some extent. In this method of conducting survey, participants can take online surveys in their own time and in a comfortable environment, which reduces the pressure associated with in-person interviews or paper surveys. This is especially important when respondents are hesitant to participate due to the nature of the subject.

Despite the limitations of online survey, Dillman et al. (2014), Tourangeau and Yan (2007) in their work on survey methods argue that online surveys offer flexibility, reduce social interaction pressures, and are useful in cases of social stigma or self-assessment where respondents are hesitant to express their opinions. Research shows that for sensitive or controversial topics, online anonymous methods are often the most appropriate as they allow respondents to avoid potential embarrassment or discomfort.

Besides, personal perceptions (such as language ability in EMI) are more accurately captured using anonymous online surveys, as respondents are less influenced by social desirability and more willing to express their true thoughts (Singer and Couper 2017, Groves et al. 2009)

When participants are unwilling or hesitant to engage with certain survey questions, anonymity can help reduce non-response bias. This engagement led the researchers to collect more comprehensive data. Non-response bias occurs when certain groups (e.g., those less confident in EMI) do not respond. Nonresponse thus skew the results.

MEASURE

The structured survey questionnaire employed in this study utilized constructs based on the Knowledge, Attitude, and Practice (KAP) model, commonly used in research to assess individuals' awareness, attitudes, and behaviors toward a particular subject (Launiala, 2009). Specifically, the questionnaire comprised five key sections: Perceived Ability and Skill in EMI, Attitudes toward EMI and Internationalization, Learning Engagement, Perceived

Challenges, and Institutional Comparison, each measured using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree). The inclusion of KAP constructs allowed for a comprehensive evaluation of students' readiness for EMI by capturing their perceived linguistic abilities, attitudes toward the adoption of EMI, engagement in academic activities, and challenges faced in the EMI environment. This framework aligns with prior research that emphasizes the role of knowledge, attitude, and practices in shaping behavior and adaptation in academic contexts (Launiala, 2009). All constructs were measured using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree). The survey consisted of multiple sections addressing key aspects of students' readiness for English Medium Instruction (EMI), including perceived ability, attitudes, learning engagement, and perceived challenges.

Perceived Ability to Succeed in EMI (PASE)
This construct directly measures students' confidence and capacity to participate in EMI, focusing on their linguistic readiness. It assesses how well students believe they can understand lectures, engage in classroom discussions, and complete academic tasks in English. Sample items include 'I feel confident using English in my academic studies.', 'I can read academic texts in English effectively.', 'I am able to write assignments and exams in English without significant problems.,

Attitudes Toward EMI and Internationalization (ATEI)
Attitudes toward EMI capture students' willingness to adopt English as the medium of instruction and its perceived importance for their future international career prospects. While not directly related to language proficiency, these items reflect the psychological readiness and motivation that contribute to successful adaptation to EMI. Sample items include 'I believe that English should be the primary medium of instruction in Bangladeshi universities.', 'EMI will prepare me better for future international career opportunities.', 'I prefer English over Bengali as the medium of instruction in higher studies.'

Learning Engagement of Students in EMI (LESE)
Learning engagement reflects how actively students participate in their studies under EMI. Higher engagement suggests that students are coping well and are ready to learn in an EMI environment. This construct is considered an outcome of readiness, as it indicates how effectively students engage with their academic work. Sample items include 'I am fully concentrated and focused when studying.', 'I put a lot of effort into my studies, even when things are difficult.', 'I approach my studies with enthusiasm.'

Perceived Challenges of Facing EMI (PCFE)
Perceived challenges reflect the barriers students face in adapting to EMI. These challenges include linguistic difficulties, inadequate institutional support, and the transition from Bengali to English. Lower perceived challenges suggest greater readiness for EMI. Sample items include 'I sometimes struggle with understanding course content in English.', 'I find the transition from Bengali to English in higher studies challenging.', 'I believe that faculty members need more training to effectively teach in English.'

DATA ANALYSIS
First, to analyze the general trends in readiness researchers conducted descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviation). They conduct an independent samples t-test to compare readiness between public and private university students. They then used ANOVA to compare readiness between the different year groups. To justify how the variables in the questionnaire can measure Readiness toward English Medium Instruction (EMI) in higher studies, researchers needed to establish the relationship between the constructs they have included and the concept of readiness. Therefore, they performed regression analysis to examine the variance explained

the independent variables such as Attitudes toward EMI and Internationalization, Learning Engagement in EMI, Perceived Challenges in EMI

RESULTS

DESCRIPTIVES

Based on the descriptive statistics output from SPSS Out of the 267 respondents, 74.9% (n = 200) are from private universities, while 25.1% (n = 67) are from public universities. The majority of respondents are male (69.3%, n = 185), with females making up 30.7% (n = 82). The average age of the respondents is 22.98 years with a standard deviation of 2.82 years. The age distribution shows a wide range of participants, predominantly between the ages of 18 and 26. The largest age group is 22 years old (18%, n = 48), followed by 21 years old (15.7%, n = 42).

In terms of current study program, a large portion of the sample is pursuing an undergraduate (UG) program, with 88.4% (n = 236) enrolled in UG programs. A smaller percentage of 8.2% (n = 22) are pursuing postgraduate (PG) studies. While a wide variety of majors are represented in the sample. The largest group of students are studying English (16.9%, n = 45), followed by those in Computer Science and Engineering (CSE) and related fields such as ETE (4.1%, n = 11). Other notable majors include Textile Engineering (8.2%, n = 22) and Marketing (various percentages across several cases). The respondents are distributed across different academic years. Such as first-year students make up 44.6% (n = 119) of the sample, second-year students account for 30.7% (n = 82), third-year students constitute 16.5% (n = 44), and fourth-year students comprise 8.2% (n = 22).

The majority of participants come from private universities, and the sample is predominantly male. Most students are in their early 20s, with a significant portion in their first and second years of study. The distribution of study programs highlights a strong representation from undergraduate students, particularly in fields like English, Computer Science and Engineering (CSE), and Textile Engineering.

This distribution of respondents will be helpful in analyzing how readiness for English Medium Instruction (EMI) and attitudes toward internationalization vary across different demographic groups, academic majors, and years of study.

RELIABILITY OF THE CONSTRUCTS

The results of the scale reliability analysis based on Cronbach's alpha for different sections of the questionnaire are found satisfactory. Details are as follows:

Firstly, perceived ability to succeed in EMI has Cronbach's Alpha of 0.847 (N= 7). This reliability score indicates good internal consistency, suggesting that the items measuring students' perceived ability and skill in EMI are reliable.

Attitudes toward EMI and internationalization has the Cronbach's Alpha of 0.873 (N= 8). This alpha value shows high reliability, and indicates that the items measuring students' attitudes toward EMI and internationalization are consistent in capturing the construct.

Learning engagement in EMI has Cronbach's Alpha of 0.882 (N= 8). The reliability coefficient here indicates excellent internal consistency for the items measuring learning engagement. Therefore, this scale is highly reliable.

Perceived challenges in EMI has Cronbach's Alpha of 0.747 (N= 5). This value reflects acceptable reliability, suggesting that the items related to perceived challenges in EMI provide a moderately consistent measurement.

These reliability scores indicate that the scales used in the survey have a good level of internal consistency, and it is appropriate to proceed for further data analysis.

RESULT OF INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T TEST
In this study, first research question was How does students' readiness for EMI differ between public and private university students. An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the readiness scores for EMI between public and private university students across several factors.

PASE (Perceived Ability to Succeed in EMI)
There was no significant difference in the scores for public universities (M = 3.70, SD = 0.65) and private universities (M = 3.83, SD = 0.66); t(265) = -1.453, p = .147.

ATEI (Attitude Towards EMI and Internationalization)
No significant difference was found between public universities (M = 3.87, SD = 0.53) and private universities (M = 3.94, SD = 0.66); t(265) = -0.776, p = .438.

LESE (Learning Engagement of Students in EMI)
Similarly, no significant difference was observed between public universities (M = 3.86, SD = 0.53) and private universities (M = 3.95, SD = 0.64); t(265) = -1.051, p = .294.

PCFE (Perceived Challenges of Facing EMI)
However, there was a significant difference in scores between public universities (M = 3.82, SD = 0.49) and private universities (M = 3.56, SD = 0.72); t(265) = 2.764, p = .006.

The findings suggest that while public and private university students show no significant difference in terms of perceived ability, engagement, and learning engagement in EMI, there are significant differences in their perception of challenges, with public university students perceiving fewer challenges than their private university counterparts.

Effect Size based on T-Test
The effect size provides a measure of the magnitude of the differences observed between public and private university students in terms of their readiness for English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) and Internationalization. Cohen's d is used to report the effect sizes for the independent samples t-test, allowing for a clearer understanding of the practical significance of the findings.

For PASE (Perceived Ability to Succeed in EMI), the effect size is small (Cohen's d = -0.205), indicating that while there is a difference between public and private university students, the magnitude of this difference is minimal. Similarly, for ATEI (Attitude Towards EMI and Internationalization), the effect size is small (Cohen's d = -0.110), suggesting that the difference in engagement between the two groups is also negligible.

The effect size for LESE (Learning Engagement of Students in EMI) is small as well (Cohen's d = -0.148), reflecting a minor difference in learning engagement between public and private university students. In contrast, PCFE (Perceived Challenges of Facing EMI) presents a larger effect size (Cohen's d = 0.390), indicating a more notable difference in how public and private university students perceive the challenges of EMI.

These effect sizes suggest that while statistical differences between public and private university students exist in terms of their readiness for EMI, the practical implications of these differences are relatively small, with the exception of the perceived challenges, where the difference is more obvioius.

RESULT OF ONE WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE (ANOVA)
Second research question was what the differences in students' readiness for EMI across different years of study (1st, 2nd, 3rd, and 4th year) are. To answer this question, a one-way

ANOVA was conducted to examine differences in students' readiness for English Medium Instruction (EMI) across four academic years (1st, 2nd, 3rd, and 4th year) based on four key variables: PASE, ATEI, LESE, and PCFE.

Homogeneity of Variances

Levene's test indicated that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was not violated for any of the four variables. In the SPSS output, Levene's test produced p-values greater than 0.05 for all the variables: PASE p = .442, ATEI p = .786, LESE p = .592, PCFE p = .389

Descriptive Statistics

Table 1 shows the means and standard deviations for the four variables across different years of study. PASE (Perceived Ability to Succeed in EMI) showed a slight increase from 1st year (M = 3.74, SD = 0.69) to 3rd year (M = 3.94, SD = 0.55), but a decrease in the 4th year (M = 3.56, SD = 0.81). ATEI (Attitude Towards EMI and Internationalization) was relatively stable in the 1st and 2nd years (M = 3.93, SD = 0.66; M = 3.91, SD = 0.63), peaked in the 3rd year (M = 4.02, SD = 0.48), and decreased in the 4th year (M = 3.68, SD = 0.66). LESE (Learning Engagement of Students in EMI) remained relatively consistent across all years, with the highest mean in the 2nd year (M = 3.98, SD = 0.52) and slightly lower in the 1st and 4th years (M = 3.88, SD = 0.67; M = 3.90, SD = 0.79). PCFE (Perceived Challenges of Facing EMI) varied slightly across years, with the 4th year showing the highest mean (M = 3.72, SD = 0.78) and the 1st year having the lowest (M = 3.58, SD = 0.72).

Table 1: Descriptive of 4 groups of Learners based on Academic Year

		N	Mean	SD	SE
PASE	First Year	119	3.7431	.69029	.06328
	Second Year	82	3.8589	.60796	.06714
	Third Year	44	3.9383	.54629	.08236
	Fourth Year	22	3.5649	.81110	.17293
	Total	267	3.7961	.65905	.04033
ATEI	First Year	119	3.9349	.66281	.06076
	Second Year	82	3.9055	.62687	.06923
	Third Year	44	4.0199	.47993	.07235
	Fourth Year	22	3.6818	.65775	.14023
	Total	267	3.9190	.62645	.03834
LESE	First Year	119	3.8803	.66849	.06128
	Second Year	82	3.9771	.52157	.05760
	Third Year	44	3.9602	.52949	.07982
	Fourth Year	22	3.8977	.79023	.16848
	Total	267	3.9246	.61457	.03761
PCFE	First Year	119	3.5798	.71658	.06569
	Second Year	82	3.6561	.58818	.06495

		N	Mean	SD	SE
	Third Year	44	3.6273	.68416	.10314
	Fourth Year	22	3.7182	.77744	.16575
	Total	267	3.6225	.67708	.04144

ANOVA Results

The ANOVA table from the analysis provides statistical information about the differences in students' readiness for EMI across the four years of study. Table 2 is a summary of the ANOVA table results. Table 2 includes only 'Between Groups' row of the SPSS output, because it tells the researchers whether there are statistically significant differences in readiness for EMI across the years of study (the groups). In contrast, the 'Within Groups' row of the SPSS output provides background information about the individual variability within each group. However, the focus of the interpretation is whether the 'Between Groups' variation is large enough to be significant (Pallant, 2020).

Table 2: ANOVA Table

Variables	F	Sig.
PASE	2.116	.099
ATEI	1.478	.221
LESE	.467	.706
PCFE	.369	.775

Table 2 shows PASE (Perceived Ability to Succeed in EMI) has $F(3, 263) = 2.116$, p = .099. This indicates that there is no statistically significant difference in PASE across the four years of study, as the p-value is greater than 0.05. Secondly, ATEI (Attitude Towards EMI and Internatinalization) scored $F(3, 263) = 1.478$, p = .221. The ANOVA test shows no significant difference in ATEI scores across the years, with the p-value above 0.05. Thirdly, LESE (Learning Engagement of Students in EMI) has $F(3, 263) = 0.467$, p = .706 which means the test reveals no significant difference in LESE scores across the years of study, as indicated by a high p-value (greater than 0.05). Lastly, PCFE (Perceived Challenges of Facing EMI) has $F(3, 263) = 0.369$, p = .775. The last one has also no significant difference in PCFE scores across the four years, with a p-value much greater than 0.05.

All comparisons, of ANOVA table indicate that none of the variables (PASE, ATEI, LESE, or PCFE) show statistically significant differences across the 1st, 2nd, 3rd, and 4th years of study. All p-values are above the 0.05 threshold, meaning that the variation in readiness for EMI across the different academic years is not statistically significant.

Effect Size based on ANOVA

The effect sizes for the ANOVA analysis, measured by Eta-squared (η^2), indicate the proportion of total variance in each variable explained by differences between the academic years of study. In this case, the effect sizes for all variables—PASE, ATEI, LESE, and PCFE—are small.

PASE: $\eta^2 = 0.024$, which is considered a small effect size, suggesting that only 2.4% of the variance in perceived ability to succeed in EMI can be attributed to differences across years. ATEI: $\eta^2 = 0.017$, also a small effect size, indicating that 1.7% of the variance in engagement towards English instruction is explained by the year of study. LESE: $\eta^2 = 0.005$, a minimal effect size, showing that only 0.5% of the variance in learning engagement in English studies is due to differences between the years. PCFE: $\eta^2 = 0.004$, a small effect size, meaning that 0.4% of the variance in perception of challenges facing EMI is associated with academic year differences.

These small effect sizes suggest that differences in students' readiness for EMI across the various years of study are minimal, with each variable showing only a small proportion of variance explained by academic year. This indicates that readiness for EMI is relatively consistent across students in different years (Cohen, 1988).

Post-Hoc Comparisons (Tukey HSD)

The post hoc test (Tukey's HSD) was conducted to identify specific pairwise differences between the years of study for the four variables: PASE, ATEI, LESE, and PCFE. However, the results of the post hoc comparisons indicate that no significant differences were found between any pair of academic years for any of the variables.

PASE

No significant pairwise differences were observed between the 1st, 2nd, 3rd, and 4th years. For instance: The difference between 1st year (M = 3.74) and 2nd year (M = 3.86) was not significant (p = .607). The difference between 1st year and 4th year (M = 3.56) also failed to reach significance (p = .607). This suggests that students across different years have similar levels of perceived ability to succeed in EMI.

ATEI

While there were slight differences in mean scores, no pairwise comparisons were statistically significant. The comparison between 1st year (M = 3.93) and 3rd year (M = 4.02) had a p-value of .883, indicating no significant difference. Similarly, the difference between 4th year (M = 3.68) and 3rd year (M = 4.02) was not significant (p = .980). These results indicate that students' engagement with English instruction remains consistent across all years.

LESE

The post hoc tests also showed no significant pairwise differences for LESE. The difference between 1st year (M = 3.88) and 2nd year (M = 3.98) was not significant (p = .693). The comparison between 3rd year (M = 3.96) and 4th year (M = 3.90) was also insignificant (p = .867). This suggests that students' learning engagement in English studies is relatively stable across different academic years.

PCFE

No significant differences were observed between years for PCFE. The comparison between 1st year (M = 3.58) and 2nd year (M = 3.66) yielded a p-value of .863, indicating no significant difference. Similarly, the difference between 3rd year (M = 3.63) and 4th year (M = 3.72) was not significant (p = .980). This suggests that the perception of challenges faced in EMI is consistent across different academic years.

The post hoc tests (Tukey HSD) revealed no significant pairwise differences between the years of study for any of the variables (PASE, ATEI, LESE, and PCFE). This further supports the conclusion from the ANOVA that students' readiness for EMI does not differ significantly based on their year of study. Despite some slight variations in means, these differences are not large enough to be statistically meaningful.

To sum up, the above all ANOVA results suggest that there are no statistically significant differences in students' readiness for EMI (measured by PASE, ATEI, LESE, and

PCFE) across 1st, 2nd, 3rd, and 4th-year students. While some slight variations in mean scores exist, they are not large enough to be statistically significant, and the effect sizes indicate that the differences are small.

RESULT OF MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Thirdly, the research question was what the determinants of learning engagement in EMI among students are, and how do the perceived ability, attitude, and perceived challenges influence it. A multiple regression analysis was conducted to examine the effect of PASE, ATEI, and PCFE on LESE.

Fulfillment of Assumptions

The scatterplot of standardized residuals versus standardized predicted values showed a random pattern, indicating that the assumption of linearity was met (Figure 1). The normal probability plot (P-P plot) of standardized residuals showed points falling close to the diagonal line, suggesting that the residuals are approximately normally distributed. The scatterplot also showed no clear pattern, indicating that the assumption of homoscedasticity was not violated too. Collinearity diagnostics showed acceptable variance inflation factors (VIFs) below 10 (PASE = 1.775, ATEI = 1.928, PCFE = 1.127), indicating no multicollinearity issues.
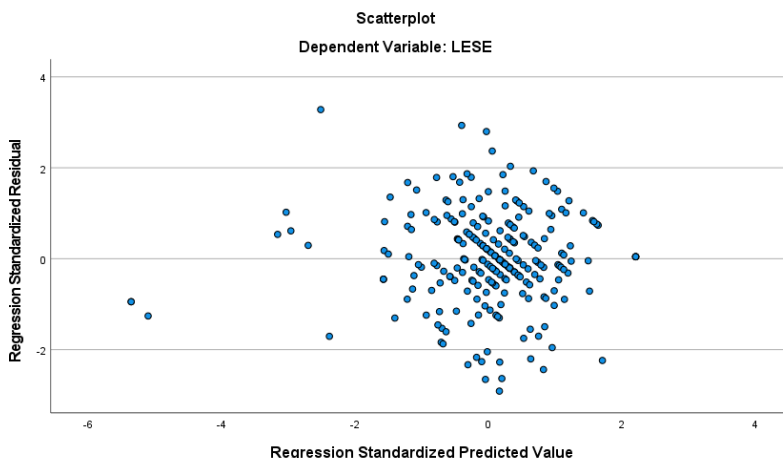
Figure 1: Scatterplot

Model Summary

In the regression model, dependent variable was LESE (Learning Engagement of Students in EMI) and independent variables were PASE (Perceived Ability to Succeed in EMI), ATEI (Attitude Towards EMI and Internationalization), PCFE (Perceived Challenges of Facing EMI).

The regression model explained 60.5% of the variance in LESE (R^2 = .605, Adjusted R^2 = .600), which indicates that the model has a strong predictive power.

The F-test was significant ($F(3, 263)$ = 134.244, $p < .001$), suggesting that the model significantly predicts the outcome variable.

ANOVA Table

The ANOVA results demonstrated that the regression model was statistically significant ($p < .001$), confirming that at least one of the independent variables significantly predicts LESE.

Coefficients

Table 3 shows main results of the regression analysis. PASE has a significant positive impact on LESE, indicating that a higher perceived ability to succeed in EMI is associated with higher learning engagement (B = 0.246, SE = 0.048, β = 0.264, t = 5.119, p < .001). ATEI has the strongest positive effect on LESE, suggesting that greater engagement towards English instruction significantly increases learning engagement (B = 0.487, SE = 0.053, β = 0.496, t = 9.226, p < .001). PCFE also has a significant positive impact on LESE, meaning that a higher perception of challenges in EMI is linked with increased learning engagement (B = 0.170, SE = 0.037, β = 0.188, t = 4.561, p < .001).

Table 3: Coefficients

Model	Unstandardized		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	Partial	Part
	B	SE	Beta				
(Constant)	.463	.181		2.561	.011		
PASE	.246	.048	.264	5.119	.000	.301	.198
ATEI	.487	.053	.496	9.226	.000	.494	.358
PCFE	.170	.037	.188	4.561	.000	.271	.177

The regression equation for predicting LESE based on PASE, ATEI, and PCFE is

$$\text{LESE} = \text{Constant} + (B_{\text{PASE}} \times \text{PASE}) + (B_{\text{ATEI}} \times \text{ATEI}) + (B_{\text{PCFE}} \times \text{PCFE}$$

Substituting the coefficients from the regression analysis

$$\text{LESE} = 0.463 + (0.246 \times \text{PASE}) + (0.487 \times \text{ATEI}) + (0.170 \times \text{PCFE})$$

This equation indicates that for every one-unit increase in PASE, LESE is expected to increase by 0.246 units, holding the other variables constant. Similarly, for every one-unit increase in ATEI, LESE is expected to increase by 0.487 units, holding the other variables constant. Lastly, for every one-unit increase in PCFE, LESE is expected to increase by 0.170 units, holding the other variables constant. This equation helps predict learning engagement based on perceived ability, engagement toward English instruction, and perception of challenges in EMI.

Residual Statistics

The standardized residuals ranged from -2.911 to 3.281, and no significant outliers were detected based on the residual statistics.

        To sum, the regression analysis shows that all three independent variables—PASE, ATEI, and PCFE—significantly predict learning engagement (LESE). The model accounts for a substantial portion of the variance in LESE, with ATEI being the most influential predictor.

DISCUSSION

The findings of this study revealed no statistically significant differences in students' readiness for English Medium Instruction (EMI) across the different years of study, from 1st to 4th year. This outcome was observed in key variables, including PASE, ATEI, LESE, and PCFE. The lack of significant progression in these variables suggests that increased time spent in an EMI environment does not necessarily lead to improved language proficiency or

readiness for EMI. According to Cummins (2000), language proficiency, especially in academic settings, develops over time through sustained and deliberate practice. However, this progression may require structured support, including dedicated language development resources, which appear limited across the surveyed institutions, particularly in public universities in Bangladesh (Hamid et al., 2013).

The comparison between public and private university students showed no significant difference in PASE, ATEI, and LESE but a significant difference in PCFE, with public university students perceiving fewer challenges. This aligns with the notion that private universities in Bangladesh often adopt EMI as part of their internationalization strategies, which can result in additional challenges due to increased expectations for English proficiency and adaptation (Aguilar, 2017; Hamid et al., 2013). Private universities may emphasize EMI to align with international standards, but without adequate language support, students may feel overwhelmed, impacting their perception of challenges (Dearden, 2014).

In the regression analysis, LESE was the dependent variable, with PASE, ATEI, and PCFE serving as independent variables. All three variables significantly predicted LESE, with ATEI having the strongest positive effect, suggesting that students who have positive attitude toward EMI and Internationalization are more likely to actively participate in their academic activities. This outcome aligns with Schaufeli and Bakker's (2004) work on engagement, which emphasizes the importance of attitude and motivation. The positive effect of PASE on LESE also highlights the role of self-efficacy in learning engagement, supporting Bandura's (1997) concept that confidence in one's abilities drives greater persistence and engagement. Additionally, the positive relationship between PCFE and LESE may indicate that students who face and overcome challenges develop resilience, ultimately enhancing engagement (Dörnyei, 2001).

CONCLUSION

Based on the conceptual framework and findings, it can be concluded that readiness for EMI among Bangladeshi undergraduate students remains consistent across different years of study, indicating a lack of cumulative improvement in English proficiency and engagement as students progress. This may be attributed to insufficient institutional support for language development, which is essential for gradual skill acquisition (Krashen, 1985; Vygotsky, 1978). Additionally, while private universities are more internationally oriented and emphasize EMI, the lack of tailored support services may hinder students' adaptation to EMI, resulting in greater perceived challenges compared to their public university counterparts (Hamid et al., 2013).

The significant predictors of learning engagement, particularly ATEI, suggest that encouraging a supportive and engaging academic environment is an important factor to student success in EMI settings. Institutions aiming to enhance student readiness for EMI should focus on creating comprehensive support systems that improve students' linguistic confidence and learning engagement. This study contributes to the understanding of EMI readiness in non-native English-speaking contexts and underscores the need for targeted interventions to ensure that EMI fulfills its potential as a pathway for internationalization and academic success.

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APPENDIX: SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

Students' Readiness toward EMI and Internationalization in Higher Studies

Perceived Ability to Succeed in EMI (PASE)

I feel confident using English in my academic studies.
I understand lectures that are conducted in English without difficulty.
I can read academic texts in English effectively.
I am comfortable participating in classroom discussions in English.
I am able to write assignments and exams in English without significant problems.
I believe my English language skills are adequate for pursuing higher studies.
I find it easier to follow lessons in English compared to Bengali.

Attitudes toward EMI and Internationalization (ATEI)

I prefer English over Bengali as the medium of instruction in higher studies.
EMI will prepare me better for future international career opportunities.
I believe that English should be the primary medium of instruction in Bangladeshi universities.
I am aware of internationalization strategies implemented by my university.
My university encourages international collaboration and exchange programs.
I feel more ready to study abroad or participate in international exchange programs because of EMI.
EMI will help Bangladeshi universities improve their international reputation.
I believe that using EMI will improve my employability in the global market.

Learning Engagement of the Students with EMI (LESE)

My studies are challenging and push me to improve.
I feel inspired by my coursework.
I approach my studies with enthusiasm.
I am proud of the progress I make in my studies.
I find meaning and purpose in the subjects I study.
I am fully concentrated and focused when studying.
I put a lot of effort into my studies, even when things are difficult.
I feel excited about applying what I learn in real-life situations.

Perceived Challenges of Facing EMI (PCFE)

I sometimes struggle with understanding course content in English.
I feel that the availability of English support resources (e.g., language labs, tutoring) is inadequate in my university.
I find the transition from Bengali to English in higher studies challenging.
I believe that faculty members need more training to effectively teach in English.
I have faced difficulty adjusting to EMI compared to my peers.

Institutional Comparison

Public Universities

Public universities are better prepared to implement EMI compared to private universities.
Public universities provide more diverse resources for learning English compared to private universities.

Private Universities

Private universities offer better support for students adapting to EMI compared to public universities.

I believe that students from private universities are more ready for EMI than those from public universities.
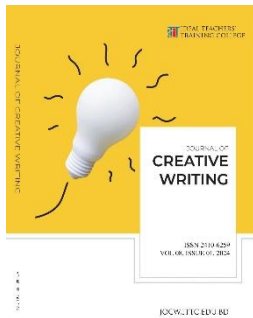
STRATEGIES FOR INTEGRATING MARGINALIZED COMMUNITIES INTO SUPPLY CHAINS: EMPOWERING SUPPLIERS, PRODUCERS, AND DISTRIBUTORS

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ABSTRACT

Integrating marginalized communities into supply chains as suppliers, producers, and distributors is a vital step for ensuring inclusive economic growth and poverty elimination. This study investigates effective strategies that enable businesses and organizations to incorporate disadvantaged groups into both global and local supply chains. Drawing on case studies and qualitative data, the research identifies critical factors in successful integration, including capacity-building initiatives, access to affordable financing, fair trade practices, and the utilization of technology for streamlined operations and market connectivity. Findings reveal several barriers these communities face, such as societal mindsets, limited financial support, lack of skills, and logistical challenges, which can impede their participation in supply chains. To address these challenges, this study suggests actionable strategies to create sustainable, inclusive supply chain models, highlighting the role of consistent training, transparent communication, and impact-oriented partnerships. The research underscores the significant socio-economic benefits of inclusive supply chains, offering valuable insights and models for stakeholders aiming to empower marginalized communities, improve social cohesion, and drive local development through equitable business practices.

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KEYWORDS

Marginalized Community, Supply Chain, Suppliers, Producers, Distributors, Strategies of Inclusive Business

INTRODUCTION

Inclusive business practices are growing in terms of theory and practice. Nevertheless, many poor communities remain missing from local supply chains. Among the main challenges these people routinely face are limited access to financial resources, insufficient infrastructure, lack of technical skills, and limited market access. That is why, underprivileged people must fully benefit from economic opportunities aimed to alleviate poverty and increase their standard of living by means of effective integration. To develop To develop strategies that enable disadvantaged groups as active and significant business participants, this paper addresses the question of how businesses could correctly engage impoverished people into their supply chains. The paper aims to identify their usual challenges, the social and financial benefits of inclusion, and provide answers to ensure more equitable supply chains.

CASE STUDIES AND BEST PRACTICES IN INCLUSIVE BUSINESS MODELS

Many companies all around the world have effectively used inclusive business concepts to include underprivileged groups into supply chains. Notable instances from Bangladesh including iDE Bangladesh, BRAC, JITA. These companies have best practices and clear strategies. The following case studies show how creatively distributed models, fair trade policies, and capacity-building help to produce social as well as financial results.

BRAC's Inclusive Business Model in Agriculture

BRAC has developed several inclusive business concepts combining impoverished groups especially in rural areas. Among the most important initiatives is linking smaller dairy producers to larger metropolitan markets under the BRAC Dairy and Food Project. By establishing a network of milk collecting stations, BRAC provides consistent market access and fair price to rural farmers. They thus continuously receive paid. Apart from veterinary support and training, the organization assures supply chain sustainability and output (BRAC, 2020). This strategy not only provides steady income for impoverished farmers but also helps rural towns develop by creating jobs and improving food security. Fair trade and skill development have helped to greatly appreciate the effort in reducing poverty in rural areas and so fostering economic development (SNV, 2021).

JITA Bangladesh: Empowering Women Through Entrepreneurship

JITA Bangladesh is a social business initiative supporting women to start door-to--door sales of health and hygiene products in undeveloped rural areas. This project is known as 'Aparajita' JITA supports these women starting and running their businesses by offering microfinancing and skill-training. This idea provides rural women first priority as a distribution network, therefore promoting community health awareness as well as economic independence (JITA, 2018). The Aparajitas provide their communities with steady income and simple commodities. The model has raised women's social status and autonomy, thereby enhancing household decisions and community growth in turn. The innovative approach JITA has used to distribute its goods has been awarded as best practice for opening markets and supporting poor people (Helmsing, Vellema, 2010; SNV, 2021).

iDE Bangladesh: Inclusive Agricultural Supply Chains

Through "Farm Business Advisors" approach, iDE Bangladesh links smallholder farmers to national supply chains by means of agricultural training, access to quality inputs, and market

links. The iDE model stresses on raising farmers' technical capacity and supporting resilience against market fluctuations. iDE is Working with business sector partners that the farmers they may access both national and international markets. iDE also helps farmers to maximize their revenue potential (iDE Bangladesh, 2020). This approach has clearly increased income and output for poor farmers, therefore enabling them to elevate themselves out of poverty. The model has also promoted environmentally friendly farming techniques, therefore it reduced bad effect on the surroundings and increased output. A scalable model for inclusive business, iDE's work becomes best practices in combining technical training with market access (Drake, 2012).

These case studies demonstrate how effectively inclusive business models enhance social and financial development for impoverished groups. Showcasing BRAC, JITA, and iDE Bangladesh, targeted interventions in market access, fair pricing, and capacity-building can provide sustained development and poverty reduction. Every company's approach stresses best practices that may be adapted for other developing nations.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Marginalized Suppliers, Producers and Distributors

Inclusive business models have gained popularity as a sustainable approach to suppress poverty and social inequality by incorporating underprivileged groups into mainstream economic activity. This integration offers a path towards economic self-sufficiency, skill development, and market involvement (United Nations Development Program [UNDP], 2010). By raising the social impact of businesses and local economic growth, inclusive business practices help to create mutual benefits by strategically incorporating low-income and underprivileged groups as suppliers, producers, or distributors (Prahalad, 2010). This section looks at the concept, applicability, and impacts of inclusive business in creating sustainable economic empowerment for underprivileged groups.

Defining Inclusive Business

A financially viable company that offers underprivileged populations opportunites to participate in and profit from economic activity by including them on a significant scale within its value chain is known as inclusive business. As London and Hart (2011) observed, inclusive companies "expand opportunities for the poor while achieving a competitive advantage in the market." This approach stands apart from conventional corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiatives by incorporating social effect directly inside the core operations of the company. (Jenkins, 2005). Unlike CSR, inclusive business is a sustainable solution.

Referring to the great population at the lower end of the economic spectrum, Prahalad (2010) first presented the idea of the "bottom of the pyramid" (BoP) market in his foundational book. Serving the BoP, who not only constitute a market but also a significant source of talent and innovation when included into the supply chain, he said companies may establish successful models. Using these models, inclusive business give underprivileged people access to essential goods and services as well as revenue possibilities (Prahalad, 2010). By giving underprivileged people economic power and autonomy, BoP-inclusive approaches also have the ability to solve ongoing disparities (Jenner, 2005).

Importance of Inclusive Business for Marginalized Communities

Inclusive business concepts go beyond economic development since they support social inclusion and empowerment. IB builds freely accessible markets for poor people. Therefore, IB is supposed to help to overcome systematic issues including poverty and inequality. According to the UNDP (2010), inclusive business promotes good work, reduces inequality, and builds strong infrastructure. In other words, IB supports Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Like SDGs, IB objectives point out BoP communities which sometimes lack access

to vital resources. these models try to empower impoverished groups by engaging them as necessary stakeholders in the corporate ecosystem (UNDP, 2010).

Among the main characteristics of inclusive business is its ability to transform supply chains. Rather than perceiving underprivileged groups merely as consumers, inclusive businesses involve them as active players in manufacturing and distribution systems (Karnani, 2007). Raw material suppliers from adjacent towns, for example, provide a stable income stream for social entrepreneurs that contribute to increase social cohesiveness and encourage community development by means of their activities (London & Hart, 2011). By raising capacity, offering training, and allowing market access, businesses can transform poor individuals into empowered, skilled suppliers across the supply chain (Jennerks, 2005).

Emphasizing equality and empowerment for poor people, the concept of inclusive business redefines traditional economic relations. Including these areas into supply chains and supporting social and economic development helps inclusive business models to solve poverty and lack of market access. Inclusive business models illustrate how successfully profit could be combined with social impact to create favorable, long-lasting transformation in impoverished areas.

Challenges Facing Marginalized Communities in Supply Chains

Marginalized groups have many challenges that limit their ability to engage in and benefit from supply chains. Among these challenges limited market access, financial limits, skill shortages, and cultural and social barriers are the prominent ones. Developing plans that can allow fair involvement of these communities in supply chains would depend on an awareness of these obstacles, therefore promoting sustainable development and reduction of poverty (Hammond et al., 2007; Karnani, 2007).

Financial Barriers and Lack of Capital

One of the biggest obstacles impoverished communities face is limited financial resources. These communities may not have the resources to initiate or sustain supply chain involvement especially in places where microfinancing and banking services are infrequent (Morduch, 1999). Traditional banking institutions can overlook low-income people and small firms due to perceived high risks and low returns, therefore depriving underprivileged groups of the necessary capital for active participation in supply chains (Yunus, 2007). Originally developed by the Grameen Bank, the microfinance concept demonstrates how low-income individuals can participate as suppliers or producers in supply chains therefore fostering economic inclusion. Still, access to such money varies, particularly in remote communities lacking a financial infrastructure (Morduch, 1999). So according to these researchers financial infrastructure is very important for the BoP communities.

Market Access and Logistical Challenges

Market access is another main challenge identified by disadvantaged individuals. These groups find it challenging to integrate with larger markets since they can operate in far-off areas with poor infrastructure. Hammond et al. (2007) assert that rural producers and suppliers struggle with high transportation costs, inadequate roads, and limited access to communication technologies, therefore hindering their potential to keep competitive pricing or timely delivery of goods to market. Furthermore, larger firms could monopolize markets in underdeveloped regions, which makes it difficult for smaller, locally based enterprises to join and fight. Lack of market access reduces the revenue possibilities for poor communities and diminishes the attraction of inclusive business models for normal supply chains (Prahalad & Hart, 2002).

Skills and Knowledge Gaps

Participating in supply chains is much hampered by the skills gap in underprivileged areas. Many people in these areas lack the technical and administrative ability needed to satisfy the quality criteria and production levels expected by more sizable supply chains (Helmsing, Vellema, 2010). Addressing these gaps depends on capacity-building programs since they help community people to get the required skills for active involvement. Altenburg (2006) underlines how knowledge gaps can be bridged by skill development together with mentoring and ongoing assistance, therefore enabling underprivileged groups to become competitive suppliers. But the success of these initiatives usually relies on companies' will to offer continuous training and support, which may be costly for resources (London & Anupindi, 2012).

Cultural and Social Barriers

Furthermore greatly restricting the incorporation of underprivileged populations into supply chains are cultural and social hurdles. Discrimination, conventional wisdom, and social stigmas can deter certain groups from aggressively pursuing supply chain possibilities (Karnani, 2007). Women in some areas, for example, may be limited in their capacity to participate in economic activities by society expectations, so restricting their ability to be supply chain participants. Cultural stigmas can affect the openness of mainstream companies to collaborate with underprivileged groups, therefore sustaining a cycle of exclusion (London, Anupindi, & Sheth, 2010).

Strategies for Effective Integration of Marginalized Communities

Capacity Building and Skills Training

Encabling underprivileged communities to satisfy the quality, productivity, and efficiency criteria needed for supply chain integration depends on capacity building and skill development (London & Anupindi, 2012). While technical skills are taught, training courses also emphasize soft skills such communication and financial literacy, which are very vital for long-term success.

Role of Training Programs and Mentorship

Good integration starts with organized mentoring and training courses catered to the particular requirements of these areas. Technical abilities with business management is essential for community members who might lack official schooling, claims Altenburg (2006). Conversely, mentoring gives participants continuous direction and supports self-sufficiency and confidence building by means of When these programs are offered regularly, they produce a trained workforce that can generate high-quality outputs. These skilkls will allow them to become dependable supply chain partners. For instance, BRAC's training programs for Bangladeshi rural communities integrate mentoring with skill development to assist local producers—especially women—in thus supporting supply chains (BRAC, 2020).

Access to Affordable Financing

Marginalized groups must be financially included if they are to participate in meaningful supply chains. Lack of reasonably priced money creates obstacles for funding equipment, raw materials, or other initial demands that are absolutely vital for preserving supply chain responsibilities (Morduch, 1999).

Strategies like Microloans and Impact Investments

Two main sources of the money required for first involvement are impact investment funds and microloans. As the Grameen Bank model shows, microloans give low-income people small amounts of capital with reasonable repayment schedules, therefore enabling them to engage in economic activity (Yunus, 2007). Often funded by socially conscious investors, impact investments provide more money for scalable community projects matching with

social impact goals. By allowing access to the tools required to engage and maintain their roles in supply chains, these financing alternatives empower underprivileged populations (Bugg-Levine & Emerson, 2011).

By means of money obtained thanks to iDE Bangladesh's collaboration with impact investors, rural farmers have been able to buy necessary agricultural tools and increase their output (iDE Bangladesh, 2020).

Fair Trade and Ethical Business Practices

Fair trade and ethical business practices are supposed to ensure that poor people get equitable compensation and are free from mistreatment. Fair pricing and ethical sourcing not only help to empower economically but also boost confidence between businesses and local people (Raynolds, Murray, & Wilkinson, 2007).

Fair Pricing and Ethical Sourcing

Companies commit to offer fair prices for goods manufactured by underprivileged areas by using fair trade ideas; often, minimum price restrictions are set to assure revenue stability. On the other hand, ethical sourcing practices ensure that by way of honest and respectful interactions with these people, local cultures and expectations are fulfilled in the supply chain. These strategies used collectively assist to more equitably share economic benefits, therefore enhancing the welfare of underprivileged people and motivating sustainable supply chain participation (Raynolds et al., 2007).

The JITA Social Business Bangladesh idea provides fair trading opportunities for female entrepreneurs so they may distribute required goods and earn fair compensation, thereby improving their income and social status within their local areas (JITA Social Business Bangladesh, 2014).

Technology for Market Connectivity

Technology lowers the gap between poor neighborhoods and the markets they intend to reach. Using mobile technology and digital tools can help these groups streamline procedures, increase supply chain efficiency, and improve market access (Drake, 2012).

Use of Mobile Platforms and Digital Tools

Digital technologies including mobile apps give access to market information, promote communication, and offer pricing transparency, so helping impoverished groups to make sensible economic decisions (Heeks, 2018). Mobile platforms can also help to increase profit margins by reducing the need on middlemen by letting these groups engage with consumers personally. Using mobile apps, rural farmers, for example, can track commodity prices and plan logistics, therefore enhancing their participation in supply chains and lowering costs (Drake, 2012).

The Mobile Alliance for Maternal Action (MAMA) project uses mobile technology to provide rural Bangladeshi women health and financial information so they may make smart decisions improving their personal and business lives (UNDP, 2010).

Gaps in the Literature and Future Direction

Mostly concentrated on short-term benefits and particular case studies, studies on inclusive supply chains have left several important knowledge gaps on long-term results, scalability, and the impact of technology and regulatory advances. By means of filling in these voids, a more all-encompassing framework ensuring the sustainability and broad applicability of inclusive supply chain models across several sectors will be built.

Lack of Longitudinal Studies

Many research on inclusive supply chains focus on immediate or short-term financial benefits including more revenue and employment levels (Karnani, 2007; Prahalad, 2010).

Longitudinal studies are also required to evaluate the long-term effects of inclusive supply chain projects on social well-being, poverty reduction, and economic stability within undeveloped areas (Morduch, 1999). Understanding these long-term consequences would enable one to decide whether, especially in times of economic crisis or global supply chains disruptions, these models lead to sustainable development over time.

Limited Evidence on Scalability

While case studies from businesses like BRAC and JITA show good local impacts, little research looks at how these models might be extended successfully to other locations or industries (BRAC, 2020; JITA Bangladesh, 2014). Scalability challenges include adjusting inclusive approaches to fit different cultural and economic environments, overcoming infrastructural limitations, and making sure scaled programs still benefit impoverished communities instead of acting from profit-centric motives (Helmsing, Vellema, 2010).

Insufficient Analysis of Digital Innovations

By means of improved market access, financial services, and educational resources, digital technology has enormous potential to boost supply chain inclusion and so supporting underdeveloped areas. Still, there are limited studies on how inclusive supply chains could incorporate digital banking, mobile platforms, and other digital developments (Heeks, 2018). Studies examining how digital tools may facilitate communication, improve logistics, and boost financial inclusion for poor communities will lead to more robust and easily available supply chains (UNDP, 2010).

Need for Research on Policy Support and Governmental Roles

Government policies considerably support inclusive business practices, although little research has been done on how specific policies might either support or hinder inclusive supply chains. Policies supporting fair trade, reduced regulatory impediments, or incentives to businesses working with impoverished areas—for example—may have a big impact on the effectiveness of inclusive business models (World Bank, 201). Developing a policy framework that supports inclusiveness in supply chains requires understanding of the connections between government support and inclusive company success.

Filling up these research gaps will help inclusive supply networks to advance their efficiency. By stressing long-term advantages, digital innovation, supportive legal frameworks, and scalability, this research may provide a good basis for fostering sustainable, inclusive economic growth by means of supply chains helping poor communities globally.

Research Questions

1. How can businesses engage impoverished communities—as distributors, suppliers, or manufacturers—into their supply chains?
2. What challenges poor communities face in supply chains? How may these challenges perhaps be reduced?

METHODOLOGY

Research Design and Approach

This paper uses a qualitative case study method to look at the effects and approaches of including underprivileged areas within supply chains. Examining complicated social events where the goal is to grasp the "how" and "why" issues of inclusive business practices (Creswell & Poth, 2018) is well suited for qualitative research. By means of a case study technique, researchers may investigate many organizational strategies and issues in detail, thus offering insights on practical implementations of inclusive business models in Bangladesh and related surroundings (Yin, 2018).

Data Collection

Semi-structured interviews with five key executives from the selected firms constitute data collection. Participants of this approach may share their expertise on operational challenges, effective strategies, and impact assessment tools related to their inclusive company operations. Document analysis of organizational reports, impact assessments, policy papers, and contextual background and supporting material on each company's inclusive business practices help to further support the interview results (Bowen, 2009).

Analysis

Data analysis, using a thematic analysis approach, identifies codes, repeated themes, and patterns throughout the interview transcripts and records (Saladana, 2018.). Theme analysis allows the researcher systematically to identify themes related to economic empowerment, social well-being, operational challenges, and scaling techniques in qualitative research (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Data was organized into themes using NVivo, and coding was done and then analyzed in relation to the study's objectives (Bazeley & Jackson, 2013).

Sample

Using purposive sampling, the research chooses companies in Bangladesh actively implementing inclusive business practices. Focusing on different companies with established inclusive policies helps the study to gather a variety of approaches and experiences that underline both the advantages and difficulties of include underprivileged groups within supply chains (Patton, 2015).

Every interviewee positions themselves as top leaders of their company. The respondents have around 10 to 15 years of senior-level experience, including past CEO positions in different businesses.

Interview Questions

SL	Research Questions	Corresponding Interview Question
1	What strategies can businesses adopt to successfully integrate marginalized communities into their supply chains as suppliers, producers, or distributors?	1. Which particular tactics may companies use to include underprivileged groups as distributors, suppliers, or manufacturers in their supply chains? 2. How may companies give financial resources to underprivileged supply chain members? 3. What kinds of training are most useful for the proper integration of underprivileged populations into supply chains? How important is training overall? 4. How may alliances with government agencies or NGOs help to include underprivileged groups into supplier chains? 5. How may business training and financial literacy help underprivileged groups inside supply chains to be empowered? 6. How can companies assess how well their inclusive policies benefit underprivileged groups within their supply chains?
2	What challenges do marginalized communities face when participating in supply chains, and how	1. What financial challenges do you believe are most significant for marginalized communities trying to enter supply chains?

	can these challenges be mitigated?	2. How do income fluctuations and job insecurity impact marginalized suppliers' ability to remain part of the supply chain?
		3. What kinds of social or cultural skepticism have you observed when working with marginalized communities?
		4. What skill gaps do you often encounter among marginalized communities?
		5. What logistical challenges do you face when working with marginalized communities in remote or rural areas?
		6. How does misalignment with traditional supply chain processes affect the participation of marginalized communities?
		7. How do regulatory requirements or complex compliance processes affect marginalized communities' participation in supply chains?

Ethical Considerations

Ethical issues were getting informed permission from every participant, guaranteeing anonymity, and handling any data interpretation biases. Participants were advised of their ability to withdraw at any time; all data were anonymised to protect personal identity. The research followed American Psychological Association (APA, 2020) advised ethical standards.

FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

Strategies to integrate marginalized communities into supply chains as suppliers, producers, or distributors

Skill Development Programs

Offering skill development initiatives enables underprivileged areas to have the technical capacity required to participate actively. Whether in manufacturing, quality control, or logistics, these initiatives are catered to the particular functions these areas provide to the supply chain.

> *"Building a system whereby underprivileged people feel appreciated in their roles promotes sustainable involvement."*

Financial Support and Microloans

Microloans and financial assistance that businesses provide help people from underprivileged areas to make investments in their businesses. Access to reasonably priced financing offers the first means to buy tools, maintain machinery, or fund little expansions.

> *"Accessible financial resources combined with organised training help people to contribute successfully to the supply chain."*

Inclusive Policies and Fair Trade Practices

Establishing inclusive policies and fair trade procedures guarantees that underprivileged people get just pay for their efforts. Such rules also provide a basis for ethical and fair business dealings by helping to balance the power difference often experienced by small suppliers.

> *"Businesses should approach integrating with targeted skill-building and clear communication channels to support long-term engagement."*

Methods To Provide Financial Resources To Marginalized Communities In The Supply Chain

Microloan Facilities

One of the best approaches to provide underprivileged groups financial assistance is microloan programs. Low interest rates and flexible payback terms on these loans let people grow their companies free from heavy financial load.

> *"With access to microloans, these communities might expand their operations and reinvest in their futures."*

Partnership with Local Banks

Working with local banks to provide financial packages meant for underprivileged areas helps close conventional gaps in financial services. These alliances provide more easily available financial services and assist community people in credit management process understanding.

> *"We believe in offering financial tools that not only increase their capacity but also help these communities to develop a culture of financial independence."*

Grant Programs

Businesses might sometimes set grant programs to help with first startup expenses such equipment purchases or leasing of production space. Usually aiming at community members in need of a basic boost to begin or grow inside the supply chain, these handouts

> *"Financial support allows marginalised people to step into supplier roles confidently and reliably."*

Training For Successful Integration Of Marginalized Communities

Technical Skills Training

Individuals cannot effectively fulfill their supply chain jobs without particular technical skill training. Whether it's quality control standards or manufacturing method instruction, this kind of training clarifies industry needs for participants.

> *"Training not only improves job performance but also builds confidence among community members, so enabling them to take on greater responsibilities."*

Financial Literacy Programs

Training in financial literacy lets underprivileged groups properly handle their income. Key to reaching economic stability and independence is budgeting, saving, and planning, which it addresses.

> *"Financial literacy and management skills empower them to make informed decisions, so impacting their household economies."*

Entrepreneurial Training

Entrepreneurial education helps community members see themselves as small company owners, therefore enabling them to see possibilities, control risks, and properly scale their activities within the supply chain.

> *"Educating budgeting and resource management techniques transforms these communities to enable long-term thinking about their contributions."*

Partnerships With Ngos Or Government Bodies

Access to Funding and Grants

Funding that underprivileged populations may otherwise be unable to obtain can be provided by NGOs andgovernment bodies. These subsidies help communities to better enter the supply chain by allowing them to pay for first expenditures like training, tools, and running expenses.

> *"NGGs bring credibility and necessary tools that enable underprivileged populations to see the benefits of inclusive business."*

Training and Development Programs

NGOs often support training courses aimed at helping people pick up necessary competencies. These alliances may provide training that fits the demands of the community, therefore enabling people to excel in their particular supply chain responsibilities.

> *"Collaborations help to smooth out integration and build trust by bridging companies and community resources."*

Advocacy and Awareness

Advocacy campaigns included in partnerships between governments and non-governmental organizations serve to increase knowledge of the advantages of inclusive business policies. By means of these advocacy initiatives, prejudice may be lessened and more companies should follow inclusive policies.

> *"With government support, we can solve regulatory needs and guarantee marginalized suppliers receive fair treatment."*

Financial Literacy And Business Training For Empowerment

Household Financial Management

By budgeting, saving, and future planning for necessities, financial literacy courses emphasizing home management let people of the community maximize their income. This instruction fosters family resilience and economic stability.

> *"Financial literacy and management skills enable them to make informed decisions, so improving their household economies."*

Business Acumen and Decision-Making

Teaching business principles like cost analysis, pricing, and investment helps community members to consider their responsibilities and company development strategically. This information helps them to make wise choices that would help their suppliers as well as their businesses.

> *"They learn to see themselves as entrepreneurs with business training, so enabling strategic growth of their operations."*

Resource Allocation and Growth Planning

Expanding sustainably requires community members to learn efficient resource allocation from capital investment to inventory control. Long-term development and integration within supply chains have a basis from this training.

> *"Educating budgeting and resource management techniques transforms these communities to enable long-term thinking about their contributions."*

Measurement Of The Success Of Their Inclusive Strategies

Economic Indicators (Income and Financial Stability)
Monitoring metrics of financial stability, like family savings and income increase, reveals how directly inclusive policies benefit underprivileged areas economically. This information helps one evaluate if company assistance is resulting in more financial resilience.

> *"We look for long-lasting success markers including consistent income and more active community roles."*

Quality of Life Improvements
Improved quality of life—that is, access to healthcare, education, and housing—allows one to also gauge success. Improved living conditions usually mirror the favorable results of inclusive policies on societies.

> *"True success is when marginalised suppliers get the confidence and tools to innovate and grow on their own."*

Community Empowerment and Participation
Evaluating empowerment involves determining how well people believe they are qualified to make choices for their homes and neighborhoods. Often driven people become leaders and champions in their local communities, therefore promoting further growth.

> *"Empowerment shows when people participate actively in family and community affairs due to their economic contributions."*

These well crafted interview questions with organized topics and thorough explanations provide a whole picture of the tools companies may use to include underprivileged areas into supply chains.

CHALLENGES FOR THE UNPRIVILEGED GROUPS

Based on the transcript, these topics, codes, quotes, and explanations address the difficulties underprivileged groups have while engaging in supply chains and potential mitigating solutions.

Limited Access to Capital and Financial Support
Many times without the financial means to fully engage in supply networks, marginalised groups find Funding for first expenses and company stability still presents a major obstacle, therefore restricting their capacity to be consistent, long-term suppliers.

> *"We face a gap in funding availability... marginalized suppliers often struggle to secure the initial capital needed."*

Unstable Income and Job Insecurity
For underprivileged suppliers, job uncertainty and changing wages present obstacles to involvement that compromise their stability and dependability as component of the supply chain. Maintaining income stability might help to solve this problem and enable greater environmentally friendly supply chain involvement.

> *"Their ability to remain in the supply chain suffers from their difficulty sustaining consistent income levels."*

Societal Mindset and Skepticism of Business Motives
One obstacle is cynicism among underprivileged groups about the sincere goals of inclusive corporate projects. Negative past experiences with other companies might cause distrust and

limit involvement. Clear communication and community engagement assist to remove these social obstacles.

> *"People often see inclusive business as simply another scheme; they question our motives."*

Limited Education and Skills Gap

Many people from underprivileged areas lack the skills required for supply chain jobs and enough schooling. Providing customized training and development initiatives helps them to properly integrate into the supply chain and satisfy job criteria.

> *"training is often required to close the skills gap... marginalized communities are usually less equipped for supply chain roles."*

Code: Geographical Isolation and Limited Infrastructure

Inadequate infrastructure, particularly deficient transportation networks, increases expenses and diminishes efficiency, hence complicating the lives of impoverished individuals residing at considerable distances. Enhanced infrastructure or logistical support enables the removal of these impediments.

> *"Logistics become arduous in remote areas; insufficient infrastructure and transportation costs hinder participation."*

Misalignment with Standardized Supply Chain Processes

Usually distinct from traditional corporate practices known to impoverished groups, supply chain activities cause mismatch. One can help to more effectively integrate community providers by simplifying processes and providing practical guidance.

> *"Our processes vary; for many community vendors, this is new ground."*

Compliance with Regulations and Bureaucratic Challenges

For marginalized communities, maneuvering through intricate legal systems may be daunting, particularly when bureaucratic procedures lack inclusion. More straightforward engagement would be made possible by simplifying compliance standards and supporting negotiations of legal systems.

> *"Maintaining compliance while promoting an inclusive model can be challenging, especially amidst intricate regulations."*

MITIGATION STRATEGIES

1. To help poor suppliers with start-up funding, thereby addressing early expenditures, establish microloan programs or collaborations with impact investors.

2. By means of training courses targeted to supply chain needs, invest in education and skill development thereby bridging the skills gap and enabling impoverished people to participate openly and professionally.

3. Involving community leaders and open communication help to build trust by which societies may embrace the inclusive model and fit its objectives.

4. By means of improved infrastructure and logistical assistance, geographically separated communities may overcome challenges including transportation-related ones.

Simplify Regulatory Compliance

Providing direction or developing simpler procedures can enable underprivileged suppliers to satisfy compliance criteria, therefore facilitating their entrance and involvement into the supply chain.

These realizations capture the many difficulties underprivileged people have and imply focused solutions to properly overcome them.

DISCUSSION

Code interpretation of results and delivery of meaning judgments depends on networks among them. It is found that the interactions among the codes create a code network by virtue of their relationship to the main issue of internal constraints in building an inclusive supply chain. For example, rules pertaining to other codes draw attention to higher-level problems (critical issues) since they affect many facets of the inclusive supply chain. Conversely, codes that seem more reliant on other codes or isolated reveal lower-level barriers (sub-challenges) since they address particular problems under a broader overall framework.

Visual Hierarchy of Code

The following figure shows the proportion of quoted text represented by the codes. In the entire transcript some thoughts are repeatedly uttered by the interviewees. This figure also indicates that speeches of some themes stressed on that particular theme, and coded textual data has insightful meaning.
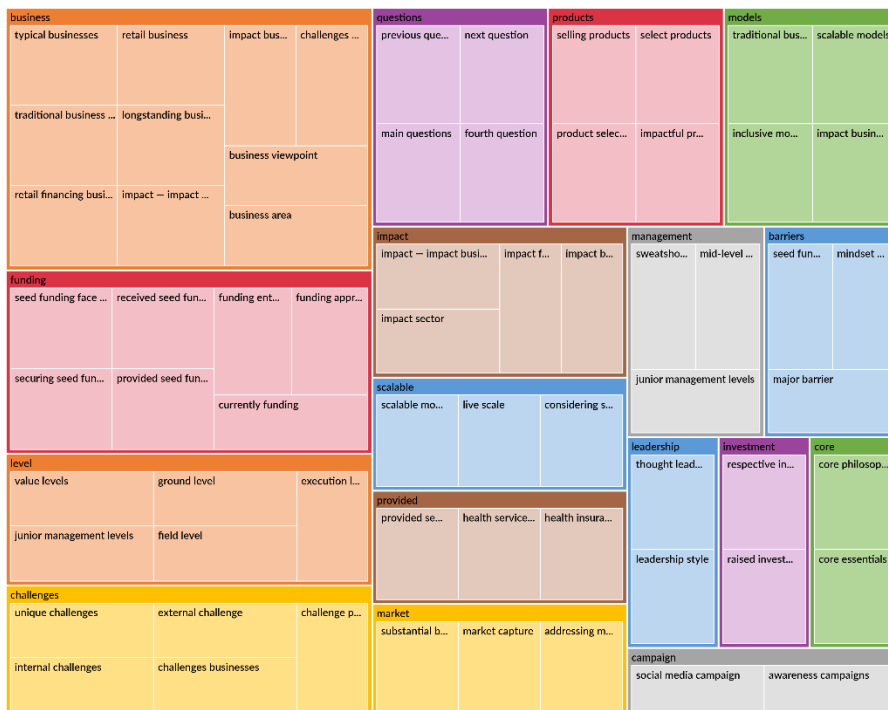
Figure 1: Multicolor Visual Representation of Codes with NVIVO 15

Impacts of Inclusive Supply Chains on Economic Empowerment and Social Well-being

From economic empowerment and social development to sustained poverty reduction, inclusive supply chains have shown a spectrum of benefits for underprivileged populations. Supported by important empirical research and case studies, especially from innovative companies like BRAC and Grameen Bank, here is a summary of the major favorable results linked with inclusive supply chains.

Economic Outcomes

By improving income stability, creating jobs, and encouraging financial independence among underprivileged groups, inclusive supply chains help much to empower economically.

Numerous studies, like Karnani's (2007) study of inclusive business practices, have recorded these results; supply chain inclusion helps low-income people move from subsistence-level occupations to more stable, income-generating jobs. Agribusiness and small-scale manufacturing sectors significantly show this empowerment as people there get regular income by means of alliances with bigger companies (Karnani, 2007).

By means of steady demand and fair pricing for their goods, empirical case studies of BRAC and Grameen Bank show how inclusive business models may sustain income among rural communities (Yunus, 2007). Regular, market-linked pricing, for instance, helps rural dairy farmers in BRAC's dairy supply chain, therefore offering a constant income source and less reliance on intermediaries who may provide less suitable circumstances (BRAC, 2019). Inclusive models also provide access to basic financial services like microloans, therefore enhancing the economic stability of underprivileged people (Morduch, 1999).

Social Empowerment and Community Development

Apart from just financial benefits, inclusive supply chains raise community status, provide access to education and healthcare, and encourage women equality thus promoting more social emancipation. Studies reveal that poor people—especially women—particle in supply chains, their social standing and power within their communities considerably increases (London & Anupindi, 2012). For example, Grameen Bank's microfinance program has been very successful in enabling women so they may engage economically and have greater influence in their homes and enterprises (Yunus, 2007). Along with overall community cohesion and support networks, this shift raises personal self-esteem (jenkins, 2005).

Beyond just business dealings, BRAC's inclusive business approach has produced community programs giving supply chain actors and their families access to healthcare, education, and skill-building activities. These initiatives provide poor communities opportunity for both personal and professional growth, hence improving overall quality of life (BRAC, 2019). As shown by Raynolds et al. (2007), these supply chain-based projects have a compounding effect on community development, providing circumstances wherein access to health care and education results in long-term socioeconomic development.

Long-Term Impact on Poverty Reduction

One of the most significant results of inclusive supply chains is their contribution to reduce poverty. Including underdeveloped parts of supply chains helps inclusive business models create sustainable income streams, reduce economic vulnerability, and increase resilience against financial crises. Yunus (2007) stresses the transformational potential of inclusive models by providing a stable income source and access to basic resources, therefore enabling communities to break out from the cycle of poverty.

Inclusive business methods also serve to reduce structural impediments to poverty reduction by supporting fair trade and ethical business practices, which ensure that impoverished groups receive fair compensation for their labor and commodities. This equitable distribution of economic benefits supports sustainable development as individuals from poor places may create wealth and invest in surrounding infrastructure, therefore liberating entire communities from poverty (Raynolds et al., 2007).

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

Longitudinal Impact Studies

Future research should center long-term monitoring of inclusive supply chains' social, environmental, and financial impacts over many years. These studies would reveal the lifetime of these models and assess if they provide long-lasting benefits like poverty reduction, improved health, and development of intergenerational wealth.

Exploring Digital Innovations and Technological Integration

From digital advancements like artificial intelligence for logistics, mobile banking for financial inclusion, and blockchain for transparency, new opportunities for inclusive supply chains exist. Studies on how effectively these technologies might grow inclusive business models (Heeks, 2018; UNDP, 2010) and overcome traditional challenges such high transaction costs and limited market access could show how well they fit.

Investigating Government Policy Interventions

Further study might look at how government policies either support or restrict inclusive companies models. Analyzing best practices from many countries that have successfully implemented policy frameworks supporting inclusivity will help to build policy interventions supporting fair trade, access to finance, and regulatory support for underprivileged populations (World Bank, 2021).

Research on Scalability and Adaptability

Future research should investigate the components enabling inclusive models to adapt well across multiple industries and locations, hence addressing scalability. Comparative analyses of successful and unsuccessful initiatives at expanding inclusive supply chains would provide knowledge on ideal approaches for spreading these ideas without compromising inclusivity.

CONCLUSION

Case examples of creative businesses as well as empirical research unequivocally indicate how inclusive supply chains enhance social well-being, poverty lowering, and economic empowerment. Inclusive business models have transformative power for poor people by providing constant economic possibilities, thus boosting social empowerment, and so eliminating structural inequities. As shown by BRAC, Grameen Bank, and kindred organizations, inclusive supply chains not only benefit businesses but also serve to foster sustainable, equitable development that may finally eliminate poverty and increase community resilience.

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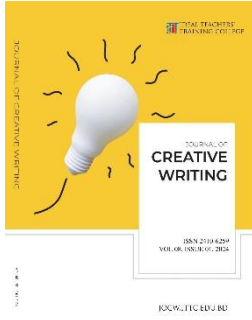
KRISHNA MISHRA'S CLASSICAL SANSKRIT DRAMA "*PRABODHA CHANDRODAYA*" PHILOSOPHICAL RESOLUTION OF MORAL BARRIERS

DURJOY NATH[1]

ABSTRACT

This study shows the moral barriers inside our minds and the solutions to overcome these obstacles. I have tried to find out from this doubt *Prabodha Chandrodaya,* one of the dramas of Sanskrit literature. The purpose of this study is to provide a clear and coherent explanation of Advaita, an important branch of Indian philosophy, which the playwright of the play has kept behind. From this, we will present a picture of how we can overcome moral barriers and other effects of the mind that consume our cognition. I have highlighted this issue in the study through a comparative and qualitative discussion. From this we will try to understand how moral inhibitions affect our lives, how we lose the sense of good and evil of conscience, and how the Advaita philosophy hidden in the *Prabodha Chandrodaya* drama gives us a complete philosophical solution to find the guidelines of the mentioning problem. Ultimately, it can be said that the relevance of this research will influence future scholarly works and open the door to the theoretical discussions on philosophy present in Sanskrit literature.

KEYWORDS

Sanskrit Literature, Classical, Moral Barriers, Advaita Philosophy, Indian Philosophy, Conscience

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INTRODUCTION

Moral barriers are considered to be one of the few obstacles in our human life at present. There are times in our lives when we are faced with much more pressing issues in our life decisions. I think the reason for this is the internal negative instincts in our mind, which compress our thinking consciousness and take our thoughts and thoughts to an aggressive level. Because of this, the need for polite and civilized behavior in our family, society and state is destroyed. The extent to which policy strategies and practices need to be demonstrated in society or in the state is destroyed. This leads to frustration at the individual level and conflict between individuals in society. In my study, I identify moral barriers as the source or the focal point of these problems. Because all such problems come in a person's life only when he faces many moral obstacles.

In many scholarly discussions, I have found that while much of the emphasis is on moral education, moral barriers have no authentic discussion. However, Zhao, L., (2020). In one of their studies, showed the ethical barrier by observing different situations of children through experimental methods. In this kind of research, we look at the moral aspects. However, there needs to be enough qualitative research on ethical barriers.

In my research, I refer to moral barriers as the state in which the inner instincts of the mind, such as anger, greed, attachment, pride, and other sensual things, destroy thinking consciousness. Such sensual matters create a moral barrier. A simple and beautiful philosophical solution to this issue is found in the play *Prabodha Chandrodaya* written by Krishna Mishra in Sanskrit literature. In the context of this drama, he introduced the Advaita of ancient Indian philosophy as a final solution to the moral barrier. Where our minds are divided into two parts. One is the aspect of the mind's instinct which disturbs all conscience and which is the main hindrance of the mind. The other is the restraining aspect which is the state of restraining the senses of the mind. But sometimes the renunciation aspect disappears because of the inclination aspect. Renunciation cannot be awakened because of the inclination which destroys our consciousness. Such a state of affairs leads to a breakdown of principles and creates moral barriers. However, I believe that the solution of Advaita philosophy given by the dramatist in *Prabodha Chandrodaya* drama will create a field of thought and consciousness free of moral barriers and the senses can be kept in check. So in today's scholarly context, this study will become more distinct.

Prabodha Chandrodaya is an allegorical drama by Sanskrit dramatist Krishna Mishra.   Although it is a Sanskrit play, Krishna Mishra composed it in the light of the ancient Indian philosophy of Atmanism or Advaita (Non-Dualism). The ancient Indian educator Guru Shankaracharya delivers the idea of Advaita philosophy. Shankaracharya (788-820 CE) was a highly influential philosopher and theologian, who are often considered the founder of the Advaita Vedanta school of Hindu Philosophy. One of the concepts of Advaita Vedanta is the concepts of Brahman, which states that Brahman and universe are one and that everything seen in the universe is the perpetuity of Brahman.

The purpose of this study is to create a sense of openness towards moral barriers by applying the ideas and influence of Advaita philosophy to human life. In this drama the dramatist shows how to overcome the spiritual and moral barriers of human life through the conception of Advaita philosophy. Similarly, Advaita philosophy takes us out of the inner illusion of our minds and brings us to a truth. That which is Brahman and the Soul is one, and whatever is sensed in the manifold world is Maya. The ultimate understanding of the mind, dispelling this illusion of the world and establishing peace, removes all moral barriers such as anger, greed, infatuation, false pride, and envy. The dramatist Krishna Mishra theoretically exhibitions a solution to Advaita philosophy in the drama *Prabodha Chandrodaya*, where the

barriers of morality seem to be removed. That is the focus of this research. This study proceeds to address the causes and solutions of moral barriers through several research questions.

Objectives: The main purposes of this study are as follows:-

1. To Explore what moral barriers are and how they can affect our thinking.
2. To explore how a philosophical solution to a moral barrier in the drama *Prabodha Chandrodaya*.
3. To understand the Advaita philosophy presented in the drama *Prabodha Chandrodaya.*

LITERATURE REVIEW AND DISCUSSION

Various research articles, books, and reports on this topic offers diverse perspectives. Pijanowski based his research on an interview in which he asked some questions about the candidates' religious decisions or dilemmas, and then they interviewed each other about their moral failings in decision-making, and here some points about moral barriers came up which is called schema theory or a moral decision-making model (Pijanowski, 2009). In another study, we see the critical reading of Richard Sennett on the erosion of character towards the end of the capitalist economy to highlight how early academics engage with the principle of balance career. There it is seen that the policy relationship is tied to the professional identity concept and the academicians' good conduct. A study of 25 Australian educators shows that their moral issues depend on the workplace culture (Cannizzo, Mauri, & Osbaldiston, 2019). Rashef Agam, in his research on the limitations of moral language, shows how moral standards of a world in which there are logical question depend on existence, thought, mind, life, and freedom. This study proposed what could be the language of ethic (Agam-Segal, 2009).

Furthermore, in Ale, D. (2024) study, the scholar describes this issue in the following way: moral reconciliation typically involves the process of resolving or harmonizing conflicting moral values, beliefs, or principles. While there may not be a specific "theory of moral reconciliation" in the sense of a precise and universally accepted framework, there are various philosophical and moral perspectives that discuss ways to address moral conflicts and promote reconciliation. This study illustrates the process of resolving moral values and principles based on certain philosophical theories. Even though morality may be complete on one side, there are conflicting tendencies associated with it. However, by integrating specific viewpoints, ways to address moral conflicts and achieve reconciliation can be better understood. Here are some of the possible outcomes of the development of morality, yet it can be criticized in many ways. From where we can understand that ethical pluralism is tied to us in some way to acknowledge the context of multiple principles or values. Again, sometimes the ethical framework can change in order to make realistic decisions in certain situations. It affects the mind and the inner workings in many ways. These are called realism, but to keep real life full of moral restraint, the opposite reaction can be observed. However, the process of solving ethical dilemmas in a practical way is somewhat in line with our research. Where justice is practiced, all must first repress their anger and be forgiving. In fact, my study at first seems to be a spiritual discussion, but gradually deepening our attention, it becomes clear that it is actually based on the action and reaction of thoughts in our mind. We are not all human beings outside of the action of the inner mind; they exist within all of us as part of the real and present body. However, they should be practiced in a proper moral development process. And if morality is hindered, then we will experience the opposite reaction to the actions of our mind.

Then, by analyzing several research articles, we get some perspective about ethics and moral barriers. However, since there is no reliable explanation of the concept of "moral

barriers" based on specificity, I will try to address the issue philosophically and theoretically in my research. A complete description of the main research topic will also be presented.

When we think about the issue of moral barriers, several aspects come to mind. Morals are the values that define our behavior. That is the activity by which our personality will be accepted in public and a good mind will be developed. One discussion found that morality comes from the Latin moralis, which means, in terms of customs or etiquette, ethics, which is a part of the values adopted by a society or a culture that registers attention and whether an action conforms to those values or violates them in some way (Bailey, Jones, & Clayton, 2023). Consequent to one study, the early remains of ancient soil do not appear to be moral teachings but rather are reminiscent of the Hammurabi code, the Hindu Vedas, Egyptian instruction, and the Hebrew Bible. Or consider that the long, odd voyage of the human exodus from Eden, as told in the Bible, began with a moral transgression, which led to the knowledge of good and evil (Haidt, 2008). Morality has persisted throughout the history of Western philosophy. Plato's Republic and Aristotle's Nicomachean Ethics, two of the greatest books of ancient Greek philosophy, conduct lengthy inquiry into the nature and origin of decent persons and civilizations (Haidt, 2008). The study elucidates what morality is and its impact on human life. It purpose to inculcate moral values in light of philosophical and ancient texts and to explore the nature of good individuals and a prosperous society. However, sometimes, as a result of forgetting our values, certain negative tendencies—such as anger, greed, infatuation, pride, envy, and immature philosophical arguments—consume our conscience, like a black cloud in the sky. Consequently, we lose our values, which, in the language of rational philosophy, can be called 'moral barriers.' Focusing on this study, we turn our attention to the play "Prabodha Chandradaya" by Krishna Mishra, where the instincts that corrupt the conscience (anger, greed, infatuation, pride, envy) are considered moral barriers.

Now let us explore the second objective of our research, or the main idea and vision of this study. To understand how the drama *Prabodha Chandradaya* resolves our moral barriers philosophically, we must first examine the characters of the drama. In the context of a simple drama, we typically see a hero, heroine, supporting characters, and sometimes animal characters. However, the greatest distinction of *"Prabodha Chandradaya"* lies in its characterization. Departing from the ordinary, the dramatist has used all the invisible feelings centered in the mind and heart as characters in a figurative sense. Therefore, Taylor has stated in his translation of this drama that the metaphorical representation of the mind and emotions cannot be considered original to the author. In the Vedas, the Mahabharata, and the Puranas, all emotions are personified. However, the dramatist has arranged them so effectively that, in the first part of his plan, he creates a clear understanding in the reader's mind of their ability to do good or evil, so that a person may surrender to their influence (Taylor, 1886). The dramatist has carefully crafted the play's characters, guided by the highest thoughts, and provided the final explanation of philosophical thought. Some of the most important branches of ancient Indian philosophy are represented as characters in this drama. The beautiful portrayal of these philosophical characters and their constructive criticism within the drama gives the impression that it is the work of a wise writer. On one hand, the author shows how the instincts of the spirit and the mind corrupt our conscience and become the greatest barriers to our morality. On the other hand, the origin of Advaita philosophy is depicted, demonstrating how with the help of the Upanishads—an invaluable storehouse of knowledge—we can overcome our moral barriers and attain the perfection of conscience. Through various setbacks and self-destruction, this drama offers a final solution for the self-realization of our lives. Life can be made beautiful by exercising morality by keeping the senses under control. If we look at the play from time to time, we will have a have a complete idea about it.

Table 1: The main characters in drama

Male character	Female character	Relation
Soul	-------	The grandfather of conscience.
Mind	-------	The son of the soul.
Kama Deva[2]	-------	The son of the inclination side of the mind, follower of Mahamoho (Great Delusion).
Ahamkara (Egoism)	-------	The son of the inclination side of the mind, follower of Mahamoha (Great Delusion).
Anger	-------	The son of the inclination side of the mind, follower of Mahamoha (Great Delusion).
Viveka (conscience)	-------	The son of the renunciation side of the mind, the king of the renunciation side.
Vairagya[3]	-------	The second son of the renunciation side of the mind.
Lobha (Greed)	-------	The son of Ahamkara (Egoism).
Mohamoho (Fascination)	-------	The son and king of the inclination side of the mind.
Dambha (Arrogance)	-------	The son of Lobha (Greed).
-------	Rati[4]	The wife of Kama (Desire).
-------	Mati (Intellect)	The wife of Viveka (Conscience).
-------	Upanishad[5]	The second wife of Viveka (Conscience).
-------	Thirst	The wife of Greed.
-------	Envy	The wife of anger.

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[2] 'Kama Deva' is the god of love, desire and attraction in Hindu mythology.

[3] 'Vairagya' is a Sanskrit word that metaphrases to "detachment" or "renunciation." In terms of Indian philosophy and spirituality, it means to the practice of renouncing desire and attachment to worldly things, promoting a sense of inner peace and liberation.

[4] According to Hindu Mythology, 'Rati' is the goddess of love, libido, worldly desires and sexual gratification. Ratidevi, known as the daughter of Parajapati Daksha, is the wife of Kama deva, the god of worldly sexual love and lust.

[5] The 'Upanishads' are fourth or last stage of Vedic literature. The literal meaning of the word Upanishad is that the knowledge has to be taken sitting near the Guru (Teacher) in silence that is esoteric knowledge. It was in the Upanishads that Indian philosophical thought first emerged. From which the philosophy of Advaita Vendanta emerges.

Male character	Female character	Relation
Prabodhachandra[6]	-------	The son of Viveka (Conscience).

There are also some philosophical doctrines like Charvaka, Digambara Jaina, Bodh Bhikshu, and Kapalika Soumasiddhanta, who are some of the characters in this drama. Some philosophical communities work largely on the belief in reality, and some formalize the principle of justice. But the biggest challenge in our life is to overcome the barriers of the heart. Morality begins with thought or perception. If you think well, you will behave well, and if you feel inconsistent, your behavior will be a cause of trouble for society and for others. Where is the peace in the world? People are constantly trying to find peace. I think that several philosophical doctrines from man's desire to find peace. Therefore, the focus of our research will be on finding peace in our lives by removing moral barriers. In the drama *Prabodha Chandrodaya*, Vivek (Conscience) has been shown as the supreme character. That is, if you use your conscience properly, you can remove your potential moral obstacles. You need to grasp the proper philosophical doctrine for the proper use of conscience. To understand the moral barrier and its solution, as well as the philosophical theories, it is first necessary to understand the content of the drama. The man character, meaning the soul, is enchanted by Maya; Maya is his wife; the mind is their child. The mind has two wives: Pravritti (Inclination) and Nivritti (Renunciation). Pravritti's son is Moha (Fascination), and Nivritti's son is Viveka (Discernment). Moha's wife is Mithydrishti (False Perception), and Viveka's two wives are Mati (Intellect) and Upanishad (True Knowledge). The daughter of Viveka and Upanishad is Vidya (Knowledge), and their son is Prabodhachandra (Moon of Enlightenment). In the drama, Moha (Fascination) is the king of the inclination side. His attendants are Kama and Rati. He wants to defeat Viveka (Discernment), the king of the renunciation side, and prevent the union of Upanishad and Viveka. So that the soul remains forever deluded, losing all discernment between right and wrong. On the other hand, since Viveka had not united with Upanishad (True Knowledge) for a long time, the mind gave birth to Kama (Desire), Ahamkara (Egoism), Krodha (Anger), and Moha (Fascination). It took refuge in various philosophical and religious doctrines, including Charvaka, Jainism, Kapalika, and others to sustain the inclination side.

Eventually, Viveka (Discernment) awakened and engaged in a great battle with Moha (Fascination). The battle then ended. Materialism was defeated and other doctrines were eradicated by the power the true religion. Buddhism finding no refuge, fled. Moha (Fascination) and his offspring perished. Thus, from the union of Viveka (Discernment) and Upanishad (True Knowledge), "Prabodhachandra" was born.

The character of Prabodhachandra in the drama represents the author's ultimate desire. He wished for all evil inclinations to be removed and for Prabodhachandra to arise within everyone's heart for a pure mind. In this way, the moral barrier must be removed through a beautiful heart. So the dramatist says at the end of the drama, in the voice of the man character, the holy spirit that everyone wants, in the verses 30 and 31 of the sixth act:-

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[6] J. Taylor mention in his book uses the word "Intellect" for Probodha; Taylor, J. (1812). But the drama receives Prabodhachandra's character to a deeper level. To denote the highest thought of the human mind's consideration of good and evil, playwright exhibit to have applied it.

मोहान्धकारमवधूय विकल्पनिद्रामुन्मथ्य कोऽप्यजनि बोधतुषाररिश्मः

श्रद्धाविवेकमतिशान्तयमादिकेन विश्वात्मकः स्फुरति विष्णुरहं स एषः [३०]

सङ्गं न केनचिदुपेत्य किमप्यपृच्छन् गच्छन्नतर्कितफलं विदिशं दिशं वा शान्तो

व्यपेतभयशोककषायमोहः स्वायंभुवो मुनिरहं भवितास्मि सद्यः [३१]

Braking through the layer of darkness, Prabodha (Awakening) has arisen like the dawn. Dispelling the darkness of Fascination (Moha) and breaking the sleep of illusion, Prabodha emerged like a cool ray. With the help of reverence, discernment (Viveka), intellect (Mati), peace, and self-control, a universal realization is manifesting within me- 'I am that Vishnu[7]

. (Verse 30)

By the grace of Bhagavati Vishnu's devotion, I am now fulfilled in every way- from today onwards, I have taken the vow of sage- I wish harm upon no one, nor do I need conversation with anyone; wandering in all directions without concern for outcomes, seeking shelter in a home at night! I desire nothing more- I have renounced anger, sorrow, and Fascination (Moha). (Verse 31)

From the discussion so far, it is understood that, in the drama, the mind has two aspects: inclination and renunciation. When the mind is driven towards inclination, qualities like delusion, greed, desire, and arrogance are manifested, leading to moral decline. However, by controlling the mind and acting with discernment and intellect, a pure mind can be attained and freedom from moral barriers is possible. In the drama, Prabodhachandra is presented in the context of pure Advaita philosophy. This philosophy has defeated all moral barriers and has provided a path to sacred knowledge and liberation. We, as human beings, are often filled with delusion, greed, arrogance, and desire. The drama portrays the origin of Advaita philosophy from the Upanishads behind the scenes. That philosophy has allowed beings to become egoless, freed from desire, and has assisted in the proper realization of the soul.

Now, let us try to understand how the teaching of Advaita philosophy, behind the scenes of the drama shapes a holistic pure mind. In this drama, the enchanted human is referred to as 'Man' (Purusha)-those elements described as products of illusion (Maya) in philosophy are depicted here as children of illusion (Maya). First, illusion (Maya) gives birth to her first child, the mind. In the drama, the mind is sometimes described as the 'Mind' (Chitta), sometimes as the inner self (Antaratma). The mind acts as though it is the lord of the world, as illusion (Maya) has placed it in that position while she continues to act like a great being. The mind acts under fascination (Moha); when the influence of fascination ceases, only then is the pure knowledge of truth and falsehood possible. Therefore, in the drama, two wives have been imagined for the mind-Inclination (Pravritti) and Renunciation (Nivritti); Inclination's son is Fascination (Moha), and Renunciation's son is Discernment (Viveka). In our research, we have discussed the awakened side of Renunciation or Discernment (Viveka), which can keep us free from all moral barriers by discerning good from evil. To properly awaken Discernment, to free it from the influence of Fascination, and to distinguish between good and evil, the dramatist suggests taking refuge in Advaita philosophy. Thus, there is a need to delve deeply into the essence of Advaita philosophy.

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[7] 'Vishnu', Bhagavan Vishnu, Bhagavan, is a Hindu deity who restores the balance of good and evil. He protects the religious or moral order as well as ethical conduct in Hindu practice. Thus, he serves as a guardian mediator, maintaining order and truth. In this drama, 'I am that Vishnu' refers to a pure soul, which is as sacred as God.

The fundamental essence of Advaita Vedānta philosophy is articulated in a stanza by Shankara:

Brahma satyaṃ jaganmithyā jīvo brahmaiva nāparaḥ |

anena vedyaṃ sacchāstramiti vedāntaḍiṇḍimaḥ ||

(Shankaracharya, 1981, v. 20. 198)

It implies that Jivātmā and Brahman are the only true entities and that this universe is not real. This refers to Paramātmā, or Brahman, who is Jivātmā or Ātman. Brahman is Ekmebādvitīyam, meaning that it exists in all states as One and Only One. All other things are false; Brahman is the truth. He is not manifold but remains singular. Furthermore, this concept is known as Advaitaism, the name given to Shankara's ideology, as he believed in Brahman as the ultimate truth, with life and the cosmos as one cohesive whole. Advaita asserts that the observable universe is not distinct from the unseen Brahman; Brahman is its basis, and thus the universe is Brahman." (Das, R. 2023)

Advaita philosophy is part of the Vedanta school of ancient Indian philosophy, which is also called Advaita Vedanta. In the history of ancient Indian philosophy, we find that different philosophical sects of India did not emerge simultaneously, but spread their influence at the same time. Professor Arzun Bikas Chowdhury in his book Indian Philosophy has shown the philosophical communities of India beautifully. He shows what the results of philosophy are and presents a chronology of its contemporary doctrines.

However, in this study, the Advaita philosophy has been demonstrated within the Vedanta school.
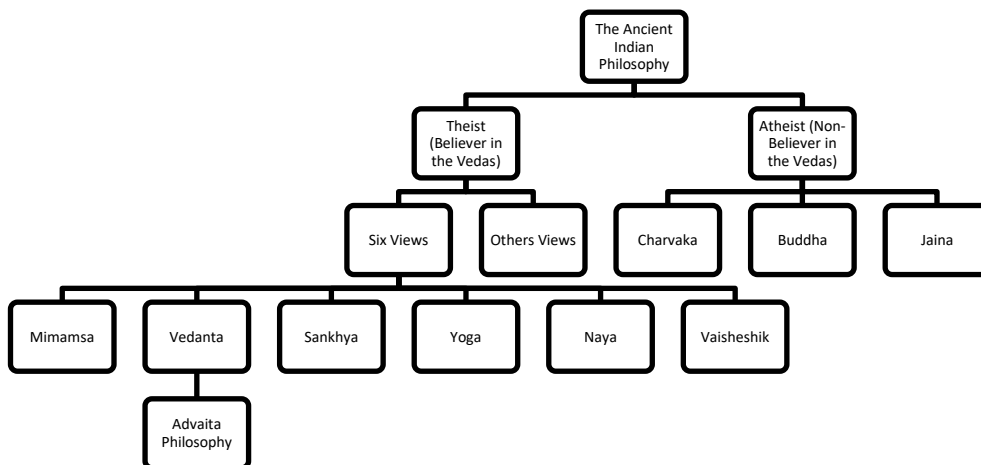
In another study, Swami Bhajanananda states that there are four basic principles of Advaita philosophy: 1) Advaita of the Upanishads, 2) Advaita of Shankara, 3) Post-Shankara Advaita, and 4) The Modern Phase of Advaita. Among these four guidelines, one can understand the concept of absolute Mayavada and Advaita philosophy (Bhajanananda, S 2010). Advaita serves as a means of uniting the human mind with God, offering a reliable path by which all living beings can attain peace. If one believes that everything in the illusory world is transient, one should restrain oneself from becoming attached to it. Thus, the teaching of Advaita

philosophy is to establish peace through justice and devotion by abstaining from worldly luxuries.

However, in this study, the teachings of Advaita philosophy are highlighted behind the scenes of the drama *'Prabodha Chandradaya'*. When the supreme man character of the drama realizes the significance of Maya (illusion), the unity of the individual soul (Jivātmā) and the Supreme Soul (Paramātmā) remains incomprehensible to him. The supreme man character then asks the main character, Upanishad: 'How can I and the Supreme Brahman become one?

The Upanishad replies:

असौ त्वदन्यो न सनातनः पुमान् भवान्न देवात्पुरुषोत्तमात्परः

स एष भिन्नस्त्वदनादिमायया दिवधेव बिम्बं सलिले विवस्वतः [२५]

The ancient Purusha is not different from you! You are not different from the Excellent Purusha, the Lord! He appears different from you because of the beginning less Maayaa, like the reflection of the Sun in the water appears as if different. [Sixth Act, Verse 25]

उद्धा मद्युतिदामभिस्तडिदिव प्रद्योतयन्ती दिशः प्रत्यग्रस्फुटदुल्कटिस्थ मनसो

निर्भिद्य वक्षःस्थलं

कन्येयं सहसा समं परिकरैर्मोऽहं ग्रसन्ती भजत्यन्तर्धानमुपैति चैकपुरुषं

श्रीमान्प्रबोधोदयः [२८]

Lighting up all the directions with unrestrained flashes of luster resembling the lightning streaks, shattering the chest of the mind with the hardened bones bursting every moment, this girl Vidyaa (Knowledge) is capturing Moha (Fascination) along with his assistants, and vanishing away. The noble Prabodhodaya is approaching Purusha (Man) [Sixth Act, Verse 28] Tejalsvini, (n.d.).

In this way, a pure soul is born by taking refuge in the Upanishads and through the guidance of Advaita philosophy. Here, the dramatist has created many mysteries in his drama. On one hand, he has shown reverence for the Vaishnava doctrine, while on the other; he has criticized other philosophical branches. He aimed to promote Vaishnavism and pacifism. However, the teachings of Mayavada or Advaita are also present in it. The subject matter is that a man (Purusha), engrossed in illusion and search for truth, seeks refuge in the Upanishads and examines other non-Vedic philosophies. First, Yajnavidya, then Mimamsa, logic, Nyaya-Vaisheshika, and Sankhya—all have been analyzed and finally discarded. Afterward, the dramatist portrays Advaita philosophy as the path to human liberation and has defeated all anti-Vedic doctrines. In this way, under the light of Advaita philosophy, the illusion of the mind is dispelled, and a pure soul arises, which knows how to think righteously and is capable of overcoming all moral barriers.

CONCLUSION

In the concluding section of this study, I can state that this research has attempted to identify the causes of moral barriers by presenting them as a major issue and explaining how the drama *Prabodha Chandrodaya* addresses these obstacles. In the context of the play, I have tried to show that the playwright has thought of solving this problem based on Advaita philosophy. But this study does not aim to provide a comprehensive exposition of Advaita philosophy or include all the scholarly work on the subject. Naturally, it attempts to indicate how Advaita philosophy may serve as a viable solution for overcoming our moral limitations and barriers. However, since philosophy is something that individuals internalize emotionally and retain in

the mind conditioned by prior experiences, it has not been possible to directly survey the moral state of those who have practiced Advaita philosophy before and after engaging in such practice. As Advaita Vedanta often incorporates practices like yogic discipline, it regularly emphasizes methods of sense restraint. Through such yogic practices and meditation, if one can control the senses, then tendencies like greed, attachment, pride, and desire are less likely to arise in the mind. As a result, a significant shift in moral character occurs, enabling individuals to overcome moral barriers and gravitate toward ethical processes.

In *Prabodha Chandrodaya*, the playwright explores various branches of Indian philosophy, logically refuting them and demonstrating that only the practice of Advaita philosophy can preserve moral balance and guide us towards a life of restraint. Therefore, this study opens up the path for analyzing Advaita philosophy in the context of overcoming ethical limitations in the future. I examine the relationship between the mind's inner workings and moral constraints through the inclusion of Advaita philosophy will, I believe, continue this trajectory in future scholarly research.

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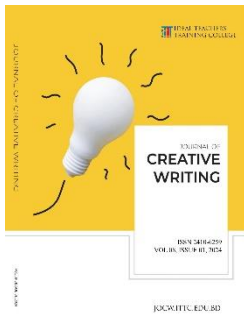
THE SPEECH ACTS OF THE LANGUAGE OF TEACHERS' CRITICISM IN EAP CLASSES: A PRAGMATIC ANALYSIS

AMATUR RAHMAN[1]
SERAJUM MUNIRA[2]

ABSTRACT

Exploring speech acts within the realm of language instruction has consistently been a captivating subject. Limited research has delved into the analysis of speech acts employed by English teachers for criticism during classroom interactions. This study primarily aims to identify the classifications of speech acts used most frequently by teachers in English for Academic Purpose (EAP) courses for criticism. Additionally, it examines the rationale behind selecting a particular type of speech act for criticism by EAP course instructors and assesses how this classification of speech acts may influence teaching strategies and student performance. The research employed classroom observations and interviews for data collection, utilizing purposive sampling to select five teachers and forty students from the English department's EAP 009 course. Observational guidelines and situational questionnaires served as research instruments. Qualitative thematic analysis and data coding were applied for data analysis. Classroom observations indicated that EAP teachers predominantly used directive criticism, with a comparatively low utilization of commissive criticism, aligning with the principles of communicative language teaching. Conversely, teacher interviews

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unveiled that, while direct criticism was prevalent, declarative criticism was also employed. This suggests a need for greater consistency in teachers' selection of specific criticisms, minimizing potential impacts on teaching strategies. The study recommends that EAP teachers diversify their criticism approaches based on student needs and contextual factors.

KEYWORDS

criticism, teachers' language, speech act, directive, commissive, assertive, expressive, declarative

INTRODUCTION

The language chosen by teachers significantly impacts the success of English teaching and learning, particularly in English for Academic Purpose (EAP) classes in Bangladesh. This communication dynamic occasionally results in conflicts or gaps where teachers struggle to persuade students. Students, in turn, imitate teachers' speech acts, hindering their pragmatic use of utterances. Additionally, there are occasional communication gaps in culture, gender, hedges, non-verbal communication, style, tone, and mode between teachers and students (Nur et al., 2023).

To address these challenges, the use of speech acts in the EAP classroom becomes crucial. Speech acts, representing the functions of language during conversation, serve as models for students to practice and guide them in using language more precisely (Ahmed et al., 2023). The three distinct speech acts—locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary—play essential roles in communication, offering students a framework to communicate effectively (Taguchi, 2011).

However, in the context of a private university like Green University in Bangladesh, the development of the illocutionary act for criticism needs attention. Evaluating speech acts in modern circumstances is crucial for EAP teachers and students as English remains dominant in international communication. Teachers must impart linguistic conventions and communicative pragmatics. This research focuses on a pragmatic analysis, particularly examining language criticism in EAP classrooms at Green University in Bangladesh, aiming to enhance teaching outcomes.

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Effective education in non-native English classrooms relies heavily on teacher-student interaction. In private university EAP classrooms, the selection of appropriate language criticism is complex, requiring interactional criticism for theoretical, informational, and pedagogical goals. Teachers must understand students' needs, yet their speech production often becomes static and content-based, creating ambiguity. Students, constrained by time to complete the syllabus, struggle to produce direct, precise, and contextually pragmatic utterances. EAP teachers primarily focus on students' learning, neglecting the directive or contextual use of language. Pragmatics, addressing language use in context and respecting culture, is disregarded, leading to the indifference of teachers to a directive approach. This study advocates for a directive approach in EAP classes, emphasizing its impact on comprehension efficiency, listening, speaking, reading, writing, grammar, vocabulary, and cultural appropriateness. To implement this, teachers need to shift their pedagogical approach to align with specific cultural, setting, and belief contexts.

RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

Effective teaching and learning necessitate direct, compelling discussions between teachers and students. In Bangladesh's EAP context, awareness of the directive approach is crucial due to varying student knowledge levels and time constraints. EAP teachers face challenges comprehending and addressing students' requirements, risking a teaching goal gap. The directive approach's limited use in EAP 009 courses at Green University highlights the need

for recognizing and correcting teachers' assumptions. This study aims to inspire teachers to enhance their teaching excellence by evaluating and adjusting their use of direct language criticism, including assertive, commissive, declarative, and expressive speech acts. Such adjustments have the potential to elevate teaching methods, benefiting students' comprehension, grammar, vocabulary, and overall language skills in reading, writing, speaking, and listening.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

This research aims to assess the effectiveness of internal interactions between teachers and students in EAP 009 classrooms, both onsite and online, focusing on spontaneous comprehension and communicative competency. Specific objectives include:

1. Identify the prevalent classifications of speech acts used by teachers in communicative EAP 009 classes.
2. Investigate the rationale behind teachers' choice of specific speech acts for criticism.
3. Evaluate the potential impact of classifying speech acts of language criticism on both teachers' teaching strategies and students' performances in terms of comprehending, listening, and speaking communication.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following questions will be addressed in this paper to fulfill the research objective and reach the expected conclusion:

1. What would be the ideal speech act of language criticism to select for communicative language teaching and learning in an EAP classroom?
2. Why does a teacher use a particular type of speech act for criticism?
3. How does this classification of speech acts of criticism impact on teachers' teaching strategies and students' performances?

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The significance of this research lies in interpreting and identifying the role of language speech acts by EAP teachers to enhance their teaching methods and improve the overall quality of education for EAP students. EAP teachers need a thorough understanding of the speech acts they employ for criticism in EAP classes. This not only elevates the quality of lectures but also enhances the productive skills of EAP students, such as listening, speaking, reading, writing, including grammar and vocabulary.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review encompasses various perspectives on speech acts, drawing from the works of Austin, Searle, Arani, Diani, Olshtain, Cohen, Sistyawan, Azhari, and Hashim. Austin (1975) posits that speech acts involve performative acts, which can be elocutionary, illocutionary, or perlocutionary. Searle (1979) introduces the concept of illocutionary force, categorizing it into Commissive, Assertive, Expressive, Directive, and Declarative patterns. Arani's (2012) research on Iranian children emphasizes the prevalence of directive speech acts in everyday conversations, indicating their importance in language acquisition.

Diani's (2018) framework distinguishes linguistic choices based on maintaining personal or professional connections, reflecting positive or negative attitudes toward listeners. Olshtain and Cohen (1990) highlight the significance of understanding speech acts for effective communication, particularly focusing on the Apology of Speech Act. Sistyawan et al. (2022) explore teacher talk in the context of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF), emphasizing its crucial role in education and student participation. Azhari et al. (2018) suggest that teachers' comprehension of various speech acts' characteristics and techniques forms a solid foundation for practical teaching skills.

Muchsin's (2020) study in Polytechnic ATI Makassar analyzes speech acts in the context of direct and indirect communication, highlighting the significant improvement in students' speaking skills through increased speech activity. Hashim's (2015) analysis of political speech acts reveals the prevalence of commissive acts among political leaders, indicating a commitment to future actions and the promotion of plans or ideologies. Political discourse, as demonstrated in this study, overtly utilizes commissive speech acts more than other forms. The literature collectively underscores the importance of understanding and utilizing different speech acts for effective communication in various contexts, including education and politics.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework of this study draws on the perspectives of Austin and Searle, focusing on speech act theory, specifically elocutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary acts. Searle's criteria for illocutionary speech acts include commissive, assertive, expressive, directive, and declarative forces. Each force serves distinct functions in conveying the speaker's intentions, opinions, feelings, directives, and declarations (Emike, 2017; Mabaquiao, 2018).

Locutionary acts involve utterances without affecting the hearer, while illocutionary acts are performative, with Searle's framework further classifying them into various forces. Commissive forces commit to future actions, assertive forces express the speaker's perception of reality, expressive forces convey feelings, directive forces prompt actions, and declarative forces bring about situational changes (Emike, 2017; Mabaquiao, 2018).

Perlocutionary acts result from perlocutionary behavior, influencing the audience's emotions or reactions. Pragmatics and speech act criticism intertwine, with pragmatic analysis being essential in ESL contexts for understanding acceptable and polite norms in communication. Pragmatic competence is crucial for ESL speakers to navigate cultural and linguistic nuances. Pragmatic studies consider context, meaning, and the speaker's intentions, often requiring connections with semantics and syntax (AUSTIN, 1962; Bauler, 2019).

Contrastive studies reveal the pragmatic functions of Chinese conventional phrases in realizing speech acts. In ELT contexts, the reflective use of speech acts contributes to material development and effective exercises for students. The study of pragmatics explores the association between language, meaning, and the situational context, emphasizing its significance in language learning and teaching.

Research Gap

The identified research gap revolves around the unique focus on the impact of illocutionary acts, specifically consisting of commissive, assertive, directive, and declarative criticism of speech acts, on the teaching and learning of English in a private university setting—specifically, the Green University of Bangladesh. While previous investigations have explored Searle's speech act criticism theory in various contexts such as schools, political speeches, polytechnic institutions, Chinese language, and contrastive studies, there is a lack of research addressing this particular application in the realm of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) within private universities in Bangladesh.

Despite creative scholars exploring the application of illocutionary acts in ELT book reviews, EFL, and ESL courses, the research gap persists when considering the specific context of EAP environments in private universities in Bangladesh. The existing literature has demonstrated results and original contributions, but the absence of studies focusing on illocutionary acts in EAP classrooms in this specific setting highlights the need for further investigation. This study aims to fill this gap by conducting a qualitative analysis of teachers' language criticism strategy, examining challenges and limitations, and assessing the potential

effectiveness of employing directive speech or illocutionary acts to enhance teaching and learning in EAP classrooms.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This research employs a complementary approach, utilizing both qualitative and quantitative methods. The qualitative method is employed for data collection and analysis procedures, offering a detailed understanding of participants' expressions, ideas, emotions, and perspectives. The quantitative method is solely utilized to examine the objective findings of the study.

The qualitative approach is chosen to investigate the specific research issue surrounding the criticism of speech acts employed by EAP English teachers, aiming to enhance both teaching strategies and students' performances. The methodology chapter provides a comprehensive outline of the study, covering participants, data collection procedures, research instruments, data analysis procedures, and ethical considerations.

Participants

The target population is the Green University of Bangladesh, with sample participants recruited from the English department's EAP 009 course. The study includes five teachers and forty students. Teachers are selected purposefully for their proficiency in English, extensive teaching experience at various academic levels, and membership in the English Language Club. Purposive sampling is applied due to the researchers' familiarity and good contact with the participants.

Data Collection and Analysis

Qualitative methods involve in-depth exploration of participants' expressions, focusing on the speech act criticism used by EAP English teachers. Data collection methods include interviews, observations, and document analysis. The analysis procedure employs thematic coding to identify patterns and themes in the qualitative data.

Ethical Considerations

Ethical considerations involve obtaining informed consent from participants, ensuring confidentiality and anonymity, and maintaining the privacy and dignity of participants throughout the research process.

The methodology aims to provide a robust framework for examining the impact of speech act criticism in EAP classrooms, offering insights into both teacher strategies and student performances.

Table 1: Participants' Frame

SL.	Participants Category	Sample
01	Male and Female Students of EAP (009) Course	40
02	EAP Teachers	**5**
Total		**45**

DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

This study employs qualitative data collection methods, utilizing classroom observation and interviews conducted both on-site and offsite. Purposive sampling is applied to participants who are well-known to the researcher.

Classroom Observation

The researcher conducted on-site and offsite classroom observations to understand why EAP 009 teachers choose specific speech acts and their potential impact on teaching strategies and student performance.

Video records were collected for on-site and offsite observations, providing detailed and real-time data for a thorough understanding of the observed behaviors.

The observations also included EAP students' classroom performances and role-playing to assess the impact of teachers' selected speech acts on student behavior.

Interview

Five EAP teachers from the English department of Green University were interviewed to gather their thoughts, opinions, and ideas on the selection of speech acts and its influence on teaching strategies and student performance.

A semi-structured interview approach was chosen for flexibility, allowing both pre-planned questions and spontaneous exploration during the interview.

Audio recording was employed during the interviews to ensure accurate data recording and verification.

Research Instruments

Classroom Observation Guideline (see Appendix B):

Developed to guide the systematic observation of EAP teachers and students during on-site and offsite classroom sessions.

Includes criteria for assessing teachers' speech acts, students' classroom performances, and role-playing.

Interview Questionnaire

A semi-structured questionnaire designed to elicit detailed responses from EAP teachers regarding their choice of speech acts and its impact on teaching strategies and student performance.

Incorporates pre-planned questions to guide the interview while allowing flexibility for exploration.

Situational Questionnaire

Developed for EAP students to gather insights into how teachers' selected speech acts may impact student behavior.

Semi-Structured and Unstructured Techniques

Employed in interviews to allow for exploration of responses and provide flexibility to participants. Semi-structured interviews involve pre-planned questions, while unstructured interviews aim for an in-depth study and establishing a connection with respondents.

The research instruments collectively aim to provide a comprehensive understanding of the impact of speech act criticism on teaching and learning in EAP classrooms at the Green University of Bangladesh.

Table 2: Research Instruments

Classroom Observation Guideline	R.Q 1
Interview Questionnaire	R.Q 2, 3

DATA ANALYSIS PROCEDURES

This section presents the interpretation of classroom observation findings, derived from four offsite recorded video sessions, with two featuring a male teacher and two featuring a female teacher. The total duration of the videos was six hours and forty-five minutes. Following data analysis, the researcher grouped the data and entered it into a Microsoft Excel sheet. The primary objective was to distinguish each of Searle's speech acts of criticism separately and quantify their occurrence. The total utterances of each category were counted to address the initial research questions, and the findings are visualized in a pie chart.

The primary objective was to analyze how often each of Searle's speech acts of criticism occurred during classroom observations. Quantitative methods were employed to draw findings from qualitative data, aligning with the notion that qualitative and quantitative methods can complement each other, providing a comprehensive understanding (Choy, 2014, pp. 99-104).

After data analysis, the researcher grouped and entered the data into Microsoft Excel, focusing on categorizing each speech act of criticism separately. The findings, categorized by directive, assertive, expressive, commissive, and declarative speech acts, are represented in a pie chart. This visualization offers a clear overview of the frequency of each category.

The findings contribute to the qualitative understanding of how different speech acts of criticism are employed by EAP teachers during classroom interactions. The pie chart serves as a visual reference to compare the occurrence of each category, providing insights into the dynamics of language criticism in the observed EAP classrooms.

FINDINGS OF THE CLASSROOM OBSERVATION

Key Findings

The analysis of classroom observations revealed four primary categories of speech act criticism employed by EAP teachers: directive, assertive, expressive, and commissive. Notably, declarative speech acts were not observed in the analyzed interactions. The frequency of each speech act category used by EAP teachers in their criticism is visually represented in the following pie chart:
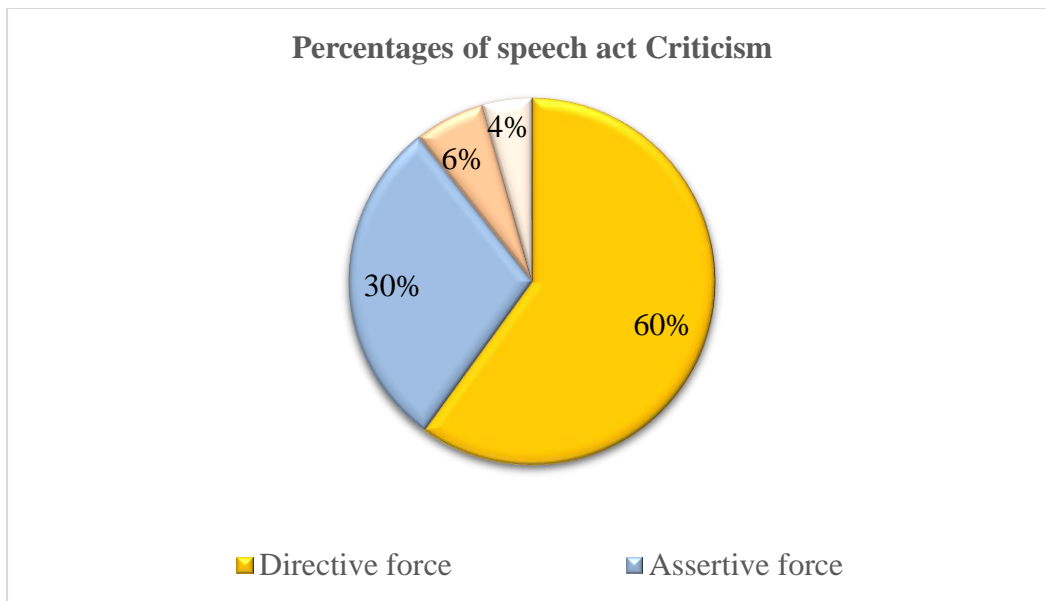
Figure 1: Percentages of Speech Act of Criticism

Directive Speech Acts: Teachers play a guiding role, providing instructions to steer students in their learning process.

Assertive Speech Acts: Teachers convey information or express their thoughts confidently on various subjects.

Expressive Speech Acts: Teachers express emotions and sentiments related to specific situations, fostering a more personal connection.

Commissive Speech Acts: Teachers commit to future actions, making promises, issuing threats, or extending offers.

Declarative Speech Acts: No instances of declarative speech acts were observed, indicating a distinct pattern in teachers' communication.

Insights from the Pie Chart
The accompanying pie chart visually highlights the prevalence of each speech act category, offering a quick understanding of language criticism patterns in the EAP classroom. The pie chart (Figure 1) reveals that the majority of language criticism by teachers is executed through directive speech acts, constituting 60% of the total utterances. Assertive speech acts account for 30%, expressive speech acts for 6%, and commissive speech acts for 4%.

Findings Implications
Dominance of Directive Speech Acts: The substantial use of directive speech acts suggests a strong emphasis on guidance and instruction in the teaching approach.

Limited Declarative Speech Acts: The absence of declarative speech acts indicates a communication trend where teachers refrain from making explicit statements or assertions.

Diverse Expression: The incorporation of expressive and commissive speech acts adds emotional and commitment elements to the language criticism repertoire.

These findings contribute to a comprehensive understanding of the nuanced language criticism strategies employed by EAP teachers. The dominance of directive speech acts and

the absence of declarative acts showcase distinctive patterns in communication, influencing the dynamics of the EAP classroom.

Directive

In 96 instances, teachers utilized directive speech acts, constituting 60% of their language criticism. The indicative terms associated with directive speech acts encompass asking, ordering, requesting, granting permission, offering advice, making suggestions, extending invitations, issuing challenges, and more. Predominantly, teachers employed this approach to instruct students, frequently asking questions and providing guidance. Their primary objective was to facilitate error-free learning by assigning diverse tasks and prompting students with queries. This instructional strategy aimed to ensure that students engage in various activities, such as reading, writing, speaking, listening, and working on grammar and vocabulary. Improving these essential skills is crucial for students as they form the foundational components of the EAP course. Table 3 presents specific examples of teachers employing directive speech acts for instructional purposes.

Table 3: Presents the Findings of the Directive Speech Act of Criticism

SL.	Strategies	Utterances	Categories of Directive Speech Act
1	Make conversations with students	"I would like to know about you" and "your preferences"	Asking
2	Encourage students to talk/share/perform	"Could you please raise your hand" … okay good!	Requesting
3	Critical thinking	"Try to write it again" how you understood that	Ordering
4	Invite activities group/pair work	Now "I am inviting you in the zoom breakout room"	Inviting
5	Encourage students to talk/perform or learn from experience	"You should attend the seminar"	Suggesting/Advising

Assertive

In 47 instances, teachers employed assertive speech acts, constituting 30% of their critical language expressions. The list of expressions associated with assertive speech acts includes reviewing, summarizing, concluding, stating, asserting, explaining, describing, reporting, offering opinions, and more. Primarily, teachers frequently review or summarize lectures to ensure students have a clear understanding, promoting both effective learning and performance quality. The teacher involves students in various activities and experiential learning beyond their academic realm, utilizing assertive speech acts for educational critique. Additionally, the teacher's principal aim is to enhance student engagement by providing feedback and posing relevant questions based on their perspectives or opinions. To elevate the quality of student performance, instructors immerse them in diverse activities and experiential learning that extends beyond their academic focus. Table 4 provides specific examples of teachers employing assertive speech acts for critical analysis.

Table 4: Presents the Findings of the Assertive Speech Act of Criticism

SL.	Strategies	Utterances	Categories of Assertive Speech Act
1	Support students through their learning process	" If we summarize the text again"	Reviewing /summarizing
2	Applies Mode, Tone, Intonation, NVC	Okay then "5th June it is" ...!	Concluding/stating
3	Critical thinking	"I have given the rubrics" …there would not be any problem	Asserting
4	Emphasize students' comprehension skills	So, what do you think "will it be zoo or farm?"	Opinion
5	Provide feedbacks	Sir cats like soft bedding… "Hmm! that might also be"	Assuming/believing

Expressive

In 10 instances, teachers utilized expressive speech acts, comprising 6% of their critical language expressions. The list of expressions associated with expressive speech acts includes complaining, greeting, welcoming, thanking, praising, apologizing, congratulating, and more. Occasionally, teachers employ face-threatening actions to capture students' attention in class and foster appreciation for class lectures. This is accomplished through the use of expressive speech acts like "welcome" and "good morning," ensuring that teachers establish a psychological connection with their students and treat all students equally. Furthermore, the teacher motivates students in various tasks by expressing gratitude for their performance while employing expressive speech acts for critical analysis. Table 5 showcases specific examples of teachers utilizing expressive speech acts for critical analysis.

Table 5: Presents the Findings of the Expressive Speech Acts of Criticism

SL.	Strategies	Utterances	Categories of Expressive Speech Act
1	Employ Face threatening act	"It's really annoying" …... when you are not giving any concentration!	Complaining
2	Applies Mode, Tone, Intonation, NVC	"Morning" students…!!	Greeting
3	Applies Mode, Tone, Intonation, NVC	Students "welcome to the EAP 009 course" …!!	Welcoming

SL.	Strategies	Utterances	Categories of Expressive Speech Act
4	Offer praise to students	"Thank you for your prompt response", Farzana...!!	Thanking/praising

Commissive

In 7 instances, teachers employed commissive speech acts, constituting 4% of their critical language expressions. The list of expressions associated with commissive speech acts includes threatening, refusal, commitment, pledge, vow, promise, swear, offer, and more. As mentioned in the expressive speech act section earlier, teachers may resort to face-threatening actions if students are not attentive in class or engage in irrelevant activities, such as using a smartphone against regulations, gossiping, failing to respond appropriately, and so forth. To maintain a conducive classroom environment, the teacher utilized face-threatening behavior towards students. Nevertheless, the primary objective of the teacher is to foster relationships with the students. Employing commissive speech acts of criticism, such as the refusal phrase "no, you have to write," underscores the students' autonomy in shaping their learning approach. Table 6 provides specific examples of the teacher's use of commissive speech acts for critical analysis.

Table 6: Presents the Findings of the Commissive Speech Act of Criticism

SL.	Strategies	Utterances	Categories of Commissive Speech Act
1	Employ Face threatening act	If you cannot respond on time, "I will not give your attendance"	Threatening
2	Adopt different strategies	No sir I can't write …...."no you have to write" (teacher speaking)	Refusal
3	Create a psychological bond with students	"After 10-minute break we will continue" to the class	Commitment

Declarative

In addition to declarative criticism, four other speech acts were employed by EAP teachers in the classroom. Because the use of declarative language criticism completely disrupts the listener's environment. However, no circumstances when EAP teachers were compelled to use declarative criticism of speech acts in the EAP classroom were revealed by classroom observations.

Findings of the Teachers' Interview

This section presents the findings of interviews with five EAP teachers conducted at Green University of Bangladesh. Interviews were also conducted in the same manner. While conducting the interviews, five EAP teachers were also subjected to additional in-depth interviews through a situational interview (see Appendix A) in order to find out the outcomes

of the research objectives. Next, the same method was followed to examine which speech act of criticism teachers prefer to use and how it can significantly impact their teaching strategies and their students' performances. The types of utterances they criticized in the situational interviews were calculated using Microsoft Excel. Then, its findings were extracted and presented through columns.

Additionally, interviews and classroom observations showed that teachers mainly employed directive criticism in their lectures and students' tasks in EAP classrooms. However, with additional in-depth interviews other than situational interviews, it has been found that EAP teachers were more likely to employ directional criticism. Moreover, the results of the teacher interviews and their interpretation are as follows:
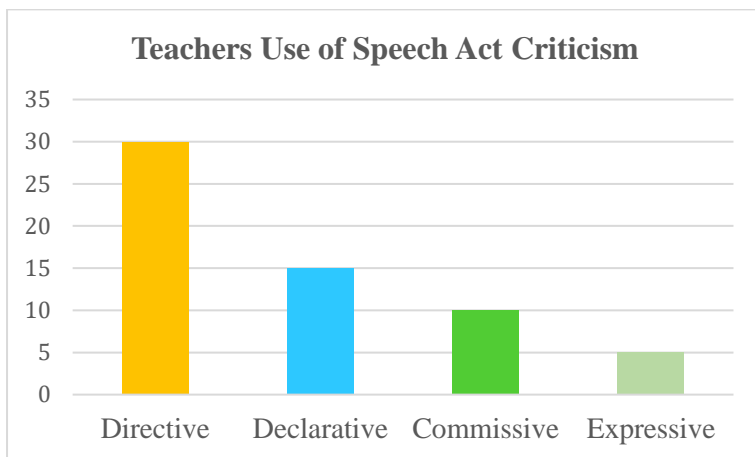
Figure 2: Teachers' Use of Speech Act Criticism

Through the data analysis, the column on top (Figure 2) shows that most of the EAP teachers' use of language criticism was done through directive speech acts. However, the column demonstrates that the teacher's use of language criticism involves 30 instances of directive criticism. Here are a few differences which have been found out from the interview findings. Because there was no evidence of the use of declarative speech acts of criticism observed through the classroom observation studies in the EAP classes, this column draws attention to the fact that teachers' critique involved 15 instances of declarative criticism. The teacher's use of language criticism involves ten times of utterances of the commissive acts of criticism. In addition, the expressive acts of criticism only occurred five times in teachers' utterances. However, the following data will highlight whether the EAP teachers' use of speech acts of criticism has an impact solely on their teaching strategies or it does have an impact on students' performances:

Table 7: Presents the Findings of the Speech Act of Criticism Uttered by EAP Teachers'

SL	Strategies	Utterances	Types of Acts	Use of Criticism
1	Support students through their	"I would extend the deadline"	Commitment	Commissive

SL	Strategies	Utterances	Types of Acts	Use of Criticism
	learning process			
2	Employ Face threatening act	"I cannot provide them with such flexibility"	Refusal	Commissive
3	Encourage students to perform or learn from experience	"I suggest them to be punctual"	Suggest	Directive
4	Encourage students to perform	"I motivate the students"	Advice	Directive
5	Employ Face threatening act	"Never"	Declare	Declarative
6	Adopt different strategies	"You will be my reading volunteer today"	Order/Command	Directive
7	Provide feedbacks	"I repeatedly warn the students"	Warning	Directive
8	Employ Face threatening act	"I do not entertain any kind of plagiarism"	Declare	Declarative
9	Applies Mode, Tone, Intonation, NVC	"Warn them"	Warning	Directive
10	Employ Face threatening act	"Take a leave"	Declare	Declarative
11	Demand for change	"Very good also you should..."	Praise/ Advice	Expressive/ Directive

Table 7 demonstrates how EAP teachers presented different types of criticism in response to the expectations of EAP students in different situations. EAP Teachers Adopt the Commissive Act of Criticism Sometimes when students cannot complete their tasks or assignments in time, the EAP teachers typically offer they extend the deadline to support their learning process. At the same time, EAP teachers sometimes adopt face-threatening acts by using refusal words to make the students more attentive and aware of some institutional rules and regulations, as they should value and respect teachers' time.

Moreover, it has been observed that most EAP teachers prefer to adopt direct criticism, especially when the EAP students are late for class. They try to suggest that when EAP students face some difficulties in their speaking, they try to assist and motivate them by giving

some advice to the students. In order to make the students understand how much public speaking is essential in this twenty-first century.

EAP teachers adopt different strategies by employing commands, orders, and others if EAP students create irrelevant things in the class that can force them to do some tasks. Similarly, EAP teachers occasionally provide feedback by warning them if EAP students receive poor grades in their fundamental courses so that they can improve their performance next time. Furthermore, EAP instructors also warn students against cheating on tests by stressing their tone and facial expressions. EAP teachers, however, vary their demands and encourage students to develop their writing skills further. As mentioned in the previous column phase, there are some exceptions in the results of the interviews because declarative criticism was found in it but not in the classroom observation. The EAP teachers employ face-threatening acts by declaring if EAP students are not serious enough about their class test or misuse their teachers' time.

Moreover, they employ face-threatening acts on the students if they plagiarize their assignments. As plagiarism is zero tolerance, EAP teachers' principal goal is to get students to use their intellectual abilities and complete their assignments without copying from other sources. Besides that, EAP professors might employ face-threatening techniques due to the students' impolite behaviour in the classroom. However, EAP teachers also employ expressive criticism by praising student performance; therefore, this strategy may reinforce students' subsequent performance.

DISCUSSION

This chapter will address research Questions 2 and 3 and their objectives. It will essentially show whether or not EAP teachers are entirely aware of speech acts of criticism and to what extent speech criticism may impact both EAP teachers' teaching strategies and students' learning or performance styles.

Discussion on Research Question (RQ 01)

What would be the ideal speech act of criticism to select for communicative language teaching and learning in EAP classes?

This research question is associated with classroom observations. The results showed that EAP teachers mostly preferred to employ direct criticism (60%). They prefer the direct task of criticism because it provides an opportunity for classroom interaction. EAP teachers ask students about their "preferences," which lets them speak. EAP Teachers ask students to share their opinions or perform their tasks to make them more interactive in the EAP classroom. Sometimes, EAP teachers instruct students to write, which means they are offering critical thinking to develop their writing style. EAP stands for English for Academic Purposes, an introductory (basic) course that aims to develop four skills: reading, writing, speaking, and listening, along with grammar and lexis. However, from application of direct criticism it seems that EAP teachers follow the principles of communicative language teaching.

Also, EAP teachers employ assertive criticism (30%) by summarizing and reviewing the class to engage all the students in the lesson who missed the class or to develop their schema on that particular lesson. Sometimes, EAP teachers conclude their statement on a particular topic so that they can comprehend the tone, intonation, and so forth. EAP teachers also assert to understand specific, clear criteria related to their assignments or tasks, i.e., "Rubrics." In addition, EAP teachers try to get students' "opinions" on a particular topic to emphasize their comprehension skills. Moreover, EAP teachers provide feedback on whether students are correct or incorrect on specific topics.

However, EAP teachers also employ expressive criticism (6%) using words such as "that is really annoying," meaning they use face-threatening actions to get students to pay

attention. It usually happens when students need to pay more attention when the teacher repeatedly calls by their name. Conversely, EAP teachers employ greetings, welcoming such as "Morning students" and "Welcome to the EAP 009 course" to create a bonding environment where all students feel equal. Moreover, EAP teachers show gratitude or offer praise to the students by saying, "Thank you for your prompt response," and so forth.

Finally, EAP teachers use commissive criticism (4%) by employing face-threatening acts, i.e., "I will not give your attendance" if they were late responding to their presence. However, students might suffer external and internal damage due to this criticism. Therefore, EAP teachers must be more mindful of their criticism in EAP classes. Additionally, EAP teachers use refusal phrases by using different strategies to help students complete their assignments on time. Adopting or pushing this strategy might lead them to drop their course. Therefore, EAP teachers should Understand when to use which criticism. There are some variations among students; some may be easy-going, while others may be troublesome. However, EAP teachers create a psychological bond with the students through commitment, i.e., "After the 10-minute break we will continue". So, these sorts of words help students to become more conscious about their studies. Hence, these kinds of words assist the students to be more conscious about their studies.

Overall EAP teachers typically strive to get students to communicate or reply, which indicates they follow communicative language teaching concepts. Direct criticism involves interaction with students and teachers, whereas assertive criticism involves lecturing. Furthermore, 60% direct and 30% assertive criticism makes sense that they consistently strive for balance in their lectures.

Discussion on Research Question (RQ 02)

Why does a teacher pick a particular type of speech act for criticism?

After interviewing the EAP teachers, it was found that none of them knew that they use directive criticism the most in their lectures. They employ directive criticism in EAP classes, not because they know it. They intend to involve the EAP students to talk to respond. They try to involve them in different activities, i.e., group work, pair work, role play, reading volunteer, and whatnot. They frequently ask questions to the EAP students so that everything would be transparent in their learning process.

They assist students in reducing their nervousness about speaking to build their confidence level in public speaking since the main objective of the EAP course is to provide students with a solid foundation for all four skills, including grammar and vocabulary. They organize brainstorming sessions by providing visual images, which lead them to think about current problems. This means they engaged students in their lectures and gave them opportunities to think.

After conducting the interview, first of all, it is clear that they are not entirely aware of direct criticism or any other criticism. One of the EAP teachers said we should have a friendly relationship among EAP students to create a psychological bond with them. Nevertheless, of course, EAP students should be mindful that there is a significant difference between a friend and a friendly environment. Moreover, they also said EAP classes are not productive for EAP students if EAP classes always have to provide lectures. They always want students to think and develop a sense of autonomy in their learning process. This study suggests that language teachers should have a strong comprehension and knowledge of criticism. If they understand how and when to utilize this form of criticism in the EAP class, it might improve the effectiveness of their lesson.

Discussion on Research Question (RQ 03)

How does this classification of speech act of criticism impact both teachers' teaching strategies and students' performances?

The results of the interviews with EAP teachers show that they support using direct criticism most of the time (30 utterances). EAP teachers strive to offer advice, such as "You are early for the next class" or "to be punctual," mainly when students are late for class due to traffic and apologize in scenario 3. Additionally, in scenario 4, EAP teachers give advice, motivate students, and help them while performing in class and muttering. EAP teachers adopt different strategies in scenario six by ordering and instructing, for example, "You will be my reading volunteer today." It frequently occurs when they are distracted by their cell phone and the entire class. When this happens, EAP teachers use a variety of strategies to ensure that students or the class are focused during the lecture.

Additionally, the EAP teacher warns students if they receive poor test scores in scenario seven. Teachers constantly remind students to pay attention so they do not fail the test or need to retake the course. Also, EAP teachers always warn or confront students who attempt to cheat on exams in scenario 9. Alternatively, in scenario 11, EAP teachers advise or suggest that the students improve their writing abilities. It occurs mainly when students express solid and relevant concepts, but the writing's style or structure is still poor.

However, EAP teachers sometimes employ declarative criticism (15 utterances) using declarations. In Scenario 5, the EAP teacher declares, "Never." this happens when students ask for a makeup class test without informing the teacher. Additionally, this occurs when students plagiarize their assignments in Scene 8. From the beginning, the teacher warned them not to plagiarize. Because "Plagiarism is zero tolerance" or "They do not entertain any kind of plagiarism." Moreover, such a situation occurs when the students misbehave with the teacher in scene no.10. The EAP teacher says, "Take a leave" for their rude behaviour.

In addition, EAP teachers also employ commissive criticism (10 utterances). Scenario 1 EAP teachers offer and promise to extend student deadlines if they do not submit their daily work accordingly. They allow submitting their work as there are some marks on the class performance. In Scenario 2, EAP teachers refuse to agree with students as they request to change the questions on their class tests, e.g., "I cannot give them that kind of flexibility." However, the question was entirely topic-related. That is when teachers refuse their demands because the teacher has already given enough lectures on that particular class test.

However, this types of disruptive can be maintained by listening to students' concern, offer students a brief break, capture students' attention, provide extra support or manage counselling hours for them.

EAP teachers also employ expressive criticism (5 utterances) or change demands when students write relevant ideas on scenario 11. This implies that the EAP teacher praises students' work at the beginning to encourage them to continue their studies and give some advice or suggestions to help students improve their writing skills.

Overall, EAP teachers' selection of speech acts should be more consistent. Because teachers often have to give some feedback to students in teaching. However, suppose the students are treated negatively instead of correcting them. In that case, it will have a negative impact on the performance of the students as well as the teaching strategies of the teachers.

RECOMMENDATION

The findings of this study suggest that language teachers should apply criticism in various ways depending on their students' needs and circumstances. They should have a sound knowledge, applications, and contextual use of criticism. The present study recommends

conferences, seminars focused on language learning, teacher training programs, and research as potential solutions. EAP teachers should also routinely evaluate their classroom experiences. Each lesson should be evaluated after it is taught, which is especially useful for novice teachers. As a result, EAP teachers can assess which techniques are practical and which need improvement. Additionally, feedback gives students immediate and constructive criticism of their performance. By evaluating student understanding through several assessment techniques, EAP teachers can modify their teaching methods effectively.

Based on Searle's speech act criticism theory, it is advised that lectures be given only in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) contexts. In Bangladeshi environments where English is not the student's first language, criticism can help EAP students gain a good command of the English language. As EAP students are encouraged to think and answer in English, regular exposure to spoken English can also aid in developing fluency. The constant use of the English language in the EAP classroom can assist students in enhancing their listening comprehension, vocabulary growth, and language proficiency. EAP teachers can introduce students to cultural nuances and idiomatic terminology using effective speech act criticism strategies, which are essential aspects of language learning.

However, criticism in language teaching does not have to be negative; This can be related to advising on language use to help students become more proficient. EAP students can improve their language skills and use language more effectively by receiving constructive criticism, an essential component of the learning process.

- Teachers should acknowledge the strengths and weaknesses of a student's language use in their comments.
- In order to help students, understand the correct language, teachers should gently correct it.
- Students should be encouraged by their teachers to communicate in the target language. Emphasize the value of communication over perfection.
- Teachers should provide real-world examples and contexts for language use. Students can better understand how language is used in everyday situations by using concrete examples.

SCOPE OF THE FURTHER STUDY

Only Green University of Bangladesh was selected as the research setting for this study. The scope of this study is not limited to the confines of a particular private university. It opens the door to a more thorough investigation of educational dynamics across institutions. However, the study provided insightful data, and the diverse higher education environment must be adequately represented. The limitations of this study, however, emphasize the need for further research on this topic. A more robust foundation for evidence-based decision- and policy-making in higher education can be provided by further research involving universities, including private and public institutions. Moreover, to provide more thorough and insightful results that can help the larger higher education community, the scope of the research should be widened to cover a more significant number of institutions.

CONCLUSION

English is a foreign language in Bangladesh. Since EAP is an introductory course and aims to develop all four skills, including grammar and vocabulary, EAP teachers need to know Searle's speech act of criticism model or framework. However, this study concludes by examining the criticism strategies employed by university EAP teachers in teacher-student interactions. EAP teachers were examined to communicate with students, maintaining good interpersonal relationships to effectively explain by employing speech act criticism. I.e., reducing the communication distance or barriers between teachers and students through

various activities, suggestions, advice, posing questions, and motivation for EAP students. Following research findings and discussion, four categories of speech acts were produced from classroom observations. There is some separation between the four hierarchies, with directive speech acting authoritative. The EAP teacher made ninety-six total utterances in the EAP classroom, which comprised more than 60% of all utterances.
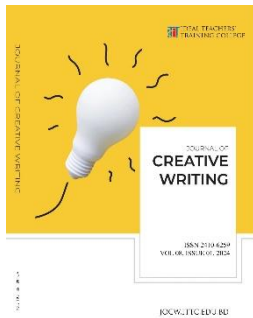
In contrast, the assertive speech act is the most common classifier. Forty-seven utterances, or 30% of these criticisms, were used. Whereas expressive criticism is 6% and Commissive criticism makes up 4%, it has 10 and 7 utterances of speech act criticism. Similarly, the findings of the teachers' interviews and discussions also revealed that EAP teachers had direct criticism in 30 utterances. In addition, the teacher interviews revealed several distinct uses of criticism compared to the teacher interview utterances, such as declarative criticism in 15 utterances that were not in the classroom observations. This study, however, offers some additional methods for EAP teachers to manage classrooms without resorting to declarative criticism. Because this criticism can harm EAP students' confidence and self-esteem, they may begin to feel reluctant to speak up in class, ask questions, give their opinions, and more. (Wijana, 2021) As noted, all utterances a speaker uses to affect the state of a specific thing are referred to as declarative criticism. In addition, teachers used commissive and expressive criticism in 10 and 5 of their utterances, respectively.

The current study, however, discovered a significant gap by looking at what EAP teachers need to learn about speech act criticism. Therefore, teachers must know speech act criticism and its applications to each speech act continuum because each continuum has a set of distinctive characteristics. Searle's criticism offers a solid foundation for educating well. Therefore, EAP teachers should be acquainted with it and its applications. In order to get acquainted with EAP, teachers must have critical sound knowledge and a sound understanding of criticism. They should be aware of this since practical speech act criticism will enhance both teachers' teaching methods and student performance. Despite that, EAP teachers are still determining when to utilize the correct terminology or approach to criticism in the EAP classroom, which has already been noticed, i.e., student's struggle to comprehend lectures, the students' comparatively poor expertise in the English language, and so on. Students always try to imitate teachers' good command of English, which helps them improve their speaking skills.

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Balancing Cybersecurity And Individual Rights: A Critical Analysis Of Bangladesh's Cyber Security Act 2023

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ABSTRACT

Cybersecurity law is designed to safeguard national security and public safety. But it arguably raises a question: whose security is being emphasized? Although this act seeks to mitigate cyber risks and protect web infrastructure, in some instances, they also give governments an opportunity to control digital environments at the cost of individual liberties. This happens due to broad provisions and ambiguous phrasing in such legislation. In the name of monitoring individuals without sufficient accountability this act diverts attention from public safety to governmental authority. Therefore, good cybersecurity laws must be balanced, safeguarding both state interests and individual rights. This paper intends to carefully analyze the Cyber Security Act 2023 (CSA 2023) of Bangladesh. It emphasizes the effects of CSA on freedom of speech, privacy, and public confidence. This article also compares various worldwide cybersecurity frameworks to evaluate how Bangladesh's cybersecurity laws may inadvertently impede individual rights. Findings suggest that although the CSA 2023 implements strategies to improve cyber safeguards. This study indicates the need for amendments to harmonize Bangladesh's cybersecurity legislation with international norms.

KEYWORDS

Cyber Security Act 2023, Freedom of Expression, Privacy Rights, Public Trust, Human Rights

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INTRODUCTION

Digital connection has become a necessary component of daily life. Particularly the Cyber Security Act 2023 (CSA 2023), Bangladesh's most current cybersecurity regulations have been passed to guard against cyberattacks for its citizens. However, fears have been expressed that apart from ensuring cyber security, individual rights, particularly the right to freedom of expression and privacy, may be hampered. Although the Cyber Security Act 2023 is the successor to the Digital Security Act 2018, it has introduced some changes that could have a major impact on citizens' rights (Budiarto et al., 2024; Aslan et al., 2023).

Why is the Cyber Security Act 2023 passed as a revised form of the Digital Security Act 2018 still facing major public indignation in Bangladesh? Why do cyber security laws in other nations not have similar public reactions? Experts fear the measure will damage people's rights of expression, privacy, and other fundamental freedoms. The Cyber Security Act 2023 was meant to solve the problems in the Digital Security Act by clarifying the reasons for its adoption. Many activists believe it has failed to allay public worries about freedom of speech, privacy and misuse of authority. Analyzing specific provisions of international cybersecurity laws will enhance public confidence. The vague definitions of the Cyber Security Act in Bangladesh are creating potential for its misuse and creating fear among the public remains understudied. The role of public trust in cybersecurity legislation and analyze how provisions of the law can undermine public trust in government and create barriers to protecting individual rights is still less understood well.

THE CURRENT PAPER

In the light of e-rights, the study will assess how far the Cyber Security Act 2023 is consistent with Bangladesh's commitments to international human rights law and how reforming certain sections of the Act can protect citizens' rights. It will analyze the controversial sections of the Act and show how the Act affects the rights and freedoms of the people. This study aims to understand the gap in public confidence in the human rights implications of this law-making process in Bangladesh, in comparison with international standards, and to identify the need for legal and procedural reforms to protect civil liberties.

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

We are almost global citizens now as the internet connects us everyone. Cyber threats are worldwide today rather than merely a national security issue. Cybercriminals are always seeking means of financial benefit from networks, data, systems, and activities. For many reasons, the hackers are launching their assault (Mishra et al., 2022). B. Williams claims that thieves usually pursue numerous kinds of cyberattacks. First among them are individuals who just desire money by means of illicit activity. Second kind consists of those that want intellectual property or crucial knowledge to provide them an advantage over others. Third is the risk presented from inside either from an insider de facto or inadequate security practices. Exercise of many human rights now depends on the internet and other digital technologies; so, cybersecurity is crucial to safeguard these rights from online dangers (Aslan et al., 2023; Lavorgna, 2000). Our nation has enacted the Cybersecurity Act 2023 to protect the cyberspace against any cyberattacks. But sometimes, certain parts of the statute seriously restrict individual right or freedom expression.

Human rights and cyber security have in common their need for protection. Many human rights can today only be enjoyed with the use of the internet and other digital technologies; hence cybersecurity is necessary to protect these rights from risks that may develop online (Nyst, 2016; Singh, 2023). Governments, companies, and people have to all be aware of this link and endeavor to protect cyber security in addition to human rights. As they have become more ubiquitous in our everyday life, the internet and other digital technologies have become absolutely essential for the practice of many fundamental rights.

Individuals, companies, and governments all depend on knowing this link and working to defend both cyber security and human rights. Exercising numerous human rights now depends on the internet and other digital technologies, which have become ever more common in our everyday life.

Generally speaking, people nowadays have greater access to contemporary technology innovations. The increasing user base in the digital domain corresponds with the escalating cyber danger there. Implementing some kind of legal framework or procedure is the only way to minimize these risks and protect persons, organizations, and state interests (Pajuste et al., 2022). Understanding the need for this type of a protective action, Bangladesh approved the Information Communication and Technology Act (ICT Act) in 2006. Still, this Act was not thorough and omitted certain paths of use for abuse. Passed in 2018, the Digital Security Act (DSA) aims to complement this Act and fix its discrepancies.

DSA was attacked, meantime, by some for not stopping the abuse of the ICT Act. Bangladesh adopted a complete Digital Security Law in September 2018 when the Ministry of Law, Justice, and Parliamentary Affairs there unveiled the Act of 2018. This legislative clause was passed to stop the spread of racism, sectarianism, extremism, and terrorist propaganda as well as manifestations of hate aimed at religious or ethnic minorities across print, internet, and other electronic media. The statute encompassed anything the government deemed inappropriate or obscene, and offenders risked fines or maybe lengthier jail terms. Fascinatingly, the Act let law enforcement authorities hold someone without a legal warrant. Originally passed in 2006, Section 57 of the Information and Communication Technology Act gave direction and ideas for the development of this rule. Many individuals labeled DSA as an instrument used to restrict Bangladeshi people's freedom of expression Every person's right to self-development with knowledge and wisdom for self-fulfillment consists fundamentally on their freedom of speech. Under this Act, the law enforcement authorities of Bangladesh have no arbitrary authority to arrest and imprison any person only based on suspicion (Azad, 2021; Government of the People's Republic of Bangladesh, 2019; Parliament, 2006).

The UN Human Rights Chief, Volker Türk, advised Bangladesh to stop immediately implementing the Digital Security Act on March 31, 2023. Expressing worry, Türk pointed out that the Act is being used all throughout the country to capture, threaten, and harass reporters and human rights advocates, thereby suppressing online opposition voices. During the 52nd session of the UN Human Rights Council, Volker Türk pleaded for the changes to the Digital Security Act on March 7, 2023. He underlined how urgently reforms are needed as people who exercise their right to freedom of speech and belief still suffer criminal penalties (Bangladesh: Türk Urges Immediate Suspension of Digital Security Safety Act as Media Crackdown Continues, 2023).

Minister of Law, Justice, and Parliamentary Affairs Anisul Haque reassured these concerns by underlining the country's current digital government under crisis. He underlined the need of safeguarding national interests as well as those of those who are prone to cyberattacks and other kinds of violence. Haque said, whilst appreciating the necessity for a digital security legislation, the law is not meant to be repealed. He did, however, acknowledge that legislative changes are still in works on which the need of a thorough study is emphasized (Govert Alerts to Stop Misuse of Digital Security Act: Anisul Huq, 2023).

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Human rights and cybersecurity are interconnected and must both be protected. The philosophy of human rights emphasizes the need of reconciling the preservation of individual liberty with the provision of technological security. The Cybersecurity Act 2023 necessitates a balance between punitive and preventive measures and individual rights, such as freedom of expression and the right to privacy (Singh, 2023; Nyst, 2016). Freedom of expression and

the right to privacy are two basic liberties absolutely essential for balancing cybersecurity regulations with human rights. Human rights theory considers the government responsible for preserving the fundamental freedoms of its people. Bangladesh is a democratic country signing many international human rights treaties. The International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) and the United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) both respect as fundamental human rights freedom of expression and the right to privacy (Nyst, 2016). While assuring cyber security, these rights may be compromised; so, the human rights approach aims to create legislation guaranteeing security while safeguarding civil liberties. One of the main liberties of people living in a democratic state is their freedom of expression as it guarantees their liberty of opinion. One should consider how the Cyber Security Act 2023 can affect expression of freedom. International human rights law holds that this right may be restricted if it is absolutely essential under certain circumstances, such as those pertaining to national security or defense of other people. Still, a cohesive legislative framework is required to guarantee that this restriction is not implemented inconsistently (Singh, 2023).

More importantly yet under international human rights conventions are our right to privacy. According to the UN General Assembly decision, nations have an obligation to protect the privacy of their citizens (UN General Assembly 2013). Under numerous conditions, the Cyber Security Act 2023 permits one to violate their right to privacy under different degrees in order of security. Clause ensuring accountability and transparency in overseeing activities and protection of personal rights should be included in cybersecurity regulations.

This article tries to suggest certain legislative changes depending on the present Cyber Security Act clauses and provisions, thereby safeguarding civil liberties. The vague and opaque language and crime definitions of the legislation might result in probable abuse (TIB, 2023.). Including the necessary changes in the Cyber Security Act 2023 would help Bangladesh to better conform with international human rights standards, therefore safeguarding the freedom and security of its people.

Cybersecurity Law: A Global Perspective
Cybersecurity laws across different countries take various approaches to protect citizens' rights. These laws are primarily enacted to safeguard public interest, ensure judicial oversight, and enhance security.

United States: Cybersecurity Information Sharing Act (CISA), 2015
A key aspect of this act is its focus on protecting information privacy and ensuring judicial oversight. The CISA promotes the exchange of cybersecurity threat information, particularly between public and private sectors. CISA not only emphasizes data protection but also includes provisions for necessary security during information exchange (Cybersecurity Information Sharing Act of 2015, 2015). Through this act, the U.S. has established an organized approach to preventing cyber threats. Overall, it has some elements that could play a significant role in developing Bangladesh's cybersecurity laws.

European Union: General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR), 2018
The European Union's GDPR safeguards the privacy of individuals and organizations. This law emphasizes transparency in data collection and processing and also has set an international standard for privacy rights (Baudot & Robson, 2017). Through GDPR, the EU has implemented strict controls on data usage alongside security measures. The characteristics of GDPR may be considered an effective model for both cybersecurity and personal rights protection of our country.

Australia: Cybersecurity Strategy 2020
Australia's Cybersecurity Strategy 2020 introduced a comprehensive framework for cybersecurity. It protects digital infrastructure and secures national interests. It involves collaboration between the government and private sector. So, it becomes an effective cybersecurity system and build public trust. (Australia's Cyber Security Strategy 2020, 2020).

India: Information Technology Act, 2000
India's Information Technology Act plays a significant role in addressing the security of electronic transactions, prevention of cybercrime, and protection of personal data. This act provides a structured framework for reducing cyber offenses, and protecting users' rights in India (Indian Parliament, 2000).

Singapore: Cybersecurity Act, 2018
Singapore's Cybersecurity Act 2018 protects essential information system. This act includes provisions for licensing and emergency response. Through this legislation, Singapore has upheld international standards for data protection. Thus, it is also a key model for cybersecurity (Cybersecurity Act 2018, 2018).

Comparative Analysis in the Context of Bangladesh
A review of these laws shows that various countries have aimed to balance public interest, privacy, and security in their cybersecurity legislation. In Bangladesh, however, the Cyber Security Act 2023 has raised concerns regarding vague provisions and potential misuse. These issues, such as unclear definitions and broad powers, present challenges in building public confidence in the law (TIB, 2023).

Table 1: Overview of Cybersecurity Acts and Regulations in Various Countries

Country	Cyber Security Act/Regulation	Key Features
United States	Cybersecurity Information Sharing Act (CISA)	This Act shares cybersecurity threat information between government and private sector; protects shared data from disclosure (*Cybersecurity Information Sharing Act of 2015*, 2015).
United Kingdom	Cyber Security Strategy (2022)	This Act Focuses on resilience, incident response, and improving cyber skills; includes measures for critical infrastructure protection (HM Government, 2022).
European Union	General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR)	GDPR Regulates data protection and privacy; includes provisions for data breach notifications and penalties for non-compliance (Baudot & Robson, 2017).
Australia	Cyber Security Strategy 2020	This Act Aims to strengthen Australia's cybersecurity posture; emphasizes collaboration with industry and international partners ("Australia's Cyber Security Strategy 2020," 2020).
India	Information Technology Act (2000)	The Information Technology Act Provides a legal framework for electronic governance, cybercrime, and cybersecurity. It also includes

Country	Cyber Security Act/Regulation	Key Features
		provisions for data protection (Indian Parliament, 2000).
Singapore	Cybersecurity Act (2018)	Cybersecurity Act Establishes a framework for the protection of critical information infrastructure and incident response; includes licensing for cybersecurity service providers (Cybersecurity Act 2018, 2018).
Japan	Cybersecurity Strategy	Cybersecurity Strategy Focuses on improving cybersecurity for government, private sectors, and individuals; emphasizes international cooperation and capacity building ("Gov. Japan," 2010).
South Africa	Cybercrimes Act (2020)	This Act Addresses cybercrime and cybersecurity; includes provisions for investigation and prosecution of cybercrimes (Government Gazette, 2021).
Russia	Federal Law on Information, Information Technologies and Protection of Information (2016)	This Law Regulates information security; emphasizes state control over information resources and cybersecurity measures for critical infrastructure (Federation, 2014).
Brazil	General Data Protection Law (LGPD)	This law Regulates data protection and privacy; requires organizations to implement security measures for personal data (*Brazilian Data Protection Law (LGPD)*, 2020).
France	Cyber Security Strategy (2016)	Cyber Security Strategy Focuses on protecting critical infrastructure and enhancing resilience against cyber threats; emphasizes cooperation with industry (Darwish & Romaniuk, 2021).
Italy	The Italian Cybersecurity Action Plan	This Plan Provides guidelines for cybersecurity governance; focuses on protecting national critical infrastructure (*THE ITALIAN CYBERSECURITY*, 2017).
Malaysia	Cybersecurity Malaysia Act (2020)	Cybersecurity Malaysia Act Establishes a framework for cybersecurity services and incident response; focuses on public and private sector collaboration (MCSS, 2020).

FREEDOM OF EXPRESSION AND PRIVACY RIGHTS: A HUMAN RIGHTS-BASED ANALYSIS

International Standards and the Role of Human Rights in Protecting Freedoms

Freedom of expression and the right to privacy are considered foundational in international human rights law. International documents such as the UDHR and ICCPR support this right. Freedom of expression includes the right to seek, receive, and impart information without interference, while privacy ensures individuals' control over their personal information (United Nations, 1948; United Nations, 1966). Scholars such as De Hert and Gutwirth (2021) argue that these rights are essential to democratic governance, as they allow for open discourse, personal autonomy, and protect against authoritarian surveillance. This foundation of human rights is critical for evaluating modern cybersecurity laws, particularly in how they balance state security concerns with civil liberties.

Freedom of Expression in the Digital Era

As digital platforms become central to public communication, cybersecurity laws have increasingly intersected with the right to freedom of expression. Scholars like MacKinnon (2022) suggest that the rise of digital surveillance tools has placed significant restrictions on free expression. Some countries passed broad and vague cyber legislation to abuse digital surveillance tools. This risk is very high in states with limited judicial oversight. It becomes worst where laws intended to curb misinformation, to suppress dissent and political opposition (MacKinnon, 2022; Singh, 2023). For example, Singh's (2023) study highlights that in many countries, such laws disproportionately affect journalists and activists, who may face penalties for critical reporting under the guise of cybersecurity concerns.

Additionally, Article 19 of the ICCPR stipulates that restrictions on freedom of expression must meet criteria of legality, necessity, and proportionality (UN Human Rights Committee, 1983). However, research by La Rue (2020) suggests that cyber laws often lack these safeguards, thereby creating a alarming effect on free speech. As in todays world, citizens rely heavily on digital platforms for expression so the citizens need clear definitions of cyber security.

Privacy Rights and the Intrusiveness of Cybersecurity Measures

Tension between cybersecurity measures and privacy protection has been noted worldwide. Generally, cyber laws empower authorities to monitor online activity in ways that may infringe upon privacy rights. The right to privacy, as outlined in Article 17 of the ICCPR, protects individuals from arbitrary or unlawful interference with their privacy, family, home, or correspondence. However, privacy is often compromised by cybersecurity laws that allow extensive data collection and surveillance (Nyst, 2016). Studies by Taylor and Floridi (2021) show that excessive data collection can erode individuals' sense of personal autonomy and create distrust toward government institutions.

Moreover, Binns and Veale (2020) argue that the digital transformation and the rapid development of surveillance technologies have made it challenging to protect privacy rights. They note that cybersecurity measures often include the storage of large amounts of data, which, if not managed securely, can lead to significant breaches of privacy. This concern is further supported by studies from Bedi (2019), which found that confidence decreases significantly when individuals perceive that their data could be accessed or misused anytime.

The Impact of Ambiguity in Cybersecurity Laws

Ambiguity in cybersecurity laws can lead to abuse because it affects freedom of expression and privacy. Research by Akdeniz and Gillespie (2019) suggests that vague language in cyber laws can be misinterpreted. Authorities justify wide-ranging surveillance measures with this misinterpretation. Similarly, Bigo et al. (2020) argue that this ambiguity not only undermines

legal clarity but also erodes public confidence in cybersecurity laws. If someone exercises their right to express opinions contrary to the state's stance, they are caught or arrested. Ambiguous terms, such as "national security threat" or "public order disturbance," are frequently cited in laws worldwide to justify actions against individuals.

The European Court of Human Rights (ECHR) has also noted the importance of legal clarity in cybersecurity legislation. In cases such as *Roman Zakharov v. Russia*, the ECHR held that surveillance measures must be adequately defined and subject to judicial oversight to prevent arbitrary interference (ECHR, 2015). Studies by Gill and Redden (2021) have also reinforced the view that this clarity is essential for protecting individual rights.

The Role of Public Trust in Cybersecurity Legislation

Lack of public trust badly impacts personal freedoms (Chan et al. 2022). According to Nyst (2016), citizens are more likely to support and comply with cybersecurity measures if they believe their rights are respected and protected. Therefore, lawmakers should strengthen national security efforts. International standards underscore the need for judicial oversight, clear legal definitions, and proportional limitations to avoid infringing on the fundamental rights. Insights from recent studies underline the need for legislative reforms that prioritize both security and civil liberties.

CONTROVERSIES OF DIGITAL SECURITY ACT 2018

A lot of disputations originated, in one way or another, from the moral grounds of the Act. Critics state that the law has been abused to restrict people's freedom of speech. Because section 57 of the ICT Act was retained in the legislation of 2023, albeit with certain revisions, the public felt that the law was more insecure. Defamation, hurting religious emotions, maintaining order, and inciting violence against any individual or group by publishing or disseminating any content via websites or electronic means were all included under Section 57.

It has punishment criteria in both fine sentences and imprisonment. Where prison punishment range starts from 10 years to 14 years. In certain situations, a police officer may search or detain a person without a warrant. Violation of DSA 2018 is considered 'non-bailable' crimes. Due to criticism that this section of the law is more harassing and prone to misuse, it has become even more notorious. A report by a renowned newspaper, The Business Standard expressed that 7001 DSA cases have been filed till January 31, 2023. The report also says that 80% of the cases filed by ruling party supporters against critics and opposition activities.

27.41% of cases have been filed against 355 journalists. A recent comparative analysis by Transparency International Bangladesh (TIB) has shown similarities between the DSA and the draft CSA. While the law of 2023 may carry a different name, key concerns regarding freedom of speech, dissent, and press freedom persist.

Additionally, a great deal of cases was brought against journalists, and several of them were detained under the DSA. As a result, a large number of journalists, NGOs, and civil society leaders spoke out against this Act and called for the DSA to be discontinued. Legislators have therefore ultimately prepared a new law titled Cyber Security Act, 2023 (CSA), which is thought to be the replacement for the DSA. The CSA considered the deficiencies of DSA.

Introducing The Cyber Security Act 2023

Initially the draft of the CSA was released on the ICT department's website on August 9, 2023. Within two weeks of its release, the stakeholders could review and comment on this draft. On August 28, 2023, the cabinet gave its final approval to the CSA draft after receiving and taking into account the opinions of the stakeholders. The Cyber Security Act 2023 got the approval

from the Honorable President of Bangladesh on September 18, 2023 and abolished the previous Digital Security Act 2018. The act has 60 sections. Among these, four sections are non-bailable. These are:

a. Section-17: Intrusion into important information infrastructures & others

b. Section-19: Damaging computers and computer systems

c. Section-27: Cyber terrorist acts and committing such crimes

d. Section-33: Hacking related crimes

IMPACT OF CYBER SECURITY ACT 2023 ON INDIVIDUAL RIGHTS

Comparison with Digital Security Act 2018
In defamation prosecutions brought under the Cyber Security Act 2023, which was just passed, monetary fines are imposed in lieu of jail time. In defamation situations, the police are not allowed to make an arrest (Section 29 of CSA 2023). The Cyber Security Act made certain offenses bailable that were non-bailable under the DSA. The new modifications have resulted in a shorter jail sentence for several offenders. The new version does away with the repeat offence punishment clauses.

A short comparison between Digital Security Act 2018 (DSA 2018) and Cyber Security Act 2023 (CSA 2023) has been shown below:

Offences	Penalties in DSA	Penalties in CSA
Section 21: Propaganda against the spirit of the Liberation war, the father of the nation, the national anthem or the national flag	10 year imprisonment or maximum fine of Tk. 1.00 crore	5 year imprisonment or Maximum fine of Tk. 1.00 Crore
Section 27: Committing Cyber Crime	14 year imprisonment or maximum fine of Tk. 1.00 crore	14 year imprisonment or maximum fine of Tk. 1.00 crore
Section 28: Offence of hurting religious sentiments	5 year imprisonment or maximum fine of Tk. 10.00 Lac	2 year imprisonment or maximum fine of Tk. 5.00 Lac
Section 29: Defamation in the context of news coverage	3 year imprisonment or maximum fine of Tk. 5.00 Lac	Maximum fine of Tk. 25 Lac
Section 31: Destroying communal harmony	7 year imprisonment or maximum fine of Tk. 5.00 Lac	5 year imprisonment or maximum fine of Tk. 25.00 Lac
Section 32 (CSA) /Section 34 (DSA) : Hacking	14 year imprisonment or maximum fine of Tk. 1.00 crore	14 year imprisonment or maximum fine of Tk. 1.00 crore

Data Removal or Blocking
Information that endangers public order or digital security may be blocked or removed under Section 08 of the Act. Although these measures may be necessary to deal with immediate

concerns, it is important to clarify the criteria and supervision procedures. To avoid censorship, it's also critical to make sure that the appeals procedure and decision-making process are transparent. Concerns are raised in this section about possible misuse, ambiguous terminology and possible effects on freedom of speech.

Vagueness and Potential Misuse

Vague phrases like "threat to digital security," "solidarity," "financial activities," and "religious values" are used in the Section 08. These phrases lack precise meanings, which leads to uncertainty and increases the possibility of sweeping interpretations by authorities. Due to its ambiguity, these laws may be abused to stifle free speech online and may result in arbitrary decision-making. The international human rights legislation orders to create objective rules for judging whether content genuinely endangers people or undermines solidarity.

Overbroad Restrictions on Expression

Section 25 of the Act criminalizes the publication or transmission of material that is insulting, false, or threatening. Section 28 makes it illegal to publish or transmit content that offends religious principles or sentiments. Although limiting harmful content is crucial, these clauses need to be carefully worded to prevent ambiguous language. International human rights legislation emphasizes that limitations on speech must be proportionate to a valid goal and precisely defined. Similar is also written in the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR).

Criminalization of Online Activities

Certain parts of the law (Sections 17 and 18) criminalize conduct that may not be punishable by harsh criminal laws, such as gaining unauthorized access to computers, computer systems, or networks. According to best practices, punishments ought to be appropriate for the seriousness of the offense and shouldn't unduly restrict a person's rights. Legitimate online activities may be discouraged by overcriminalization.

Violation of the Right to Privacy

Section 24 of the Act deals with identity fraud or personation, whereas Section 26 deals with the unlawful gathering or use of identification information. The right to privacy should be taken into consideration when analyzing these requirements. In order to prevent abuse, the Act should guarantee that the definition of approved authority is made explicit. The acquisition and use of personal data should abide by recognized data protection rules.

Investigation and Powers

The Act's Sections (38–42) provide the Investigating Officer specific authority to look into cybercrimes, including the ability to search and seize digital devices. Although these powers are required for an efficient inquiry, it's critical to make sure they are used properly with accountability. Moreover, There should be precautions against potential abuse and clear guidelines for obtaining search warrants and carrying out searches. Regulations in Sections 41 and 42 continue to govern the authority for search, seizure, and arrest with and without a warrant as the previous DSA 2018. When there is probable cause that an offense has been or will be committed under the Act, Sect. 41 requires obtaining a warrant. The police investigator has unduly extensive powers under Sections 40, 45, and 46, which run the possibility of being abused. This worry is further compounded by the lack of oversight mechanism for the process of seizing computers and personal property. These clauses are characterized by a lack of exact definition and ambiguous criteria.

POSITIVE ASPECT AND NEGATIVE ASPECT

After all, we can classify our findings into two broad categories: Positive aspect and Negative aspect. The aspects are mentioned as below:

Positive aspects

The CSA aims to strengthen cyber security measures in Bangladesh. It also protects individuals and organizations from cyber threats. The CSA provides an opportunity to modernize the legal framework governing cyber security. Therefore, The establishment of the National Cyber Security Council under the CSA is helpful to minimize cyber threats effectively. The CSA confirms protection of critical information infrastructure is highly important.

Negative aspects

Provisions of criminalizing speech, hostile speech and defamation within cyber security law can lead to undue restriction on the right to freedom of expression. Some provisions of the CSA contain vague and broad language, committing to potential misuse and arbitrary enforcement. The CSA lacks sufficient judicial oversight concerning the powers granted to officers for seizure of digital devices.

Potential Misuse: The Context of Bangladesh

Ambiguities in law can create significant risks for overreach and misuse. In the case of Bangladesh's Cyber Security Act, certain provisions are noted as restrictions on individual freedoms (TIB, 2023). For instance, "threats to digital security" or "content harmful to public order," can be broadly interpreted because these are vague terminology. Research shows that when laws are ambiguous, they can easily be weaponized to suppress dissent or limit political opposition (Bigo et al., 2020). Furthermore, the lack of precise definitions makes it challenging to understand what constitutes an offense under the act. Individuals might avoid expressing opinions for fear of legal repercussions.

To mitigate these risks, robust institutional and judicial oversight is essential. A transparent oversight mechanism could help prevent misuse. Enforcement actions under the act are grounded in clear, consistent legal standards (Binns & Veale, 2020). This section emphasizes that institutional mechanisms, such as independent review boards or human rights councils, could enhance the accountability of cybersecurity enforcement in Bangladesh.

International Standards and the Need for Legal Reforms in Bangladesh

Bangladesh must align cybersecurity laws with international standards. We need a balance between protecting human rights and ensuring digital security. International laws does not accept restrictions on rights, including digital rights; restrictions must be lawful, necessary, and proportionate (United Nations, 1966). For Bangladesh to comply with these standards, legal and procedural reforms are necessary to make cybersecurity legislation more transparent, accountable.

Another critical area for reform is the adoption of specific guidelines that clarify the scope and limitations of cybersecurity enforcement. For example, laws in the European Union, such as the GDPR, incorporate clear guidelines on data privacy. GDPR enforces mechanisms are both transparent and strictly regulated (Baudot & Robson, 2017). Similarly, according to the United Nations cybersecurity laws should include safeguards against arbitrary surveillance and provide a clear, legal basis for any data collection activities (UN General Assembly, 2013). Reforms in Bangladesh's Cyber Security Act could include establishing independent bodies to oversee enforcement actions. Citizens have the right to accessible recourse mechanisms to challenge any unjust actions in the name of CSA. Furthermore, the ambiguous terms within the law would limit misuse by targeting only at genuine cyber threats (Akdeniz & Gillespie, 2019).

FUTURE RESEARCH

Future research could explore public perceptions of the Cyber Security Act 2023 over time. Comparative studies on the implementation and public reception of cybersecurity laws in

various countries, particularly within South Asia, could provide deeper insights. Additionally, longitudinal studies on the practical enforcement of the CSA 2023 would further contribute to understanding the balance between cybersecurity and individual rights.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, alignment with international standards would support Bangladesh in developing a cybersecurity law. We must protect national interests without compromising individual freedoms. This section provides recommendations for legal and procedural reforms that could help Bangladesh create a balanced approach to cybersecurity governance. It can be said that the latest Cyber Security Act 2023 has both positive and negative sides. Considering these challenges, it is obvious that there is a pressing need for policymakers in Bangladesh to review and reform some sections mentioned in the Cyber Security Act 2023. Clarification of vague provisions will enhance transparency and accountability mechanisms and uphold international human rights standards. By adopting a rights-based approach to cybersecurity governance, Bangladesh can effectively address cyber threats. At the same time government will not fail to uphold the principles of democracy, rule of law, and respect for human rights.

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DEVELOPING A STRATEGIC MODEL FOR CURRENT ULAMA'S MOVEMENTS AND POLITICAL ENGAGEMENT: LESSONS FROM THE CONTRIBUTIONS OF ULAMA IN COMBATING BRITISH COLONIZATION

MD BANI EAMIN MIAZEE[1]

ABSTRACT

Contemporary ulama often face challenges in uniting diverse Muslim communities around shared goals. This paper seeks to identify the strategic lessons from the past that can enhance the effectiveness of current movements led by ulama. This paper proposes a strategic model for contemporary ulama' movements and political engagement, drawing on historical lessons from the contributions of ulama during British colonization. By analyzing their mobilization strategies, community engagement, and political activism, this study aims to identify effective approaches for current ulama to address contemporary challenges while promoting unity within the Muslim community. The historical context of British colonization in India serves as a critical backdrop for understanding the role of ulama in shaping Muslim identity and political involvement. This paper examines how the ulama effectively organized communities, advocated for rights, and resisted colonial oppression, providing valuable insights for today's ulama engaged in similar movements and political activities.

KEYWORDS

Ulama's Movement, Political Engagement, British Colonization, Strategic Model.

INTRODUCTION

The participation of the Ulama during British colonization of the Indian subcontinent offers important insights on their role in politics and religion. Apart from being religious leaders, these Islamic intellectuals were also political activists aiming to preserve the Muslim identity against policies of British colonialism. Organizing the Muslim people around religious identity, the ulama significantly contributed to combat colonial dominance heart and soul. However, the complexity of identity politics shaped the Indian Ulama's activities even as they sought religious, cultural, and political self-determination. This paper explores the lessons

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acquired from their contributions as well as their relevance in understanding the dynamics of modern politics of the Ulamas of Bangladesh.

The British colonial authorities carefully undermined Muslims' political, social, and religious identity in the Indian subcontinent. The Ulama started several movements aimed to protest British control and question the erasing of Muslim identity. But especially in handling the complex horizon of identity politics, their efforts were sometimes erratic and faced both internal and external challenges. This paper tries to clarify the strategic successes and weaknesses of the ulama's activities against colonial identity politics as well as its applicability to modern Islamic or Muslim political movements.

The Motivation Of The Paper

In the current curriculum of Bangladesh Studies and History of the Emergence of Bangladesh, there is a notable absence in covering the significant contributions of ulama (Islamic scholars) and their role in resisting British colonial rule. While these subjects aim to educate students on the historical evolution of Bangladesh, they fail to adequately explore the key figures and movements led by Islamic scholars who played vital roles in opposing British colonialism and preserving the Muslim identity in Bengal and beyond. This paper seeks to address this gap by exploring the contributions of influential Islamic leaders such as Haji Shariatullah, Dudu Mian, Shah Waliullah, and others who spearheaded movements like the Faraizi Movement and the reformist ideas of Shah Waliullah. These scholars not only resisted British rule but also worked tirelessly to reform Muslim society, challenging both colonial oppression and internal social issues.

Incorporating the contributions of Haji Shariatullah, Dudu Mian, Shah Waliullah, and other Islamic leaders into the curriculum will offer a more comprehensive understanding of the anti-colonial and religious reform movements that shaped the history of Bengal and the Indian subcontinent. These figures played a crucial role in resisting both colonial and social oppression, and their legacy is essential for educating Generation Z about the intertwined struggles of religious, cultural, and political identity in this region. Including their contributions in the subjects of Bangladesh Studies and History of Emergence of Bangladesh will provide students with a comprehensive picture of the liberation struggle and the vital role Islamic scholars played in it.

Theoretical Framework

Theory of identity politics to examines how people and groups coordinate around specific aspects of their identity—such as religion, ethnicity, or nationality—helps to achieve their political aims. This inspiration is essential for understanding their political dynamics. Most importantly, it sheds light on the dynamics of British colonial control in India.

Party politics turned become a necessary instrument for both the native Indians and the British officials. Using a 'divide and rule' strategy, the British created divisions between religious and ethnic groups so maintaining their power. The ulama consequently aimed to boost Muslim identity as a means of resistance against colonial persecution. This approach helped the ulama explain the bigger dynamics of political struggle and cultural preservation (Mamdani, 2018).

At the same time was the British educational system in India serving as a control tool. Seeing Muslims as main rivals, the British East India Company gradually gave Muslims less control over their subcontinent. Therefore, the educational system was deliberately created to discredit Muslim identity. Under this strategy, the Muslim community suffered much and also produced major social, financial, religious, cultural, legal, political, institutional, legal, and legal concerns. Undercutting Islamic education and adopting a

Western-centric curriculum, the British aimed to discredit the foundation of Muslim civilization, therefore enhancing their colonial dominance (Momen et al., 2024).

Their Muslim identification drove the ulama most of the time to reject British colonialism. Activities like the Khilafat movement and the expansion of Islamic educational institutions helped the Muslim populace to maintain their religious and cultural identity in face of colonial persecution (Robinson, 2005). These programs could be considered as examples of identity politics, in which the ulama came together around religious identity to challenge government rule. But the conflict within Muslims between modernists and traditionalists undermined the unity of these activities. Moreover underscoring the limits of identity politics in realizing political objectives is the fall of the Khilafat movement, primarily resulting from internal divisions and outside political events (Zaman, 2007).

On the other hand, the British colonists weakened anti-colonial opposition by segregating Muslims and Hindus, therefore reducing their opposition by means of identity politics. Though their response was founded on religious solidarity, the *ulama's* usually failed to mend the political split generated by colonial policy. Their inability to form bigger alliances with other anti-colonial groups—especially Hindus—added more difficulty to the ulama's operations. Notwithstanding these challenges, the *ulama* founded important institutions like Deoband, which today contribute to sustain Islamic identity by means of continuous impact (Metcalf & Metcalf, 2012).

The battles of the *ulama* against colonialism in British India offer thorough analysis of the advantages and drawbacks of national politics. Though they were successful in motivating Muslim identity to oppose British authority, internal discord and deliberate identity manipulation by colonial authorities undermined their objectives. Their difficulties emphasize the difficulty of weaponizing identity politics in political opposition. These historical lessons should first be followed among contemporary groups aimed at controlling the junction of religion, politics, and cultural identity in a global society.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Literature on the Ulama's political and religious activity occur in articles on their role during British colonizing. Metcalf (Metcalf, 2014) emphasizes the ulama's essential participation in organizations like the Deobandi movement, which tried to protect Islamic education and traditions against colonial attack. Robinson (2003) focuses at the larger Islamic rebirth in South Asia as well as the tactics Muslim academics used to question British rule. Ali (2023) also offers analysis of how Islamic modernity and revivalism interacted with ulama political goals. Still, there is little research on how these movements may be seen through the prism of identity politics, especially with regard to their achievements and constraints.

Under British colonial control, India—especially Bengal—saw notable political, social, and cultural transformation between 1757 and 1947. For Muslims, particularly ulama (Islamic academics) and the larger Muslim community, the British policies and acts throughout this age had left major impact on the later Muslim initiatives.

Political Suppression and Control

After the Battle of Plassey in 1757, the British East India Company began to take control of Bengal, therefore marginalizing already established Muslim power institutions. Policies the British developed reduce the influence of the ulama in government and education and hence undermine the authority of local Muslim leaders (Ali, 2023). Adoption of English language in administrative and court institutions and British legislation further alienated Muslims, who were sometimes less fluent in English (Metcalf & Metcalf, 2012).

Economic Displacement

Especially the use of land revenue systems such as the Permanent Settlement, British economic policies unfairly affected Muslim farmers and landowners. Many Muslims lost their land and means of life due to exploitative levies and the incursion of non-Muslim landlords. This economic migration compounded social unrest and Bengal's Muslim elite's collapse (Ray, 1974).

Religious Conflict and Reform in Education

The Western-style educational system the British set excluded traditional Islamic education. As English-medium education gained popularity, the ulama—who kept Islamic knowledge— saw their roles reduced (Purwokerto et al., 2023). Encouragement of English and secular education further alienated Muslim communities, leading to declining madrasas and religious institutions.

Policies In Social And Religious Spheres

Often increasing community tensions between Hindus and Muslims, the British applied a divide and rule approach. Policies that offered some groups administrative responsibilities while excluding others obviously displayed this (Xypolia, 2016). The British also interfered in religious matters, supporting various Islamic interpretations that would meet colonial goals, therefore separating the Muslim population.

Reform Movement Advocacy and Opposition Movement

Reacting to British policy, several reform projects among Muslims in Bengal developed Emphasizing the value of education and flexibility to fit the new political reality, the late 19th-century Aligarh Movement under Sir Syed Ahmed Khan aimed at modernizing Muslim education and advancing social reform sought to harmonize Islamic ideals with modernism (Noreen, 2023).

From 1757 to 1947, British colonial power caused Muslims and the ulama in Bengal much hardship and usually bad effects. Their political power, steady economy, and educational systems were significantly undermined, therefore causing long-lasting disturbances in the social fabric of Muslim populations.

CONTRIBUTION OF ULAMA TO RESIST THE BRITISH CHALLENGES

The marginalization of Muslims and the ulama, Muslim leaders and intellectuals made several deliberate actions to address the challenges provided by British colonial control. These strategies aimed to keep Islamic identity, restore political power, and improve living conditions.

Shah Waliullah and His Reformist Vision

The crucial figure in the fight against British influence was Shah Waliullah of Delhi, who laid the intellectual foundation for Islamic reform in the subcontinent. Shah Waliullah advocated for a return to the original principles of Islam, emphasizing the need for social justice and the unity of the Muslim ummah (community). His works inspired later movements, including the Mujahidin Movement led by Sayyid Ahmad Barelvi, which aimed to fight against British colonialism and Hindu domination. Shah Waliullah's teachings called for the revival of Islamic governance and influenced generations of scholars and activists who sought to resist foreign rule and restore Muslim political and religious authority.

Shah Waliullah (1703–1762) was a prominent Islamic scholar and reformer in the Indian subcontinent who is renowned for his efforts to revive and reform Islamic thought and practice. His influence laid the foundation for several later Islamic movements in India, including resistance to British colonial rule.

Early Life and Education
Born in Delhi, Shah Waliullah received his early education in Islamic sciences from his father, Shah Abdur Rahim, the founder of Madrasa Rahimiya. He later traveled to Mecca for advanced studies, where he was influenced by the reformist currents of the time, including the Wahhabi movement, which called for a return to the pure and unadulterated teachings of Islam. Upon returning to India, he became a leading figure in Islamic scholarship.

Reformist Vision
Shah Waliullah's reformist vision was based on the need for social justice, moral revival, and the unity of the Muslim ummah (community). He saw the declining power of the Mughal Empire and the growing influence of foreign powers as a crisis for Muslims in India. His central mission was to renew and purify Islamic practices, which he believed had been corrupted by innovations (bid'ah) and cultural influences that diverged from core Islamic teachings.

His reforms had several key aspects:

Religious Revival
Shah Waliullah emphasized a return to the Quran and Hadith, rejecting superstitious practices and deviations from true Islamic principles. He also translated the Quran into Persian, making it accessible to a wider audience.

Social Justice
He was deeply concerned with the economic inequality and oppression in society. He advocated for just governance based on Islamic principles, calling for the rulers to ensure fairness and protect the rights of the poor and marginalized.

Political Unity
Shah Waliullah believed that the fragmentation of the Muslim political authority in India weakened the community. He called for unity among Muslims, transcending sectarian and regional divisions, to resist external threats and internal decay.

Jihad and Resistance
He also encouraged Muslim rulers and scholars to wage jihad (struggle) against oppressive forces, particularly the Marathas and later the British, who were gaining power in India. He believed that a morally strong and unified Muslim society could resist foreign domination.

Legacy and Impact
Shah Waliullah's ideas laid the intellectual groundwork for later movements, such as the Mujahidin Movement led by Sayyid Ahmad Barelvi, which fought against British colonialism and Hindu dominance. His emphasis on religious and political unity, social justice, and resistance to foreign rule inspired many generations of Muslim scholars and activists. His work significantly shaped Islamic thought in the Indian subcontinent, influencing movements like the Deobandi Movement and the Khilafat Movement. Shah Waliullah is also remembered as a visionary who sought to restore Islamic values and unite the Muslim community at a time of great political and social upheaval.

Haji Shariatullah and the Faraizi Movement
Another most significant figures in this context is Haji Shariatullah, the founder of the Faraizi Movement in the early 19th century. Shariatullah, after studying in Mecca, returned to Bengal and launched the Faraizi Movement, which emphasized the importance of adhering strictly to Islamic duties (farāʾiḍ). The movement sought to purify Islamic practices among Bengali Muslims and resist both British exploitation and the influence of Hindu landlords, who often oppressed Muslim peasants. By focusing on religious reforms and resisting non-Islamic practices, the movement not only provided a spiritual revival but also empowered the Muslim peasantry against colonial oppression (Karim, 2024).

Haji Shariatullah (1781–1840) was a prominent Islamic reformer and the founder of the Faraizi Movement in Bengal during the early 19th century. His movement sought to revive and reform Islamic practices among the Muslim peasantry, focusing on adherence to Islamic duties (known as faraid) and challenging both British colonial rule and the influence of Hindu landlords over the Muslim community.

Early Life and Influence

Haji Shariatullah was born in the village of Shanir Akhra, near Dhaka, Bengal. He traveled to Mecca for pilgrimage in his early years and spent nearly 20 years in the Islamic holy cities, where he was influenced by the Wahhabi reformist movement, which sought to purify Islamic practices from local customs and innovations (bid'ah). On his return to Bengal in the early 1800s, he was appalled by the widespread neglect of Islamic practices, the syncretism between Hindu and Muslim traditions, and the oppression of Muslim peasants by Hindu zamindars (landowners) and British authorities.

The Faraizi Movement: A Call for Islamic Reform

In response to these conditions, Haji Shariatullah initiated the Faraizi Movement around 1818, which urged Muslims to strictly adhere to their religious obligations or farāʾiḍ, such as prayer (salat), fasting (sawm), charity (zakat), and pilgrimage (hajj). The movement's name, 'Faraizi,' comes from the Arabic word 'farāʾiḍ,' meaning obligatory duties. It sought to eliminate non-Islamic practices that had crept into local Muslim communities, such as the celebration of religious festivals with Hindu customs, and focused on returning to the pure tenets of Islam.

Haji Shariatullah emphasized that Muslims should abandon superstitions and innovations in religious practices. They should refrain from participating in religious festivals or customs that were influenced by Hindu traditions. They must be aware of their rights and resist oppression, especially by Hindu landlords and the British colonial regime.

Social and Political Dimensions

The Faraizi Movement had a dual religious and political purpose. While it aimed to purify Islamic practices, it also became a form of social resistance against the oppression faced by Bengali Muslims. The Muslim peasantry in Bengal, especially in the Nadia, Faridpur, and Dhaka districts, were heavily exploited by Hindu landlords under the Permanent Settlement Act of 1793, which imposed high taxes and led to widespread poverty.

Haji Shariatullah's movement encouraged Muslims to unite and resist this exploitation. He argued that paying taxes to Hindu landlords, particularly on religious grounds, was un-Islamic. This resistance took the form of non-cooperation and organized efforts to boycott Hindu landlords, which had a significant socio-political impact in the region. The movement also resisted the growing influence of Christian missionaries who, with the support of the British, were actively converting Muslims and Hindus.

Expansion Under Dudu Mian

After Haji Shariatullah's death in 1840, his son Dudu Mian (Muhammad Mohsin) continued and expanded the movement. Dudu Mian not only promoted religious reform but also organized the Muslim peasants into a more active resistance force against the British colonial system and the Hindu zamindars. He advocated for land reforms and tax resistance, positioning the Faraizi Movement as a political challenge to both the British and local Hindu landlords.

Dudu Mian, Shariatullah's son, continued his father's work and expanded the Faraizi Movement, organizing peasants to resist unjust taxes and the exploitation of zamindars (landowners). Under Dudu Mian's leadership, the movement took on a more socio-political stance, directly challenging British authorities and local landlords, thus becoming a critical

part of the larger anti-colonial struggle in Bengal. The contributions of both Haji Shariatullah and Dudu Mian are pivotal to understanding the early resistance movements in Bengal that combined religious reform with socio-political activism.

Under Dudu Mian, the movement became more militant, focusing on the socio-economic emancipation of the oppressed Muslim peasantry. He established a structured organization to enforce the principles of the Faraizi Movement and led several confrontations with British authorities and Hindu landlords. Dudu Mian's leadership gave the movement a broader reach, turning it into a mass peasant movement.

Opposition and Repression

Both the British authorities and the Hindu zamindars viewed the Faraizi Movement as a threat. The British were concerned about its growing influence among the Muslim peasantry, which led to increased surveillance and repression of Faraizi leaders. Haji Shariatullah and Dudu Mian were repeatedly targeted by the authorities, facing imprisonment and property confiscation.

The movement, however, succeeded in raising political awareness among Bengali Muslims and reinforcing their Islamic identity. It laid the groundwork for later political movements in Bengal, including the Muslim League and the demand for a separate Muslim state, which eventually led to the creation of Pakistan in 1947.

Legacy of Faraizi Movement

The Faraizi Movement is considered one of the earliest Islamic reform movements in Bengal, with its legacy influencing subsequent anti-colonial and religious movements in the region. Haji Shariatullah is remembered for his efforts to combine religious purification with socio-political resistance, empowering the Muslim peasantry to resist oppression and stand up for their rights.

His movement also helped to preserve Islamic identity in a region where Muslims were under cultural and economic pressure from both British colonial rulers and the dominant Hindu landlords. The Faraizi Movement played a crucial role in shaping the consciousness of Bengali Muslims, who later became instrumental in the struggle for independence from British rule.

Both Haji Shariatullah and the Faraizi Movement were pivotal in the religious and political awakening of Bengal's Muslim population. The movement not only revived Islamic practices but also sowed the seeds of resistance against colonial and feudal exploitation, marking a significant chapter in the history of Bengal's journey towards independence.

THE ROLE OF OTHER ULAMA IN BENGAL'S LIBERATION STRUGGLE

These movements, alongside the Deoband Movement and the Khilafat Movement, demonstrate the crucial role that Islamic scholars and activists played in resisting British colonialism in India and Bengal. The Deobandi Movement, established in 1867, aimed to preserve Islamic knowledge through traditional madrasas while resisting Western influences. Similarly, the Khilafat Movement, led by figures like Maulana Muhammad Ali and Maulana Shaukat Ali, mobilized Muslims across the subcontinent to protect the Ottoman Caliphate and oppose British imperialism. Although the movement ultimately failed, it created lasting political consciousness among Indian Muslims.

Movements in Religious Reform and Education

The Deobandi movement (founded in 1866) was a significant attempt to preserve Islamic knowledge by means of madrassas therefore improving traditional Islamic education. This movement aimed to protect Muslims against Christian missionary activities and Western influences (Metcalf, 2014). Similarly, the Aligarh Movement established in 1875 focused on modern, English-based education to allow Muslims compete in the colonial government while

maintaining their Islamic identity. Established in 1894, the Nadwatul Ulama combined traditional Islamic education with modern disciplines to create a midway ground between religious purity and assimilation into modern society (Robinson, 1998).

The Evolution Of Muslim Political Organizations

Muslims also demand political representation. Originally founded in 1906, the All India Muslim League aimed to protect Muslim interests and so backed the creation of Pakistan under Muhammad Ali Jinnah. Originally developed in 1919, the Jamiat Ulema-e-Hind worked with the Indian National Congress to advance Hindu-Muslim cooperation in a secular, independent India (Zaman, 2007).

Involvement in the Anti-Colonial Movement

Rising to defend the Ottoman Caliphate, the Khilafat Movement (1919) brought Muslims opposing British policy together. Though its principal goal fell short, it increased political awareness among Indian Muslims and increased their participation in anti-colonial movements (Robinson, 2005). Many ulama also supported Gandhi's non-cooperative campaign meant for a boycott of British establishments (Metcalf, 2014).

Restitution in Islam and Social Reforms

Emphasizing moral and spiritual reform, groups like Ahl-i-Hadiths and Tablighi Jamaat drove Muslims back toward Islamic values. Though politically neutral, these projects considerably enhanced the religious identity of the Muslim minority during colonial control (Zaman, 2007).

Intellectual and Literary Movements

Allama Iqbal and Sir Syed Ahmed Khan were Islamic modernists hoping to link Islam with modernity. Maintaining Islamic ideals, they emphasized the need for contemporary science and technology (Ali, 2023). Intellectuals also spread ideas of reform and political opposition via literature, newspapers, and journals, hence strengthening a feeling of Islamic identity (Robinson, 2003).

Legal and Institutional Development

Most importantly to finance social welfare and religious education, Muslim leaders fought to preserve Islamic personal law and waqf (charitable endowments). In the face of British colonial control, these institutions helped the community to keep its autonomy (Hardy, 1972).

By means of educational reforms, political organization, social movements, and participation in anti-colonial operations, Muslims and ulama in India aimed to overcome the challenges provided by British rule. These strategies will help to preserve Islamic identity and prepare the society for a post-colonial future.

ISLAMIC REVIVALISM: STRATEGIC DIFFICULTIES AND PAST AND PRESENT SUCCESS AND FAILURE

Both historical and modern Islamic revivalist movements have faced certain challenges that have led to their rise and collapse. Usually aiming at renewing Islamic principles inside Muslim countries and reacting to modernization or external threats, the Ulama have battled to be long-lasting successful. Analyzing these movements closely exposes both internal and external strategy flaws as well as an insufficient basis for mass mobilization preparation.

Failures in the Past

Islamic revivalist organizations as the Deobandi and Khilafat movements came against tremendous outside pressure. Initiated in the early 20th century, the Khilafat Movement aimed to defend the Ottoman Caliphate but British opposition and geopolitical issues primarily led to its collapse. Great Muslim participation nonetheless, the campaign lacked logical goals and cohesive leadership, which finally disappointed people (Robinson, 2005). Though the Deobandi movement was effective in preserving Islamic education, its focus on religious

revival over political strategy prevented it from meaningfully altering the greater political context of British India (Metcalf, 2014).

Modern Age Failures

Modern time Islamic revivalist movements as Salafist groups and the Muslim Brotherhood have also fought to maintain momentum. One of the reasons behind their downfall is their inability to fit the complexity of modern politics. For instance, the Muslim Brotherhood in Egypt has alternated between opposing authoritarian governments and pursuing political power by democratic means, therefore generating both internal conflict and outside persecution (Browers, 2009). Lack of a coherent vision and strategic plan results in these movements often failing to appropriately negotiate the political terrain.

Strategic Motives for Failure

One obvious similarity between previous and contemporary movements are deliberate miscalculations of both. Both historical and modern Islamic revivalist groups occasionally not prepared for mass engagement**.** One of the most significant objections of Islamic revivalist groups is their tendency to inspire large portions of the people without appropriate preparation. Leaders can urge widespread participation in rallies, revolutions, or social movements even without first ensuring their followers are fully equipped in terms of education, political awareness, or strategic purposes (Zaman, 2007). This has led to disorderly activity easily discouraged by government officials or disintegrates in absence of guidance. Not preparing their base not only lowers the movement's effectiveness but also fuels burnout and discontent among its supporters.

overlook the importance of establishing internal cohesion and acquiring outside alliances before attempting broad mobilization. Overwhelming mass engagement without sufficient political strategy or organizational readiness has led to their collapse (Zaman, 2007). Many times, the ulama and their leaders choose ideological purity and theological disputes over the pragmatic features of government and realism.

The Continuity of Ulama in Strategic Turns or Revivalism

Most importantly, ulama either have modified their strategy or keep applying the same revivalist methods. As seen from places like Deoband and Al-Azhar, the ulama have in many aspects fulfilled their historic role as defenders of Islamic knowledge. Still, some businesses have changed on purpose. For example, whereas Jamiat Ulema-e-Hind in the past focused on non-cooperation with colonial authorities, current Islamic movements as the Tablighi Jamaat have adopted a more apolitical position, prioritizing grassroots religious renewal without direct political involvement (Metcalf, 2014). This shift can be seen as an admission of the flaws in prior programs meant for political domination without appropriate preparedness.

Problems, inside as well as outside

Both currently and historically, the internal and external challenges Islamic revivalism encounters also greatly help to explain its failure. Within movements, factionalism and ideological rigidity can lead to their incapacity to adapt to new political circumstances (Browers, 2009). Externally, considerable obstacles arise from the animosity of state apparatues against any form of Islamic political comeback as well as from the policies of world powers. Many revivalist movements, for example, have been targeted by totalitarian governments, therefore preventing their development of the political basis needed to carry out the goal of Ulama (Robinson, 1998). Mostly from strategic miscalculations and a lack of internal unity, past and present Islamic revivalist movements have failed. Ulama still help to revive the spirit of Islam, but their strategies have evolved to match political reality; others have chosen apolitical grassroots involvement. Still, these movements often inspire plenty of people without appropriate preparation, which leads to their demise. Islamic revivalists who

aspire to be successful in the future have to develop more logical and coherent strategies while handling both internal disintegration and external forces.

REASONS FOR THE POLITICAL FAILING OF THE ULAMA

Both internal and foreign reasons have been blamed for the political failure of the ulama—Islamic scholars—in the Indian subcontinent. Scholars have examined this failing in terms of political, educational, and ideological constraints.

Lack of Unity and Coordination

The ulama could not present a united political front and were often split along sectarian lines—e.g., Sunni-Shia, Deobandi-Barelvi. Their own conflicts undermined their combined political might and impact. Although some ulama opposed British colonial control, others were more concerned in safeguarding Islamic customs and education, hence generating different political agendas.

Focus on Religious Reform over Politics

Many ulama gave religious reform top importance, above political involvement. Rather than direct political opposition to colonialism, movements as the Deobandi and Barelvi schools concentrated on cleansing religious rituals, Islamic education, and moral changes. Ulama typically failed to actively participate in the nationalist movements that arose in the 19th and 20th centuries since their emphasis on religious purity over political activity.

Absence of Modern Education and Political Awareness

The ulama were mainly cut off from the British-introduced modern political and administrative structures. Their conventional education at religious madrassas lacked the knowledge or tools needed to negotiate the shifting political terrain, which was progressively shaped by Western conceptions of democracy, law, and government. Many Muslim elites left the ulama as the British colonial administration promoted Western-style education, creating a gulf between political and religious authority.

Suppression and Persecution by the British

Following the 1857 Rebellion—also known as the Indian Mutiny—which many ulama backed as a jihad against British rule—the British actively persecuted the ulama. Key religious leaders were executed, banished, or imprisoned, so reducing their political organizing capacity. Further erasing the financial and institutional influence of the ulama, the British also seized endowments (waqf) supporting religious institutions.

Failure to Adapt to Modern Political Realities

Many ulama lacked a complete awareness of the shifting political reality of the Indian subcontinent, particularly in view of the emergence of nationalism and the Indian National Congress (INC). Their orthodox posture often turned them off from the more general anti-colonial movement. Additionally cautious of working with non-Muslim political groups like the INC, which reduced their political influence.

Division of the Idea of Nationalism

The ulama disagreed over nationalism. While some ulama—such as those connected to the Deobandi movement—regardless of religion—favored the notion of a united, independent India—others, like the leaders of the Jamiat Ulema-e-Hind (JUH), backed a separate Muslim state, hence producing Pakistan. Their general political efficacy suffered from this ideological divide since they could not show a consistent reaction to the colonial rule.

Can we Accept Political Failure of Ulama

Despite challenges the Ulama achieved a lot of success which was not for immediate gain rather for long lasting change. Whatever they achieved, could do it with limited resources though remained thankless even in the writings.

The thesis of political failure concerning the ulama in the Indian subcontinent is based on their incapacity to properly move from traditional religious authority to modern political authority. One can conceive this failure as follows:The ulama were cut off from current political, social, and economic reality. Their conventional schooling did not equip them for involvement in a political system grounded in secular, Western leadership. The British colonial government relentlessly suppressed Islamic establishments that had supported the ulama for ages. The British undermined the ulama's institutional foundation by seizing endowments and regulating Islamic education, therefore impeding their political mobilization ability.

Deep religious disagreements among the ulama prevented them from creating a unified political group. Their combined political influence was reduced by this fragmentation, which also made them useless in opposing colonial control or launching nationalist movements. The ulama were mainly barred from positions of influence in the colonial government since they insisted on preserving traditional Islamic education while rejecting the contemporary, secular educational systems. They thus lacked influence on important political choices impacting mass Muslims.

CHALLENGES FACED BY BANGLADESHI *ULAMA* IN VARIOUS MODERN MOVEMENTS

Historically, Bangladesh's ulama—Islamic intellectuals—have been very important in social, political, and religious movements. But in the present period, individuals encounter various obstacles that restrict their impact and capacity to lead or engage actively in movements. These difficulties can be classified as internal, external, and strategic ones, which have impacted their potential to solve modern society issues and remain relevant in a world going more globalized.

Internal fragmentation and ideological divisions

Internal fragmentation is one of the main issues ulama from Bangladesh deal with. Within the Islamic tradition, several schools of thought—Deobandi, Barelvi, Ahl-i-Hadiths, Tablighi Jamaat—often vie for dominance and authority. These ideological disagreements cause fractures among the ulama community, therefore impairing their collective capacity to handle more general society problems (Zaman, 2007). For instance, some ulama support contemporary educational changes while others concentrate on traditional religious education and rites. All ulama find it challenging to present a coherent front in social or political activities due to this lack of unity.

Political marginalization and co-optation

For the ulama, Bangladesh's political scene has also presented a great difficulty. Political parties have traditionally either excluded or appropriated ulama for their own benefit. Particularly since independence in 1971, secularism's emergence in Bangladeshi politics has constrained ulama's direct political influence. Although some ulama-led groups, like Jamaat-e-Islami, have engaged in politics. Some Ulama have been further excluded in the larger political debate by their identification with conservative or extremist components.

Loss of Relevance in Globalized Contexts

The ulama of Bangladesh today likewise fight to remain relevant in a world fast globalizing. Younger generations are turning to secular education and modern professions more and more, therefore diminishing the power of conventional religious institutions. Rising worldwide Islamic ideologies like Salafism or Islamism have also generated rivalry among Muslims in Bangladesh for influence. The ulama's conventional emphasis on local or regional religious matters sometimes restricts their appeal to a more internationally conscious and linked Muslim community (Wohab, 2023).

Inadequate Engagement with Contemporary Issues

The ulama's poor interaction with modern socio-economic and political concerns is another crucial issue. Although many ulama neglect urgent modern issues as poverty, corruption, injustice, or climate change, they are regarded as stewards of religious knowledge. Their unwillingness to include contemporary knowledge, technology, and multidisciplinary techniques into their perspective on Islam makes it challenging for them to present answers that appeal to Muslims of today. This distance from daily challenges lessens their impact in social movements (Metcalf, 2014).

Extremism and radicalization

Particularly in rural areas, a small portion of Bangladeshi ulama has been connected to radicalization and extremism. These components can center on the demand of rigid interpretations of Islamic law and resistance to supposed Western influence. Such inclinations have led to conflicts throughout the larger Islamic community in Bangladesh since more extremist elements can drown out moderate and progressive voices inside Islam. This link with extremism has resulted in more government and security agency monitoring, hence aggravating the ulama's position in contemporary movements (Talukder, 2024).

Leading or joining modern movements presents many difficulties for Bangladesh's ulama. Their impact has been restricted by internal conflicts, political marginalization, and a lack of interaction with modern concerns. Although some ulama have changed by engaging in charity work or teaching, their general influence in Bangladeshi society is still limited by both internal and outside events. The ulama have to interact more with modern socio-economic issues, heal ideological differences, and redefine their role in a globalized world if they are to participate more actively in solving the problems of modern Bangladesh.

Evaluation of Successes and Failures of the Movements of Ulama During British Colonization

From 1757 to 1947, British colonization of India fundamentally changed the political, social, and religious scene of the Indian subcontinent. Responding to British imperialism, Muslim leaders and ulama—Islamic scholars—combined opposition, reform, and adaptation. Several important Islamic movements and political challenges aiming at preserving Muslim identity, safeguarding of religious institutions, and opposition to British rule emerged during the colonial era With an eye toward their social, political, and theological challenges to British colonialism, this literature review investigates the activities of Muslim leaders and ulama. It evaluates also the achievements and shortcomings of these movements as well as their long-lasting influence on the Indian subcontinent.

Political Struggles and Movements Against British Rule

Muslim political opposition to British colonization manifested numerous ways. Notable Muslim leaders participated in military conflicts and upheavals including the First War of Independence, sometimes known as the Indian Rebellion of 1857, early in the colonial era. Muslim unhappiness over British intervention in religious rituals and their loss of political power following the fall of the Mughal Empire drove some of the uprising (Metcalf, 2014). Though their attempts were finally fruitless, leading to the further entrenchment of British rule, leaders like Bahadur Shah Zafar, the last Mughal emperor, became iconic figures in the opposition.

The Muslim community become more ordered in their political activities during the late 19th and early 20th centuries. Notable people like Sir Syed Ahmad Khan turned the emphasis from military opposition to political discussion and reform of education. Emphasizing modern education for Muslims to equip them for involvement in colonial government, Sir Syed started the Aligarh Movement. Though some ulama attacked him for his pro-British posture, Sir Syed felt that Muslim survival in the new political system

depended on working with the British (Robinson, 2003). His work resulted in the founding of the Mohammedan Anglo-Oriental College, subsequently Aligarh Muslim University, which developed as a hub for Muslim political and intellectual life

Social and Religious Movements Led by *Ulama*

Resisting British cultural and religious influence and safeguarding Islamic identity, the ulama were crucial players. For many Islamic academics, the British directly threatened Islamic law, education, and customs. In reaction, they started many religious initiatives meant to revive Islamic customs and guard Muslim culture from Westernization.

Founded in the town of Deoband in present-day Uttar Pradesh in 1867, the Deobandi movement was among the most important of these ones. Opposing Western cultural influence and British policy, the Deobandis underlined the value of Islamic education and obedience to sharia, Islamic law. Training generations of Islamic academics who would continue to impact Islamic thought on the subcontinent, the Darul Uloom Deoband seminary evolved as the intellectual center of this movement (Metcalf, 2014). Reversing Sir Syed Ahmad Khan's modernist approach, the Deobandi movement aimed to restore a purer version of Islam free from British and Western influence.

Aiming to guard the Ottoman Caliphate from British intrusion, another important Islamic organization was the Khilafat organization (1919–1924). Prominent Islamic academics and political leaders like Maulana Muhammad Ali and his brother Maulana Shaukat Ali oversaw the movement. Though the movement finally collapsed when the Ottoman Empire was split, the Khilafat leaders protested British policies in alliance with Mahatma Gandhi and the Indian National Congress (Talbot & Minault, 1983). Though it failed, the Khilafat Movement proved the possibility for Muslim unity in political conflicts and helped create political alliances between Muslims and Hindus at least momentarily.

Social and Educational Reforms

To challenge British cultural dominance, Muslim officials and ulama also concentrated on social and educational reform. The Aligarh Movement of Sir Syed Ahmad Khan was instructive as much as political. His focus on contemporary education sought to enable Muslims to participate in colonial government and business. Other educational changes motivated by the Aligarh model included the founding of Muslim colleges and universities all throughout India (Robinson, 2003).

Simultaneously, Darul Uloom Deoband and other madrasas spread over the subcontinent helped to sustain traditional Islamic education. These universities concentrated on religious instruction, turning out generations of Islamic academics who would still impact Muslim opinion and opposition to British policies. But the conflict between modernists like Sir Syed and traditionalists like the Deobandis exposed the great differences among Muslims about the appropriate strategy to address British colonialism (Metcalf, 2014).

Successes and Failures

Muslim leaders and ulama's political, social, and religious challenges during British colonizing received different degrees of success. Preserving Islamic identity against British cultural and religious influence was one of the main achievements. Muslim intellectual and political philosophy was greatly shaped by institutions such as Aligarh Muslim University and Darul Uloom Deoband, therefore guaranteeing that Islamic traditions were not totally absorbed by Westernization (Talbot & Minault, 1983).

Politically, though, ulama and Muslim leaders had many challenges. The limits of Muslim political unity were shown by the fall-off of the Khilafat Movement and the incapacity of Muslim leaders to keep a long-term political alliance with the Indian National Congress. For Muslim political goals, the ultimate division of India in 1947—which resulted in the

founding of Pakistan as a separate Muslim state—was both successful and unsuccessful. While it guaranteed Muslims a country, it also led to great violence, displacement, and the official separation of the Indian subcontinent along religious lines (Zaman, 2007).

Historical Evaluation

Examining the achievements and shortcomings of Muslim leaders and ulama under British colonization reveals how complexly they sought to oppose British control and preserve Muslim identity. On the one hand, they established lifelong learning institutes and helped to preserve Islamic customs. Conversely, their political activities were sometimes scattered, with internal conflicts between modernists and traditionalists restricting their capacity to present a cohesive front.

The collapse of movements such as the Khilafat Movement emphasizes the challenges Muslim leaders encountered in inspiring the larger Muslim populace for political objectives. Furthermore, the final split of India highlighted the great cost of religious separation and the limits of identity politics in reaching long-term political stability, even as Muslims gained political autonomy.

Successes and setbacks abound in the work of Muslim leaders and ulama during British colonizing. Although they were greatly important in maintaining Islamic identity and opposing Westernization, internal strife and outside pressure frequently hampered their political efforts. Particularly in terms of the difficulties in juggling religious identification with political goals, the lessons acquired from their experiences still ring true in modern Muslim political parties.

CONCLUSION

The historical accounts of Muslim leaders and ulama throughout British colonialism offer important new perspectives on the processes of identity politics and how it affects modern Islamic movements. The historical challenges of these intellectuals expose how the mobilization of Islamic identity functioned as a double-edged sword occasionally aggravating internal conflicts within the Muslim community as well as an instrument for resistance against colonial oppression. Observed, the ulama's attempts to unite Muslims around a shared identity via movements like the Khilafat emphasized the possibility for group action but also underlined the difficulties presented by different ideological points of view and political agendas (Zaman, 2007). Applying the ideas gained from past movements to current settings, modern Islamic academics and leaders have to accept a more complex view of identity politics. To show a united front on common political agendas, they should give coalition building across religious and ideological divisions inside the Muslim community a top priority. As Robinson (2003) underlines, properly addressing modern issues such as cultural imperialism and socio-political marginalization depends on the capacity to clearly provide a vision that appeals to different Muslim communities.

Moreover, modern Islamic leaders can benefit from leveraging educational reforms and community engagement to foster political awareness and activism. Just as the *Deobandi* and *Aligarh* movements focused on education as a means of empowerment, today's scholars should emphasize modern educational initiatives that promote critical thinking, civic responsibility, and social justice among Muslim youth (Metcalf, 2014). By prioritizing inclusive dialogue and collaboration, they can effectively navigate the complexities of identity politics, ultimately leading to greater success in achieving their political demands and advancing their agendas.

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