

Classroom Discourse, Smart Power Strategies, and Learner Engagement in Nepalese EFL Classrooms

Dev Ram Joshi

MPhil Scholar, Far Western University, Nepal
ORCID: <https://orcid.org/0009-0007-0434-2728>

Email: teacherdrjoshi@gmail.com

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.3126/sij.v7i1.92541>

Abstract

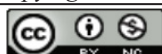
This paper analyzes how the classroom discourse and smart power strategies can contribute to enhancing learner engagement in EFL classrooms. The use of smart power is relevant not only in politics and governance but also in educational settings to create a better environment for the active participation of English language learners. Therefore, employing the qualitative content analysis method, I reviewed books and articles about smart power, classroom discourse, and learner engagement available in Google Scholar, ProQuest, and open sources and then analyzed the contents in relation to English language teaching and learning in the context of secondary schools of Nepal. As the theoretical foundation, Foucault's archeology of knowledge and Bourdieu's cultural capital theory helped me to contextualize and clarify the concept of smart power in ELT. The findings indicate that inclusive discourse and smart power strategies can motivate learners to be engaged in language learning with appropriate levels of support and challenge. Thus, this study will be supportive for English language teachers to engage all types of learners in language learning activities.

Keywords: inclusive and interactive discourse, hard and soft power, active participation

Introduction

Classroom discourse covers all communicative activities of teachers and students performed inside and outside the classroom or in any educational setting (Jocuns, 2013). Likewise, smart power refers to the strategic fusion of coercion and persuasion to accomplish the target of any program (Nye, 2011), and learner engagement indicates the involvement, determinism, and motivation of students in academic and co-curricular activities to achieve the goal of the curriculum (Ginting, 2021). Based on these core concepts, it can be claimed that the classroom discourse, smart power, and learner engagement are interconnected and supportive of each other because discourse represents interactive involvement in the learning process and smart

Copyright 2026 © Author(s) This open access article is distributed under a Creative Commons



Attribution-Non Commercial 4.0 International (CC BY-NC 4.0) License.

power strategies make the learners ready for learning through the combination of both motivation and challenges. These three aspects of this study are illustrated in detail as follows.

Classroom Discourse

Classroom discourse (CD) is the rule-governed interactional system mostly represented in initiation, response, and evaluation sequence to organize participation and learning (Cazden et al., 1972). Furthermore, it goes beyond interactions between teachers and learners and focuses on the positive role of discourse on learning, identity construction of learners, various forms of symbolic meanings, and interactions. Specifically, CD can be taken as the exact use of interactive utterances to facilitate learning and enhance creativity in the language classroom (Jocuns, 2013). The determining person in the classroom discourse tends to be the teacher, who decides turn-taking, exchanges, replacement, and integrating contents with language in the discourse (Jora, 2022). Additionally, Markee (2015) also explains that classroom discourse is closely connected to cognitive-interaction and sociocultural theory, discourse analysis, language socialization, and conversation analysis, being centered on learning and using language for different purposes.

Although the research on classroom interaction began in the 1930s, it grabbed the attention of the researchers in 1960 after there appeared challenges in learning, teaching, and interactions in the class due to students of diverse backgrounds and a new paradigm needed which is taken as classroom discourse. Similarly, researchers pointed out how the varied behaviors of teachers and the diversified linguistic and cultural background of students affect the learning route and rate. Meanwhile, Markee (2015) pointed out seven viewpoints that help to study classroom discourse: process-product, cognitive, socio-cognitive, situated cognition, and activity theory, ethnographic, sociolinguistic, and discourse analysis, critical, and teacher research approaches to see how these approaches create chances for getting a clear picture of the classroom learning process.

Moreover, CD was developed as an extension of linguistic anthropology and the ethnography of speaking. Due to the inappropriate and biased use of language in the class, the learners from the indigenous community experience an identity crisis and avoid school when they do not get a chance to communicate in their mother tongues. Therefore, CD plays a significant role ensuring the active participation in language learning activities (Cazden et al. 1972). Additionally, Jocuns (2013) concluded that culture for socialization, the ethnographic aspect of communication, and knowledge creation through interactional activities in the class are to be carefully focused on classroom discourse for active and equitable learning activities. In conclusion, the classroom discourse generally indicates conversational forms of language used in the language learning process, and specifically, it covers micro-level use of language utterances to address the varied needs of the learners in the class, ranging from motivating discourse to identity and power dynamic-related discourse to ensure participation of all learners.

Smart Power Strategies

Before relating smart power to education, it is better to comprehend the core concept of it. Thus, Smart power, the adoptable power strategy and combination of hard and soft power for effective and sustainable accomplishment of national and organizational intentions (Nye, 2008), represents military force, economic authorization, threats, force, pressure, legal authority, and restriction in the form of hard power and attraction, persuasion, cultural diplomacy, values, norms, legitimacy, ideology, education, humanitarian supports, media influence, and moral authority as the form of soft power to implement the governmental goals effectively (Nye, 2009; Wilson, 2008). Likewise, Nye (2011) mentions the case examples of practicing smart power strategies.

The United States, for example, used military interventions in Afghanistan first to remove the Taliban and then began nation-building efforts, educational programs, and developmental support. Similarly, Nelson Mandela's use of reconciliation and moral authority combined with political pressure and agreement against apartheid to unite South Africa, the power practice of China as it installed economic investments, trade policies paired with Confucius institutes, global media, and cultural engagement, and Russia harmonized cyber security and online propaganda campaigns with hacking and cyber-attacks. In contrast, when America used military force in Iraq without preparing for diplomacy, it caused long-term conflict (Nye, 2011). Thus, the emphasis of Nye (2011) for using smart power is significant not only for governance but also for ELT or for schooling.

Nye (2011) believes that smart power can be practiced through education, cultural exchanges, student exchange and scholarship programs, media initiatives, cyber power or digital platforms as digital diplomacy, trade agreement and collaboration with non-state actors like Google understanding the strengths and limitations of both hard and soft power to make them suitable to specific context and to make the power adoptable, flexible, and comprehensible in broader contexts. To incorporate these strategies in English language teaching and learning, teachers can make good combination of classroom culture and rules, respect of students' behaviors and making them morally responsible for learning, and providing them to choose the tasks setting the criteria to complete the tasks from which the students can engage in language learning not forced by teacher but by themselves (Nye, 2008, 2009). Moreover, the teachers as the leaders can use contextual intelligence to combine hard and soft power according to the type of students and context of the EFL classrooms (Nye, 2009) and cyber power to engage students in the digital age (Nye, 2011).

Learner Engagement

When the learners are involved in any learning activities with high motivation and determination to accomplish the assigned tasks, it is called learner engagement (Ginting, 2021). The learners are taken as active participants if they pay attention, show interest, and do the activities actively, either individually or collaboratively. So, the engaged learners are involved in behavioral, emotional, and cognitive activities during the language learning process (Fredricks et al., 2004). The cognitive engagement of students indicates their willingness to learn, use of strategic efforts, and self-directed learning to comprehend complex ideas and gain mastery over them. Additionally, behavioral engagement belongs to the participation in academic, social, or extra-curricular activities (Appleton et al., 2008), and the learners are supposed to be engaged emotionally if they react positively and show great interest, enjoyment, and sense of belongingness in learning activities (Fredricks et al., 2004; Skinner & Belmont, 1993).

In relation to ELT, when the learners involved in communicative and linguistic activities (Mercer, 2011), participate in discussions, complete the language tasks excitingly, and interact positively with teachers and peers (Ellis, 2010), they are engaged English language learners (Fredricks et al., 2004). However, the quality of learner engagement; behavioral, emotional, and cognitive, is affected by the school environment, support mechanisms, classroom system, and teachers' instructional behaviors. Moreover, the external and internal motivation and level of challenges also play a vibrant role in learner engagement (Ginting, 2021). Bashir et al. (2023) claimed that the clear use of language, comprehensible communicative activities and open

questions based on dialogues used by the teachers heighten the student engagement in language learning.

Previous studies, regarding classroom discourse, smart power, and learner engagement, focused on theoretical aspects separately; a theoretical review of Jora (2022) explored classroom discourse in English language classes and different aspects related to it. Similarly, Toyay et al. (1995) studied the role of teachers in shaping classroom interaction to construct knowledge by using both oral and written discourse, Jones (2011) investigated the effectiveness of two different teaching frameworks of spoken discourse markers in English language classrooms, Bashir et al. (2023) studied how teacher discourse shape the engagement of students in learning and found that the classroom activities, and Al-Smadi and Ab-Rashid (2017) researched focusing on how teacher talk influences students' learning to negotiate meaning not only between teachers and students but also between learners and learners. Moreover, Fredricks et al. (2004) reviewed the available literature on learner engagement, and Ginting (2021) reviewed the existing literature on learner engagement in English language teaching, focusing on how the methods used by teachers can enhance both online and offline learner engagement. However, I could not find the studies which show the relationship between classroom discourse, smart power, and learner engagement in English language teaching in Nepal.

Therefore, to fill this research gap, this review paper aims to explore how the classroom discourse and smart power strategies can contribute to fostering secondary-level learner engagement in English language learning in schools of Nepal. Furthermore, I endeavored to relate and analyze the smart power strategies in relation to learners engagement and classroom discourse to make comprehensive understanding on making exciting atmosphere in English language classroom fostering learner engagement with the help of research questions: what are the classroom discourse patterns that encourage learners for active participation in English language learning, what are the smart power strategies that enhance all learners' engagement in EFL Classroom, and how can classroom discourse and smart power strategies that enhance secondary level English language learners' engagement? By using power theory of Foucault (1977), Bourdieu (1986), and Fairclough (2013), I have analyzed the existing literature of learner engagement and power dynamics to contextualize power in English language teaching and make comprehensive understanding about the use of power in schooling being focused on archeology of knowledge, cultural capital, and critical discourse analysis of language use (Fairclough, 2013; Nye, 2011).

Methods and Procedures

Employing qualitative content analysis method, the sources of data for this study are books by Joseph Nye (Nye, 2004, 2008, 2009, 2011), which helped me to make a comprehensive understanding of hard, soft, smart, and cyber powers. My central focus was also on analyzing smart power strategies accompanied by classroom discourse in relation to ELT so I reviewed books and articles on learner engagement and classroom discourse as mentioned in the reference section connecting with them smart power to find out how the learner engagement in EFL classroom can be promoted by integrating smart power along with inclusive and interactive classroom discourse (Chelimsky, 1989; Krippendorff, 2019; Schreier, 2012).

As a review activity, first I went through the resources multiple times and made clear concepts about them and noted down the central ideas about classroom discourse, smart power strategies, and learner engagement and then on the basis of research questions, I categorized the

contents into different themes. Finally, I made an inference with the help of broad and specific themes about the role of classroom discourse and smart power strategies in fostering learner engagement in the English language learning process discussing the findings relating and analyzing them with power theories and ELT in the context of Nepalese EFL classrooms (Krippendorff, 2018; Schreier, 2012).

After a close look at the classroom discourse patterns based on Frances Christie's functional approach to classroom discourse analysis (Christie, 2002), I analyzed the different forms of classroom discourse by following the ideas of Norman Fairclough (Fairclough, 2013). Similarly, I analyzed and interpreted the smart power strategies being focused, on how they can contribute to enhancing English language learner engagement in Nepalese EFL classes (Fredricks et al., 2004). Moreover, I related the power theories of Foucault, Bourdieu, and Fairclough to illustrate how the balanced use of power shapes language learning activities in the EFL classes, too, besides politics and governance (Dornyei, 2005; Nye, 2011).

Results and Discussion

The findings and discussion are organized under the following themes.

Patterns of Classroom Discourse in EFL Classrooms

One of the frequently used classroom discourse patterns is teacher-directed pattern, which begins with the teacher initiating dialogues through questions and prompts on which students respond. After the students' response, the teacher provides feedback, suggesting or using appropriate utterances either to evaluate or to extend the student's understanding (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975). This type of discourse pattern encourages structured teacher-student communications which are widely used in EFL classrooms (Cazden, 2001). Consequently, this leads to teacher control and less priority to students' independent and creative expressions, and teacher-initiated discourse patterns are questioned as a limited pattern (Alexander, 2008). Recent studies have suggested that the integration of dialogic strategies or open-ended questions can make it more adoptable and friendly to the active participation of learners (Alexandar, 2008; Cozden, 2001; Fredricks et al., 2004; Walsh, 2006).

Learner-centered classroom discourse patterns emphasize student agency and active participation, creating a dynamic environment where learners take the lead in discussions and knowledge construction. In this pattern, students initiate questions, share ideas, and interact with peers while the teacher acts as a facilitator, guiding the process without dominating the conversation (Alexander, 2008). This approach fosters critical thinking, collaborative problem-solving skills and fosters deeper engagement of students as they co-construct meaning through dialogues (Cazden, 2001). Furthermore, learner-led discourse is particularly effective in project-based or inquiry-based learning settings, where students explore topics and contribute diverse perspectives (Ferguson, 2003). By prioritizing student voice and autonomy, this pattern promotes an inclusive learning atmosphere and equips learners with communication skills essential for lifelong learning (Alexandar, 2008; Walsh, 2006). Its emphasis on shared responsibility and mutual respect marks a shift from traditional, teacher-centered practices to a more participatory and empowering educational experience. Moreover, dialogic teaching classroom discourse patterns also come under this pattern, and it prioritizes meaningful dialogue, fostering a collaborative environment where knowledge is co-constructed through open-ended discussions (Cozden, 2001; Fredricks et al., 2004).

Classroom Discourse and Learner Engagement in ELT

The skillful management of classroom activities and inclusive use of language determines whether the students participate in pair-work, group-work, and collaborative activities energetically or forcefully (Dornyei, 2005; Fredricks et al., 2004). Teachers can manage patterns of communication, elicitation techniques, repair strategies, and modify speech for the learners according to their understanding level to encourage them to participate in learning English (Walsh, 2006). Dialogic teaching (Alexander, 2008) and inclusive turn-taking strategies (Cozden, 2001) create opportunities for students to explore ideas collaboratively, promoting critical thinking and deeper understanding. Both of them encourage questioning, reasoning, and elaborating on the discussed topic. Dialogic patterns make the classroom a space for co-constructing knowledge and inclusive turn-taking strategies, ensuring equitable participation and fostering a sense of belonging (Walsh, 2006).

In multilingual and culturally diverse classrooms, strategies such as translanguaging, intercultural awareness, and code-switching further encourage learners by allowing them to draw on their full linguistic resources, for which the teachers can use English textbooks as well (Joshi, 2025). Garcia and Wei (2014) argue that translanguaging helps learners navigate and express complex ideas fluidly, integrating their home languages and the instructional language. Code-switching can be a tool for enhancing comprehension and acknowledging cultural diversity, making the learning process more accessible and relatable (Ferguson, 2003). These approaches not only validate students' linguistic identities but also empower them to actively participate in constructing knowledge, creating a more inclusive and dynamic discourse environment. For this, Joshi (2024) emphasized the role of teacher as lord Krishna as in Bhagvad Gita that Krishna empowered Arjuna.

Classroom discourse that challenges traditional power dynamics empowers students by giving them agency in the learning process. Critical pedagogy emphasizes the role of discourse either for maintaining or challenging hierarchical structures in education (Freire, 1970; Fairclough, 1992). Encouraging student-led discussions or project-based inquiries allows learners to take ownership of their education, fostering autonomy and self-confidence. Joshi (2025) also supported this focusing on using counseling techniques to enhance self-trust in learners. Teachers who act as facilitators rather than authoritative figures create spaces where students feel safe to express their ideas and challenge assumptions. This shift not only enhances engagement but also equips students with critical thinking and collaborative skills essential for lifelong learning (Fairclough, 2013; Fredricks et al., 2004; Walsh, 2006).

Discourses Techniques That Enhance Learner Engagement in ELT

Ginting (2021) proposed an active learning approach in which the learners get a chance to participate in short-answer question sessions, conversation-infused lectures, daily quizzes of different units, group problem-solving exercises, and factual recall assessment activities, which foster learner engagement. Additionally, he launched the flipped classroom technique to foster learner engagement, in which the teachers, besides the class time, provide carefully selected and customized videos and texts. By reading and observing the materials provided by teachers, students get immersive learning experiences and higher-order problem solving ability. Furthermore, Ginting claimed that case-based and problem based learning also fosters good discursive and engaging activities in the class. In this, teachers present different case studies and then encourage students to find such cases from daily conversations, the internet, and newspapers.

Students analyze and organize those stories and present them in class which can ensure analytical and reflective engagement in learning. Meanwhile, the problem-based learning method makes students strive to solve problems, develop deep conceptual understanding, question existing understanding, and redirect learning in a cyclic order to solve the problem individually and collaboratively. Moreover, Ginting presented peer coaching as a structured teaching facilitated by teachers in which students carefully prepare for the lessons, collaborate in small groups, draw conclusions, and teach to their peers and friends in the class. Similarly, peer support and teacher modeling help learner to engage in the group activities actively (Joshi, 2024).

Classroom discourse in EFL settings can be critically understood through Fairclough's three-dimensional model of Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA), which conceptualizes language as text, discursive practice, and social practice (Fairclough, 1992, 2001). At the textual level, research shows that dialogic discourse, characterized by open-ended questions and scaffolding strategies, enhances learner participation and confidence compared to teacher-dominated talk (Mercer & Howe, 2012; Walsh, 2011). At the level of discursive practice, studies highlight how patterns of turn-taking, questioning, and feedback either reproduce asymmetrical power relations or redistribute opportunities for learner voice (Haneda, 2017; Tsui, 2008). For example, dialogic interaction and peer collaboration have been found to promote deeper engagement by positioning learners as co-constructors of knowledge rather than passive recipients (Mercer, 2004; Zhang & Hu, 2021). At the social practice level, classroom discourse reflects and often reinforces broader educational ideologies, such as exam-oriented curricula and hierarchical teacher-student relationships in many EFL contexts, which can constrain learner engagement (Canagarajah, 1999; Copland & Creese, 2015). However, discourse that challenges these asymmetries by integrating learner identities, promoting inclusivity, and linking classroom language to real-life communicative purposes can create participatory learning environments that foster both linguistic development and learner motivation (Haneda, 2017; Walsh, 2011). Thus, CDA reveals that classroom discourse is not neutral but a socially situated practice that can either limit or enhance learner engagement in EFL classrooms so CD is to be used carefully.

Smart Power Strategies in the EFL Classroom

Although I could not find a direct study regarding the integration of smart power strategies in the Nepalese EFL context, I have reflected my understanding here after studying different books on power published by Joseph Nye (Nye, 2004, 2008, 2009, 2011). The concept of hard power can be linked with structured curricula and teacher-centered teaching methods, teachers' authoritative roles and instructions, and imposed systems of school. To be specific, teaching grammar with drilling, one-way lecturing, deductive grammar translation method, and employing standardized external assessment systems rather than formative assessment is the use of hard power strategies and the integration of soft power can be practiced by using the techniques like motivation, learner autonomy, and student centered pedagogies by creating a culturally sensitive and inclusive learning environment and engaging students with persuasive techniques (Freire, 1970; Nunan, 2004). However, applying only one hard or soft power strategy may not work in all contexts. Therefore, to properly balance this smart power approach, English language teachers can combine structured teaching strategies with motivating and joyful strategies or they can combine teacher and student centered techniques equipped with control and flexibility according to the types of students and contexts.

By integrating smart power strategies into ELT, teachers can address diverse learner needs and foster both linguistic competence and cultural awareness. A smart power approach can combine these elements by fostering a supportive yet academically rigorous environment where students feel both challenged with certain criteria and empowered with a supportive environment accompanied by persuasion and motivation (Armitage & Nye, 2007). Additionally, legitimacy as a strategy of smart power, is reflected in culturally responsive teaching, ensuring that the curriculum is inclusive and contextually relevant (Canagarajah, 2005). Meanwhile, strategic communication can play a role in how teachers use discourse to guide, motivate, and empower learners while maintaining academic expectations (Mercer, 2011). Moreover, collaboration and partnerships are also essential in ELT to encourage peer learning, teacher collaboration, and cross-cultural exchanges to enhance language acquisition creating a dynamic and effective learning experience that leverages diverse methodologies to empower learners and achieve holistic language development (Armitage & Nye, 2007; Nye, 2004, 2008; Wilson, 2008).

Smart Power Strategies That Enhance Learner Engagement

The role of smart power strategies to encourage English language learners is pivotal in creating a balanced and effective learning environment that fosters engagement and motivation. By strategically combining hard power, such as clear expectations and structured teaching methods, with soft power, like relationship-building and cultural connections, teachers can activate students to take active roles in their language acquisition journey (Nye, 2004). Hard power is manifested through well-organized lesson plans, consistent feedback, and maintaining discipline in the classroom to ensure a stable framework for learning whereas soft power can be exercised through empathy, inspiration, and the use of authentic resources, such as cultural texts, media, and real-world scenarios, which connect the learning process to students' interests and experiences. By blending these approaches, teachers can create a dynamic and inclusive environment where learners feel both supported and challenged.

The power theories of Foucault and Bourdieu are closely related to smart power theory so their ideas are useful for both structure and inspiration. Smart power, related to Bourdieu connects the interpersonal and symbolic dimensions of power to inspire deeper learner engagement. Following Bourdieu (1986), teachers can utilize symbolic power to shape classroom norms and foster positive relationships, making students feel valued and confident in their abilities. Foucault's (1977) insights on power-knowledge underscore the importance of creating discourse environments where learners actively construct and share knowledge, empowering them to co-create meaning rather than passively receive information. Techniques such as dialogic teaching, peer collaboration, and translanguaging further align with smart power principles, allowing students to enhance their linguistic and cultural resources while building a sense of agency. Through this harmonious integration of hard and soft power, teachers can encourage language learners not only to actively participate but also to equip them with the skills and confidence to thrive in diverse communication contexts.

Moreover, according to the understanding of Christensen (2024) on Foucault, teachers' authority works as top-down approach and bottom up-approach advocate for students' autonomy which are related to hard and soft power respectively. Likewise, the panoptical idea of Foucault, like in hard power, promotes structured control through rules, administration, and CCTV cameras whereas archeology of knowledge as soft power promotes comprehensible and meaningful teaching and learning activities from which the students are influenced and engage in learning.

Additionally, Foucault encourages power and resistance to make the language learning activities well-managed, dynamic, and transformative. On the other hand, Bourdieu talks about habitus as deeply rooted beliefs, cultural practices, and mindsets existing in the society which shape the individuals' actions and interaction in the society. So the language learning activities are to be designed and conducted by considering the sociocultural aspects of learners. Teachers can use learners' cultural capital to enhance language learning through their praxeology (Armitage & Nye, 2007; Christensen, 2024; Nye, 2004, 2008; Wilson, 2008).

Poster (1984) explains that Foucault, through the concept of mode of information, archeology of knowledge, surveillance and bio-power in panopticism, normalization, and formation of disciplinary society, seeks to create and use power in society as a dynamic process to get things done by combining structural control with culture, information, technology, and education. Similarly, Christensen (2024) mentions the power of Bourdieu that the economic capital, including money, assets, and resources, cultural capital with the terms; praxeology and habitus through knowledge, education, skills, and cultural goods, social capital by using a network of relationships, and symbolic power with recognition and legitimacy through prestige, honor and credibility. Therefore, both of the power theories of Foucault and Bourdieu are a good combination of hard and soft power, with the help of which the smart power strategies can be implemented in the EFL classroom effectively.

Conclusion

As my purpose was to explore how the classroom discourse and smart power contribute to learner engagement in English language learning, I found that the infusion of teacher-initiated, learner-directed, and dialogue-oriented classroom discourse patterns can contribute to engaging learners from behavioral, emotional, and cognitive levels in EFL classrooms. The culturally sensitive use of language and valuing all learners in the class through the interactive and inclusive discourse can motivate learners for active participation in English language learning and the smart power strategies are practiced through the discourse for using motivating and authoritative language.

Similarly, regarding the subsequent dimension of my study related to smart power and its role in shaping classroom discourse and learner engagement, the existing literature shows that smart power strategies can give better results when they are incorporated with inclusive classroom discourse. The studies related to authoritative and motivating behaviors of teachers in the class and my experiences claim that a balanced approach of power in the class makes students feel both challenged and empowered. So, in the context of Nepalese EFL classes, Teachers can engage all students addressing their diversified needs and learning styles.

English language teachers in Nepal can apply inclusive discourse patterns and smart power strategies, followed by both attraction and coercion, being flexible on students' choices regarding selecting tasks and time frames. Consequently, they feel self-controlled to complete the tasks that they have selected for themselves. While studying about smart power I felt that the principles of smart power can be applied in classroom teaching, assessment systems, and student participation in extracurricular activities as well not only to foster learner engagement but also to enhance reading, writing, and speaking skills in English language teaching and learning which can be further explored to find out the effectiveness smart power strategies in EFL classrooms.

References

- Al-Smadi, O. A., & Ab Rashid, R. (2017). A theoretical review of classroom discourse. *International Journal of Academic Research in Progressive Education and Development*, 6(3), 164–173. <http://dx.doi.org/10.6007/IJARPEd/v6-i3/3169>
- Alexander, R. J. (2008). *Towards dialogic teaching: Rethinking classroom talk (4th Ed.)*. Dialogos.
- Appleton, J. J., Christenson, S. L., & Furlong, M. J. (2008). Student engagement with school: Critical conceptual and methodological issues of the construct. *Psychology in the Schools*, 45(5), 369–386. <https://doi.org/10.1002/pits.20303>
- Armitage, R. L., & Nye, J. S. (2007). *CSIS commission on smart power: A smarter, more secure America*. Center for Strategic and International Studies.
- Bashir, T., Khan, M. U., & Ahmad, K. (2023). Teacher discourse and student engagement in ESL learning settings. *Urdu Research Journal of Pakistan*, 7(2), 156–167.
- Bourdieu, P. (1986). The forms of capital. In J. G. Richardson (Ed.), *Handbook of theory and research for the sociology of education* (pp. 241–258). Greenwood Press.
- Canagarajah, A. S. (2005). *Reclaiming the local language policy and practice*. Routledge.
- Cazden, C. B. (2001). The language of teaching and learning. *The language of teaching and learning*, 2. cazden.pdf
- Cazden, C., John, V., & Hymes, D. (Eds.). (1972). *Functions of language in the classroom*. Teachers College Press.
- Chelimsky, E. (1989). *Content analysis: A methodology for structuring and analyzing written material*. Government Printing Office.
- Christensen, G. (2024). Three concepts of power: Foucault, Bourdieu, and Habermas. *Power and Education*, 16(2), 182–195.
- Christie, F. (2002). *Classroom discourse analysis: A functional perspective*. Continuum.
- Copland, F., & Creese, A. (2015). *Linguistic ethnography: Collecting, analyzing and presenting data*. Sage Publications.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2005). *The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language acquisition*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Ellis, R. (2010). Second language acquisition, teacher education and language pedagogy. *Language Teaching*, 43(2), 182–201.
- Fairclough, N. (2013). *Critical discourse analysis: The critical study of language* (2nd ed.). Routledge.
- Ferguson, G. (2003). Classroom code-switching in post-colonial contexts. *AILA Review*, 16(1), 38–51.
- Foucault, M. (1977). *Discipline and punish: The birth of the prison* (A. Sheridan, Trans.). Pantheon Books.
- Fredricks, J. A., Blumenfeld, P. C., & Paris, A. H. (2004). School engagement: Potential of the concept, state of the evidence. *Review of Educational Research*, 74(1), 59–109.
- Freire, P. (2000). *Pedagogy of the oppressed* (30th anniversary ed., M. B. Ramos, Trans.). Bloomsbury Academic. (Original work published in 1970)
- Garcia, O., & Wei, L. (2014). *Translanguaging: Language, bilingualism and education*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Ginting, D. (2021). Student engagement, factors, and methods affecting active learning in English language teaching. *Voices of English Language Education Society*, 5(2), 215–228.

- Haneda, M. (2017). Classroom discourse and language learning: Learning across disciplines. *Research Papers in Education*, 32(1), 36–52.
- Jocuns, A. (2013). Classroom discourse. In C. A. Chapelle (Eds.), *The encyclopedia of applied linguistics*. Wiley Blackwell.
- Jones, C. (2011). *Spoken discourse markers and English language teaching: Practices and pedagogies* [Unpublished PhD dissertation]. Nottingham University.
- Jora, M. B. (2022). Classroom discourse in the language class. *Siddhajyoti Interdisciplinary Journal*, 3(1), 101–114.
- Joshi, D. R. (2024). How can Bhagavad Gita wisdom transform Nepalese educators to be successful professionals? *Contemporary Research: An Interdisciplinary Academic Journal*, 7(2), 36–50. <https://doi.org/10.3126/craiaj.v7i2.72148>
- Joshi, D. R. (2024). Teachers' experiential strategies for bridging writing proficiency gaps among secondary level students. *Far Western Review*, 2(2), 91–105.
- Joshi, D. R. (2025). Analyzing intercultural communicative competence in grade eleven English textbook. *KMC Journal*, 7(2), 83–98. <https://doi.org/10.3126/kmcj.v7i2.83437>
- Joshi, D. R. (2025). Exploring counseling-based pedagogy in EFL classrooms: Perceived values of English language teachers in Nepal. *Far Western Journal of Education*, 2(01), 57–73.
- Krippendorff, K. (2019). *Content analysis: An introduction to its methodology* (4th ed.). SAGE Publications.
- Markee, N. (2015). *The handbook of classroom discourse and interaction*. John Wiley Blackwell & Sons, Inc.
- Mercer, N., & Howe, C. (2012). Explaining the dialogic processes of teaching and learning: The value of sociocultural theory. *Learning, Culture and Social Interaction*, 1(1), 12–21.
- Nunan, D. (2004). *Task-based language teaching*. Cambridge University Press.
- Nye, J. S. (2004). *Soft power: The means to success in world politics*. PublicAffairs.
- Nye, J. S. (2008). *The powers to lead*. Oxford University Press.
- Nye, J. S. (2009). Get smart: Combining hard and soft power. *Foreign Affairs*, 88(4), 160–163.
- Nye, J. S. (2011). *The future of power*. PublicAffairs.
- Poster, M. (1984). *Foucault, Marxism, and History: Mode of production versus mode of information*. Polity Press.
- Schreier, M. (2012). *Qualitative content analysis in practice*. Sage Publications.
- Sinclair, J., & Coulthard, M. (1975). *Towards an analysis of discourse: The English used by teachers and pupils*. Oxford University Press.
- Skinner, E. A., & Belmont, M. J. (1993). Motivation in the classroom: Reciprocal effects of teacher behavior and student engagement across the school year. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 85(4), 571–581.
- Tsui, A. (2008). Classroom discourse: Approaches and perspectives. *Encyclopedia of language and education*, 2013–2024.
- Tuyay, S. Jennings, L., & Dixon, C. (1995). Classroom discourse and opportunities to learn: An ethnographic study of knowledge construction in a bilingual third-grade class. *Discourse Processes*, 19(1), 75–103.
- Walsh, S. (2011). *Exploring classroom discourse: Language in action*. Routledge.
- Wilson III, E. J. (2008). Hard power, soft power, smart power. *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 616(1), 110–124.

Zhang, Y., & Hu, G. (2021). Classroom discourse and student engagement: Insights from EFL classrooms in China. *System*, 99, 102511.

Author

Dev Ram Joshi, MPhil Scholar at Far Western University, works as a secondary level English language teacher at Mahunyal Secondary School, Bhajani, Kailali and is interested in exploring psycholinguistics, learner engagement and investment, language proficiency gaps, motivation in ELT, self-directed professional development, ecosystem in language teaching, and ELT material development in Nepalese school-education landscape.