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Editorial

KMC Journal is a double-blind peer-reviewed, open-access multidisciplinary journal published by the Research Management Cell (RMC) of Kailali Multiple Campus, Dhangadhi, Far Western University, Nepal. Published twice a year, this journal provides a platform for the researchers, educators, academicians, teachers, trainers, practitioners and professionals across the world to share knowledge in the form of high quality empirical research papers from different disciplines including Education, Social Sciences, Humanities, Management, Agriculture, Forestry, Law, Science and ICT. The journal encourages national and international researchers and scholars to share their research experiences through publication to the global audience.

KMC Journal is a refereed journal which adopts a rigorous process of screening, reviewing, editing and proofreading. The editorial board makes the first decision regarding the submitted articles as the first step of the review process. The board can reject the articles if they do not meet the author guidelines. Accepted articles are sent to two anonymous reviewers for review. Papers are accepted for review on the understanding that they have not been published or accepted for publication elsewhere. If the reviewers recommend the article for publication with some feedback, the reviewed articles are sent back to the concerned authors to revise addressing the comments and feedback of the reviewers. Finally, the editorial board makes the decision whether to publish the revised article or reject. The journal does not take any charge for publication. All the expenses are born by the Research Management Cell, Kailali Multiple Campus, Dhangadhi, Nepal.

KMC Journal Volume 5, Issue 1 includes 18 research-based articles from English education, English literature, Education, Sociology, Science, Health Education, Population, History and Management. All these empirical papers have been undergone the rigorous processes of reviewing, editing and proofreading. We believe that all these articles will be fruitful for the practitioners in the concerned disciplines around the globe. We request to all the valued readers, academicians and scholars to contribute by getting published in the coming issues of this journal.

We express our sincere gratitude to all the authors for their appreciable contribution. We are thankful to our valued reviewers for their scholarly work and support to the Editorial Team throughout the process. We are grateful to the Research Management Cell, Kailali Multiple Campus for the publication of the journal.

Happy Reading!

Editor-in-Chief
KMC Journal

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Teacher Identity and Hierarchy: Narrative Inquiry of Primary Teachers in Nepal's Public Schools

Khim Raj Subedi

Department of Education, Prithvi Narayan Campus, Pokhara

Tribhuvan University, Nepal

Corresponding Author: *Khim Raj Subedi*; Email: krsubedi@pncampus.edu.np

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Abstract

The article explores how Nepalese public schools' traditional hierarchy-dominated educational culture shapes teachers' professional growth and sense of identity. Through the narrative inquiry approach, I explored teachers' professional identity development using Gee's (2000) identity framework. The data revealed that hierarchy and power relations between the teachers and the social context fundamentally shaped teacher identity development. However, the study further showed that professional hierarchy was not uni-layered, the power was not one-directional, and the domination was not permanent but rather dynamic. Factors like academic qualifications, job status, technological skills, and social status made the hierarchy complex. More interestingly, hierarchical relationships did not always undermine teacher empowerment but confidence in some cases. For example, when a teacher in a marginalized position due to some factors such as poor health condition was viewed as a role model or capable of success despite challenges, they achieved high value from their colleagues.

Keywords: Professional identity, hierarchy, community school, motivation, institutional identity

Introduction

Teachers are generally viewed and treated according to educational level, professional position, the permanence of their job, and various social identity markers such as academic qualifications, teaching experiences, and technological

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knowledge in Nepalese school systems. While hierarchical systems/orders of power shape any social organization, including education, the context of Nepal offers several fascinating dynamics that could be theorized in productive ways to contribute to discourses about teacher development globally. It is evident that from government policies and programmes in the operation of community schools at local levels, and from the remuneration and job security to professional development opportunities, a whole gamut of social forces in this newly democratized country situated primary school teachers in the lowest status daily. Being put on the lowest rung on the social ladder can impact the sense of professional identity and self-worth among teachers and their professional growth, effectiveness in teaching, and ability to bring about change in education and society. As such, research on the impact of the hierarchy can offer essential insights into teacher development and solutions for overcoming adverse effects.

This study used identity theory (Gee, 2000) as a theoretical lens. Gee (2000) conceived identity as being recognized as “a certain kind of person” (p.100). Gee described four sources of identity: nature identity, institutional identity, discourse identity, and affinity identity. My study focused on the institutional identity that considers teacher identities shaped within the institutional setting. While it is argued, institutions and institutional structures shape people (Narayanan, 2022, p. 130), school as a social institution shapes teacher identity. Similarly, like schools, the context of a higher educational setting shapes the identity (Subedi et al., 2022) of the students. Besides, the existing sociocultural context of and around the school (Lasky, 2005) also plays a role in identity formation.

Professional identity has personal and professional dimensions in teachers’ careers (Beauchamp, 2019), and it is strongly related to teachers’ intrinsic motivation for enhancing their student learning (Akkerman & Meijer, 2011; Martínez-de-la-Hidalga & Villardón-Gallego, 2019). So, undermining professional identity can undermine teachers’ intrinsic motivation and, thereby, their performance. Because professional identity is also an essential component in teacher education (Pillen et al., 2013), it has emerged as a focus of research areas in teacher education and preparation (Karaolis & Philippou, 2019). Besides, power created in the institutional structure, i.e., with the school context, shapes the professional identity of teachers and creates their hierarchy. Thus, the effects of hierarchy also have important implications for teacher development and education programmes. It is argued that “teachers must develop a sense of professional identity that successfully incorporates their professional subjectiveness into the professional/cultural expectations of what it means to be a teacher”(Alsup, 2006, p. 127). This sense of professional identity is adversely shaped and affected by culture and the hierarchy system. Likewise, school

culture affects teachers to internalize their role (González-Calvo & Arias-Carballal, 2017) within the school context.

The power created by the hierarchy demoralizes teachers, undermines their confidence, and decreases intrinsic motivation. As a result, their identity becomes fragile and impedes their professional growth. Technological knowledge empowers and helps teachers to form their new identities. Moreover, gender differences and the personal health condition of teachers affect their professional development. Job security is the source of power and is the status quo in gaining respect from society. The study has indicated that hierarchy among teachers negatively impacts their professional identity. Another contribution of this study could be the ironically positive aspects of hierarchical power relationships. As shown by the analysis of interviews in this article, hierarchical relationships within a profession involve inherent complexities that influence professional development. While hierarchy harms professional growth in many ways, it also seems to create empathy and support in which the personal motivation of a teacher can counter the effects of order. And then, teachers' commitment to their profession becomes more respected than educational credentials. As a result, the progressive values of teachers create a new space for their recognition and respect. However, teacher identity researches exploring hierarchy are at the beginning of academic discourses in Nepal. This study attempted to add knowledge on the relationship between how the hierarchy creates the professional identity of primary teachers in public school spaces. Besides, the study explores the tensions in the professional identity formation of primary teachers, particularly inside the sociocultural context (Lasky, 2005; Martin, 2019) school setting.

Methods and Procedures

This section describes the methodology adopted in this study in the following areas.

Research Design

This study used a narrative inquiry approach to explore professional identity and teacher hierarchy in the semi-urban school setting. More specifically, this study focused on exploring the professional identity of primary teachers by capturing the teachers' stories (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009; Clandinin et al., 2007; Sfard & Prusak, 2005) concerning the prevailing condition of teacher identities and hierarchy in public schools in Nepal. Moreover, in narrative stories, teachers construct and reconstruct their identities (Beijaard et al., 2004), and these stories allow them to capture the linkage between teachers' life and their identity (Ostovar-Namaghi et al., 2015; Yazan, 2019).

Research Participants

The participants in the study, selected purposively, were four community-funded primary teachers from public schools of Pokhara Metropolitan City, Kaski District, Gandaki Province, Nepal. Community-funded teachers do not receive a government salary. Instead, they are paid from local sources of the schools and are often compelled to work below the government pay scale.

The participants were Rita, Sushma, Diwas, and Sundar (pseudonyms) since the narrative inquiry allowed me to study with a small number of participants (Subedi, 2021). Rita had an undergraduate degree and worked for five years in a public secondary school. Before joining this school, she had worked for five years in a private boarding school. At the time of the study, even though her position was that of a primary teacher, Rita taught students from grade one to ten. Sushma taught students of grades one through seven in the English section of the same school as an education graduate and worked in another public school for ten years as a community-funded teacher. Additionally, Sushma has an exceptional health condition; she had a kidney transplant approximately ten years ago and needs to be very careful to maintain her health. Diwas, a graduate in science pursuing his master's degree dissertation in gender studies, has worked as a teacher for five years and taught up to grade eleven at the time of the study. Before joining his current school, Diwas worked in a private boarding school for three years. Interestingly, all four participants taught at the secondary level (i.e., grades 9-12) although they all are primary teachers.

Instrument

The study employed the open-ended interview protocol as the research instrument. During protocol preparation, I framed the simple questions so the participants could easily understand them. As a result, participants felt comfortable “telling their stories” (Sfard & Prusak, 2005). Asking simple questions is the “beauty of qualitative inquiry” (Chenail, 1995). In addition, follow-up questions were asked to explore the problem in depth (Turner, 2010). Besides, I did the informal observation and maintained the field notes.

Study Context

Currently, in Nepal, being a permanent teacher in a public school is commonly perceived as having a source of power. Job security with the facilities provided by the government is one of the significant factors contributing to building such perceptions. It is said that some permanent teachers eventually bully temporary and community-funded teachers from this kind of power. Remaining in

the temporary status, the professional identity of the community-funded primary teachers is not stable since they do not feel the security of their career as a teacher. They have to depend on the mercy of the school management committee to continue their job every year. Moreover, there is no stability in their salary payment. On the one hand, they are receiving low salaries, i.e., around one-third of the government scale. However, there exist variations in such salary payments of teachers among schools. There is variation in the payment system and the hierarchical order. For example, there is a common trend to stay all the teachers in a single room since there is no separate room for teachers in most Nepalese public schools. However, some schools (three out of seven) had different staff rooms for primary and secondary-level teachers. These all-systemic contextual factors indicate that the teacher's identity is fragile.

Data Collection and Analysis

I conducted an in-depth interview with four participants from the four different schools of Pokhara metropolitan city. Teachers gained access with the school headteacher's permission. In the first meeting with each participant, I 'built rapport' by clearly mentioning the focus and significance of my study (Hong & Cross Francis, 2020) to the professional development of the teachers. This type of rapport-building helps the interviewer and interviewee understand each other and gain trust (Chenail, 2011; Kim, 2016). Moreover, I assured them about their anonymity in the write-up and the confidentiality of the data. Besides, my previous working as a primary teacher for five years, some two decades ago, had rich experiences of 'complexities' (Tsui, 2007) that existed in the public school. This kind of 'positionality' (Berger, 2013; Tracy, 2020) helped me to capture stories and understand the lived experiences of the participants. I conducted an hour-long interview with each participant on different days in their leisure time during school hours. The interview was recorded on a voice recorder.

Drawing on Polkinghorne's (1995) 'analysis of narrative,' the interview data were transcribed in Nepali by listening to the audio recordings. The intent of using Nepali transcription was to convey the participants' meaning accurately (Yunus et al., 2022). Later on, transcription was translated into English. After transcribing translations, codes and categories were developed and finally synthesized into the themes (Clarke & Braun, 2021).

Findings

Based on the data analysis, the following themes emerged.

Power of Job Security: Negotiating with Sociocultural Context

Working as a permanent teacher is a power source, particularly in the Nepali school context. One of the temporary teachers' significant concerns is job security, creating uncertainty in their enhanced career path for further professional growth. When the existing profession or the position fails to assure teachers of their stability in the profession, the identity becomes fragile. In this context, my research participant Rita shared her experience:

I liked the teaching profession very much. However, I am always worried about my status as a temporary teacher. In addition, I often wonder if I would not be a permanent teacher, I must search for other alternatives. Thinking about this, I went to the driving institute and learned to drive a car. I thought I would be a car owner and drive it for a fare. Later on, I thought I could not fit into this profession since there are no educated people like taxi drivers. They used to talk in a hostile tone, and I was uncomfortable with them.

The above narrative indicates how the teacher's belief plays a role in constructing their professional identity. Similar to this situation, Watson (2006) argued, "people construct narratives, and narratives construct people, and our identity emerges through these processes" (p.510). Likewise, my other participant, Sushma, felt that she is still uncertain about her teaching profession as a temporary teacher. She shared,

I like the teaching profession very much and do not regret being a teacher. However, if I failed to become a permanent teacher, I would have to search for another profession. Probably, I will be involved in some business because there is no secure future as a temporary teacher.

While job security itself is a great source of power for teachers, it is like the teacher using the ability to oppress their students (Watson, 2006). Regarding the harassment from the permanent teacher, Rita told her story,

I found a joyful and friendly environment on the first day of one of the teacher training programmes. Nevertheless, in the remaining training days after I disclosed my status as a 'community-funded teacher, the permanent teachers behaved strangely toward me and boasted about them. In addition, they did not behave friendly like on the first day. On the remaining days, they ignored my greeting and did not give me company. We were about two community-funded teachers in that large group of 20 teachers. That was an unpleasant experience for me.

There exists a deep-rooted mindset of power relations in society fromordinates to subordinates. For example, in the case of Rita, it is evident that the permanent teachers behaved normally at the beginning. However, they behave strangely when they know her actual status. Furthermore, the power relations between the permanent and temporary teachers (Cummins, 2009) played the dominant role there.

Rita further explained that permanent teachers have superiority complexes and think they have secured jobs. My husband said, “Rita, you must pass the teacher service exam to become a permanent teacher or quit the job.” She added that her husband also realized the domination of permanent teachers over her. Likewise, in her husband’s perception, there is a different status and identity of permanent teachers, which is constructed in the current socio-cultural context of Nepal.

Literature informs about the power relation in the identity formation of teachers. For example, language itself could be the power, and the power of language plays a role in acquiring cultural values and developing professional identity (Cummins, 2009; Martínez-de-la-Hidalga & Villardón-Gallego, 2019). This denotes the unequal power relation “this signals the often conflictual nature of identity negotiation in situations where unequal power relations are evident” (Barkhuizen, 2016, p. 26). For instance, Teng (2019) considers teacher autonomy as being interlinked with the power relation in the school context. Therefore, teacher autonomy and identity formation are interrelated with each other. More specifically, they feel an inferiority complex.

During the informal conversation, the principal of the same school also shared that some of the permanent teachers act in such a way that nobody can do anything with them because of their job security by the government. For instance, Diwas further narrates,

Those permanent fellow teachers enter the classroom five to ten minutes late, but our headteacher cannot punish them. Likewise, there is no supervision and monitoring system in our schools from government officials. Therefore, I think there should be a regular and robust supervision system, and the principal must have the power to take against such teachers.

The above situations indicate the perception of power and its reflection on teachers’ behaviours. Moreover, such a feeling of job security tends to result in some misbehaviour of permanent teachers due to the lack of a robust supervisory system. However, the power of security plays a supportive role in teachers’ positive professional identity formation. Nevertheless, insecurity is the primary concern for starting/new teachers (Alsup, 2006; Pillen et al., 2013). This could be similar to the community-funded teachers since they must negotiate with the existing context.

The school management committee appoints community-funded teachers. These teachers have to negotiate with the school management committee, and most of them cannot receive regular government pay scales. Moreover, there is no stability in their salary payment. However, there exist variations in such salary payments of teachers among schools.

Sushma has experience working as a community-funded teacher in her school. She indicates,

I work no less than any of the permanent teachers at my school. Nevertheless, they receive a full salary, whereas my salary is one-third of my colleagues at the same level. Even in this situation, I cannot do anything; I must work silently or quit.

School administration cannot quickly pressure permanent teachers for additional work without remuneration or willingness - Rita and Diwas have this kind of experience. Likewise, there is no principal/school administration authority to take action against them. In addition, even though permanent teachers receive pressure from the school administration, and it does not matter for their job security. Nonetheless, community-funded teachers cannot refuse the additional duty from the principal. Moreover, it ultimately leads to conflict between teachers and the administration/principal. This creates disagreement between personal values and expectations of the institution (Martínez-de-la-Hidalga & Villardón-Gallego, 2019). In such a situation, teachers negotiate with the social context of the school. As a result, teachers form a negotiated identity.

Teachers' stability and the teaching profession's dignity entangled with their professional identity drives them to continue the profession. More importantly, this instability tends teachers to think of alternative professions. Then teacher's professional identity becomes fragile (Watson, 2006) and hence loses its shape.

Technology-Enhanced Professional Identity

All participants in this study have competency in handling the Internet technology for their classroom teaching purpose. Remarkably, they use a cell phone for their classroom teaching and use web searches to update themselves. They feel empowered in adopting technology in classroom teaching compared to their fellow teachers who lack such technology competency. For example, most of their fellow teachers, particularly permanent ones, do not have knowledge and skills in using technology except on Facebook, a social site. Diwas shared that,

I know how to search for the materials of my needs on the Internet and use them in classroom teaching. For example, I use my cell phone during my classroom teaching. I used to download audio, videos, and documents from

the web and used them in classroom teaching. Nevertheless, most of my fellow teachers, specifically old-age permanent teachers, do not have such skills and need my help. I feel empowered and honoured while supporting them.

The above statement clearly shows that community-funded teachers feel their professional identity transformation by acquiring the knowledge and skills of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) (Bimrose & Brown, 2019). Hence, there is a gradual practice of technology-enhanced learning, i.e., blended learning in conventional classrooms. Moreover, participants felt that technology has contributed to their classroom teaching and helped their day-to-day activities. This finding is consistent with the study of Bimrose and Brown (2019), and regarding technology integration, Vokatis and Zhang (2016). Regarding the use of ICT in classroom teaching, Sundar told his experience as,

Due to my ICT competency, I am gaining attention from my fellow teachers, particularly those less competent in handling technology. My colleagues want to be close to me, and they seek support in managing technology. I heartily support them. As a result, I sometimes forget my status as a community-funded teacher. I feel like an honored teacher with full dignity in such a situation. In addition, my ICT competency is now becoming an empowering agent for me.

The use of ICT is not limited to teaching-learning only. It is becoming a part of the daily life of teachers, and hence they are motivated to learn the Internet. There are online services for many official works; one can do that even with a single click from their computer. However, those not equipped with ICT skills must seek help from others, which makes them realize the benefit of using technology and emphasize gaining technological skills. Mobile apps for banking services, utility bill payments, and online form registration for government services have been developed recently. Technical knowledge of community-funded teachers is a robust tool for gaining respect and a unique identity from the hegemony of permanent teachers.

Gender and Professional Identity

Gender clustering of teachers was a cross-cutting phenomenon, as I observed. During my school visit, I spent a few minutes with the teachers in their staff room to listen to their conversations. Meanwhile, I also observed the activities of teachers inside the school premises. During an observation, it was interesting that the female and the male teachers were sitting in their homogeneous group separately, even in the school canteen, so I could not see any mixed group of male and female teachers. As such, gender created a hierarchy between these schools' male and female teachers.

Likewise, during my school visit to decide on the research participants, I observed one exciting phenomenon: more female teachers working at the primary level than male teachers. Almost all community-funded primary teachers were female in the schools I visited. This could be an issue for further research as to why more female teachers are appointed at the primary level since few female teachers are working at the secondary level. In such a situation, one can see the more significant difference between male and female teachers by gender. Hence, gendered identity is constructed as female teachers should teach at the primary level.

Rita told her story:

I have to be busy with all the household work and take care of my children, which makes me tired at home, due to which I am unable to pay attention and adequate preparation for my service commission exam to be a permanent teacher.

In the current socio-cultural context of Nepal, women are much more oppressed and heavily loaded with household work, such as cooking, clothing, feeding animals, caring for their kids, etc. Most women suffer from physical and mental pressure from such household work, which ultimately affects their performance. Likewise, in Rita's above story, most female primary teachers could be facing a similar situation. In a case, one can argue that the lives of the teachers are intertwined, and it meets in school landscapes, as Clandinin et al. (2006) states. From such a situation, it is evident that a teacher's professional identity and the stories of teachers' lives are interrelated.

Social Status and Educational Hierarchy

The social status of teachers is related to the community's perception of teachers, as the community plays an important role in constructing a teacher's professional identity. A teacher's professional identity depends on how the community and society perceive, respond, and behave towards teachers. Sushma said:

I found both society and the community have minimal sympathy and positive attitudes toward teachers. Society thinks only low achievers are becoming teachers who cannot enter other professions. Hence, teaching is not perceived as more prestigious than society's other governmental services.

Society has little faith in teachers and the teaching profession compared to other professions, and there is a common belief that academically weaker people enter the profession. As a result, the hierarchy is constructed between teachers and other governmental service persons. However, it could not be the case everywhere in

society. Teaching is a prestigious and highly recognized job in some parts of society. Particularly in remote villages, there is a common perception that the teacher is considered the most intelligent person, and villagers depend on teachers. In such a society, teachers advise society members in making decisions for their daily life-related work. In addition, teachers play the role of developing leaders in various societal decision-making processes. However, in most Nepalese societies, the profession's worth depends on its earning capacity, i.e., more earning means more prestige. Regarding survival, Sushma shared her unpleasant experience with the behaviour of the parents with her and other teachers in her school,

Parents do not have any respect for community-funded teachers. Parents might have thought that teachers survive and have secure jobs due to their children's fee payments. Parents usually become unsatisfied with the teachers. Additionally, they feel that teachers' incapability is a significant cause of their children's poor learning. In addition, parents consider teachers to be just like employees working for the salary. Parents and society do not realize the contribution of teachers in educating children. Such perception contributes to forming the educational hierarchy between teaching and other professions.

Hierarchy existed from societal perception and has also been deep-rooted within the teachers themselves. For example, primary teachers with higher academic qualifications want to teach at the secondary level. Diwas shared his feeling,

I have qualifications as a secondary-level teacher and want to teach at 11th and 12th grade. I often asked my principal to assign me secondary-level classes, but he refused. Finally, I became fortunate to get assigned to the secondary level classes as an additional duty except for my regular workload at the primary level. Now, I feel honoured to teach in such upper grades.

Other participants also shared similar views as they hardly get an opportunity to teach secondary-level students. They further added that they feel humiliated to teach in the primary grade despite having the academic qualification of a secondary-level teacher.

From the participants' views, the teacher's hierarchy can be seen. Interestingly, the primary teachers feel promoted and honoured when assigned to teach the secondary level classes, and the secondary teachers feel dominated when they are requested to teach in the primary level grades. Moreover, when primary teachers could get a chance to teach in the secondary level grades, they feel they are no different from the secondary level teachers even though they get the salary of the primary level. Primary teachers' temporary promotion to teaching the upper grades class, even without extra remuneration, is also a source of motivation. From

the provision of changing teaching roles in the upper grades, they are satisfied being teachers.

Personal Health and Identity Formation

One of the influencing factors for forming a teacher's professional identity is the physical and mental health of the teacher. In addition, the teachers' health and hygiene are also crucial in determining their hierarchy. Personal fitness is one of the significant components of teachers' success and productivity in their professional life. For instance, a study argued that "the lack of direct support in graduate students' day-to-day healthcare needs can cause a tremendous loss in their success and productivity" (Gaulee et al., 2015, p. 482). In this study, Sushma, among the participants, suffered from a critical health problem and needed critical care to maintain good health. Sushma had transplanted her kidneys some twelve years earlier. Still, she needs to be very careful in her daily activities, including eating, working, exercising, etc.

Sometimes, an individual's health condition enhances the formation of a positive professional identity. The same happened in the case of Sushma. Despite her severe health conditions, she gets prestige, love, and sympathy from society and feels empowered by society's perceptions of her. In this regard, she added,

My community and neighbors know well about my kidney transplant and current health condition. They always appreciate and show sympathy because a woman with a transplanted kidney can do well in her job. In addition, they sometimes used to reference me as a role model to encourage other people with severe health conditions in the society

However, another participant Diwas had a different perception from Sushma. Diwas added that if a teacher is not fit and fine with good health conditions, how can s/he teach efficiently? This view focuses more on physical well-being, neglecting teachers' emotional and mental health conditions. Perceptions like Diwas can form a new hierarchical position due to poor health.

From the above statement, I argue that despite being in a poor health condition, sometimes, it can be an empowering agent for the health-related identity formation of the teacher. As a result, a positive hierarchy is formed concerning the health condition of a teacher.

Discussion

The study aimed to explore the professional identity of primary teachers in structural hierarchical situations in the institutional setting of public schools. I have analyzed the conversation with the four primary teachers to gain insight into how

the hierarchy plays a role in forming the professional identity of primary teachers. Five key findings emerged from the data analysis done to understand the intertwined complexity of professional identity with the teachers' hierarchical position: 1) job security gave teachers power and ability to negotiate their place in society as community-funded teachers; 2) permanent jobs gave teachers a feeling of security; 3) technological skills enhanced professional confidence; 4) gender, social status, and educational hierarchy shaped professional identity; and 5) personal health and other conditions in life affect identity formation.

Hierarchy, as the participants perceived in this study, is commonly perceived as a negative factor in developing a teacher's professional identity. Indeed, this study found it detrimental to teachers' confidence, initiative, agency, relationship building, and job performance. Within particular social and cultural contexts, individuals within a hierarchical order also learn how to exploit it to their benefit. Hierarchy created by power based on job security creates uncertainty; hierarchy created by funding source, type of school, and institutional prestige demoralizes hardworking teachers; hierarchy created by educational degrees and their status undermines teacher confidence; hierarchy created by social factors (class, caste, political affiliation, gender, etc.) makes intrinsic motivation and professional growth difficult. In addition, Tian and Dumlao (2020) concluded that power relations are pervasive in human interactions. On the other hand, there are complexities in the teacher hierarchy. Lower professional status often creates conditions of empathy and support commitment to the profession and community, which is often more respected than educational credentials; progressive values create alternative narratives, contractional forces, and new space for recognition and respect.

Lived experience stories of teachers helped me to locate and understand the professional identity and hierarchy, particularly inside the sociocultural context of the school setting. Such a setting in a particular sociocultural school context is connected with teachers' practice and is "negotiated and changed over time" (Achirri, 2020, p. 1696). Regarding teacher professional identity, pioneer scholars on narrative inquiry Clandinin et al. (2006) argue that "teacher identity is understood as a unique embodiment of each teacher's stories to live by, stories shaped by knowledge composed on landscapes past and present in which a teacher lives and works" (p.9). Similarly, teaching can be considered an occupation, and occupational identity is fragile, as participants experienced. Occupational identity depends on the stories, attitudes, and behaviours between the individual self and others. Regarding fragile occupational identity, Bimrose and Brown (2019) argue, "identities at work are the meanings attached to an individual by the self and others that are displayed in attitudes and behaviour as well as in the stories I tell about ourselves to others and

ourselves” (p. 759). Likewise, different theorists had worked on the teacher identity. For example, the professional identity of a primary teacher can be considered as “a certain kind of person” (Gee, 2000, p. 100) in a particular context. Later on, various studies conceptualized professional identities in different terms, and it has no explicit meaning (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009; Beijgaard et al., 2004; Palmér, 2016). For example, Clandinin et al. (2009) consider professional identity “stories to live by as they work in schools.” Likewise, one of the most cited sources, Beijgaard et al. (2004), conceives professional identity as the “integration of ‘personal’ and ‘professional’ side of becoming and being a teacher” (p. 113). Palmér (2016) has a comprehensive argument that “know and/or believe but also who they are, how they view themselves as teachers, how they relate to students, how they deal with problems, how they reflect on issues, and how they have identified themselves within the profession” (p. 682).

While power and hierarchy are blatant in Nepalese society, they may be more subtle but still significant in other societies. In addition, every context and society could have its power and hierarchy factors that may affect teacher development and performance, even though those factors may be less visible in the local context. It seems important to learn how hierarchy and power affect teacher development and implementation in contexts and societies beyond our own.

Teacher professional identity is interlinked with the teachers’ job security, particularly for temporary teachers. In addition, teachers are working under stress due to their temporary status and low salary payment. As a result, their identity is formed in the new stories, and hence the teachers’ professional identity becomes fragile. This finding matched Canadian teachers’ study (Clandinin et al., 2009). Likewise, Howard (2019) confirms that the teacher’s identities are complex and conflicting, reinforcing the fluidity. Technology is not only supportive of performing digital activities, but instead, it helps to “reshape the process of identity formation” (Subedi et al., 2022, p. 296). Similarly, technological knowledge helps teachers to form their new identity as empowered and honoured with dignity in the Nepalese school context. Due to being technologically skilled, teachers are gaining respect from their fellow teachers, similar to the study findings by Vokatis and Zhang (2016). Moreover, such technological competence is a tool for reducing hegemonic domination between permanent and temporary teachers.

Gender is another influential factor in shaping teachers’ professional identity in the current socio-cultural context of Nepal. A distinct gendered role is constructed through long tradition, it is perceived that such as women have to do the household work, whereas their husbands have no such responsibility. Instead, males are

responsible for generating income to run the family. As a result, there is an evident gendered role between male and female teachers. Such roles have also been reflected in their behaviour inside the school, such as male and female teachers staying in their homogeneous group in their school leisure time.

Likewise, personal health conditions sometimes could be a barrier to being proactive for an individual (Jones, 2020). However, even poor health conditions sometimes become the source of positive professional identity formation for teachers and have supported framing their unique identity. Jones (2020), in her autoethnographic study, has inspiringly presented how she recovered from an “incredibly inconvenient illness thing” and became a successful professor and scholar” (p.1714). Similarly, Parke (2018) is an excellent example of how a teacher forms an identity after recovering from severe illness and the role of a teacher’s confidence in identity formation in the lives of teachers. Such as, one of the teachers with transplanted kidneys in this study can be an idle and inspirational individual for persons with some kind of poor health condition.

The study is based mainly on the narrative story of four community-funded primary teachers. The study did not yield generalizable findings everywhere. However, the study offers a unique contribution to exploring the professional identity of primary teachers shaped by the hierarchical position.

Conclusion

The hierarchy of power and privilege is a harmful factor to teachers’ self-respect, professional confidence, and motivation for intellectual growth and contribution to society. Nevertheless, the scholarship needs to understand the complexity of status and relationships, community and personal agency, support networks, and other positive factors within hierarchical social and professional conditions. When viewed from the lens of Gee (2000), primary teachers can be the kind of person struggling to form a professional identity in the prevailing condition of teacher hierarchical position in the public school sphere. In addition, such hierarchical positions may not always be visible, but community-funded primary teachers have experienced it. The analysis revealed an influential role of teacher hierarchy in their professional identity formation. Community-funded primary teachers live with great job insecurity and suffer from the hegemonic dominance of permanent teachers. In addition, they seem to feel their position is strong as a permanent teacher, which is the only way to gain security for professional growth and live with dignity in society’s perception.

Moreover, a teacher's health condition, technological knowledge, gender, and social status contribute to forming a professional identity. Therefore, it is imperative to consider the relation of teacher hierarchy in developing their professional identity. More importantly, it is time to rethink and redesign professional development activities for primary teachers.

The findings of the study have immediate applications in many ways. The study informs us to understand the negative impact, positive consequences, and hierarchy complexities in developing professional identity. The findings encourage a rethink to improve the fragile stage of teachers' professional identity and take measures to address it during the planning and implementation of teacher development programmes. The study has sometimes identified the positive aspect of hierarchical position on teachers' professional development. Finally, the findings can help recognize professional identity in the teaching profession and rethink designing the teacher education programme in Nepal.

This study has focused only on the professional identity of primary teachers, and it is not adequate to understand the multiple faces of teacher professional identity. Therefore, future research is needed to carry out a large-scale comprehensive narrative inquiry by including all types of temporary primary teachers to gain a broader understanding of the role of teacher hierarchy in the identity formation of primary teachers.

Implications of these complexities within specific social and cultural school contexts of countries like Nepal are discussed to draw more general perspectives about teachers' identities.

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The General Will of Rousseau in P.B. Shelley's *To a Sky-Lark*

Sabindra Raj Bhandari, PhD

Department of English, Prithvi Narayan Campus, Pokhara

Tribhuvan University, Nepal

Corresponding Author: Sabindra Raj Bhandari; Email: bhandarisabindra@gmail.com

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Abstract

This article explores Jean-Jacques Rousseau's philosophical concept of "the general will" in P. B. Shelley's poem "To a Sky-Lark". The concept of "the general will" is a stage of uniting oneself with the will of all while enjoying personal will at the same time. It is the consensus of the will of all, and remains as the only way to be free from the narrow tutelage of this world. It is the perfect and ideal stage with the celebration of harmony. Similarly, the poem "To a Sky-Lark" unveils and expounds the intensity of the skylark as the source of happiness and bliss that spreads the fragrance of natural freedom. Its melody and song have the power to unite the whole human being at one point in the singularity of happiness by discarding personal will and desires. Likewise, the poem radiates the genial ideals of democracy, harmony, and solidarity. Shelley's skylark and its melody weave the will of the whole humanity to liberate it from the constructed bondages and limitations. In this regard, the skylark becomes the emblem of "the general will" as projected by Rousseau. This study applies the paradigm of qualitative research and textual interpretation method with the theoretical lens of Rousseau's "the general will" to explore its ideations in the poem.

Keywords: Bliss, democratic spirit, freedom, natural state, personal will, will of all

Introduction

This article interprets Percy Bysshe Shelley's "To a Sky-Lark" from the theoretical perspective of "the general will" (Law, 2013, p.171) developed by philosopher Jean Jacques Rousseau. Shelley, in the poem, projects skylark as the

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consensus of happiness and joy. The bird becomes the nexus of all worldly feelings, enriched with the democratic spirit and the will of all. The speaker of the poem sees how the enchanting music and song from skylark's domain can sweep out worldly pains and tribulations. One pulverizes the personal will and realizes worldly happiness by uniting with the whole. In the same way, Rousseau's philosophy of "the general will" consolidates all the personal will in a uniting point of a general will. This is the point of agreement where all different and variegated patterns of people's desires and will come into an integrated form. One starts to attach to others, creating a unifying whole. Thus, Shelley's poem enriches and enlarges Rousseau's philosophy of "the general will".

P. B. Shelley is a great romantic poet. Besides his many literary works, he is popular for his odes. The ode is "a lyrical poem which expresses exalted or enthusiastic emotion in respect of a theme which is dignified, and it does so in a metrical form which is as a rule complex or irregular" (Goodman, 2002, p. 173). "To a Sky-Lark" is a popular ode by Shelley as it beautifully expresses the ideas of liberty, happiness and liberation from human bondage to enjoy the bliss of the natural stage. The poem originated in a natural setting as described by Mary Shelly, P. B. Shelley's wife: "It was on a beautiful summer evening, while wandering among the lanes whose myrtle-hedges were the bowers of the fire-flies, that we heard the carolling of the skylark. . . ." (as cited in King-Hele, 1984, p. 227). It was the evening in 1820 near Leghorn. Natural phenomena incited him to compose this poem. As a result, the poem is free from any artificiality and hackneyed gross perceptions. It includes all the spirit of romantic ideals like "feelings, imagination, experience and yearning" (Gaarder, 1996, p. 346). In the combination of all romantic spirits, the poem has attracted the adulation of readers and critics from every age. To unveil these concepts, this article answers the following research questions:

1. What are the concepts of "the general will" that are consolidated in "To a Sky-Lark"?
2. How does the skylark become the emblem of liberty, happiness, and democratic spirit that Rousseau's "the general will"?

This study reveals how Shelley's poem "To a Sky-Lark" bears the spirit of freedom, liberation and "the general will" as projected by Rousseau.

Literature Review

The poem has been hailed in different arenas. Barcus (2003) takes the reference of great poet Wordsworth who praises Shelley as the poet of "greatest native powers in poetry of all the men of this age" (p, 2). Shelley has been praised

and adulated a lot because his works never fail to arouse the elicitation. Many critics have condensed their impressions of this poem. The great novelist Hardy muses on Shelley's "To a Sky-Lark":

The dust of the lark that Shelley heard,
And made immortal through times to be; -
Though it only lived like another bird,
And knew not its immortality. (as cited in King-Hele, 1984, p. 230)

These lines substantiate the strength of Shelley's "To a Sky-Lark". The real bird has been transformed in eternity with the power of imagination and yearning because Shelley wants to create an emblem for the whole of humanity. That's why, King-Hele (1984) regards this poem as the most famous among Shelley's poems. As its popularity is not limited for the time being, the poem always invites a new revisiting from a touch of novelty.

"To a Sky-Lark" bears its value even in the present-day world. Garrett (2013) shows the significance of this poem and views that the poem has attracted most poetry readers and anthologists of our time. It is because of the depth of reality of the world it holds. The gravity of the poem finds its intensity in the thoughts of critics like Peterfreund (2002). He clarifies:

The skylark, like the figure of the eagle in *Adonais*, and like the eaglelike Jesus and Socrates in *The Triumph*, represents an idealized liminality, under the terms of which language and the language-using poet return to a close proximity with the informing Power responsible for poetry's music and emotional force, yet maintain the status of discrete utterance and retain that music and emotional force. (p. 272)

Peterfreund's comments highlight the diversity of Shelly's "To a Sky-Lark". The skylark resembles the eagle-like figure that represents victory and the flight from the earthly parameters and limitations. The poem, in this aspect, expresses "the idealism of poet and the human longing for a happiness which will endure making the poem perennially interesting" (Goodman, 2002, p. 179). If the idealism expressed in the poem determines and even stands for human happiness, then there must be meeting points between Shelley's "To a Sky-Lark" and Rousseau's concept of "the general will" postulated in *The Social Contract*. Even though the poem encompasses the real ideations of Rousseau's philosophy of "the general will", no study has explored the connection between Rousseau and Shelley's "To a Sky-Lark". That's why, this study proves its significance by examining how the beautiful poem expressed the reality of practical philosophy that deals with the politics of the world.

“To a Sky-Lark” by Shelley expresses Rousseau’s political philosophy of “the general will”. Shelley and Rousseau both expose that ultimate joy and bliss in the freedom of the natural stage is not fixed by the parameters of social bondages. The bird stands as an emblem for “the general will” at which point personal wills are represented in their total forms. The happiness of others becomes the source of one’s happiness. This is the point to bringing harmony and integration in society and worldly life.

Methods and Procedures

This article provides a new interpretation and perception by relating Shelley’s poem to the political philosophy of Rousseau. That’s why, it implements the qualitative approach and interpretive paradigm. Flick (2021) views that this is the time of pluralization of world views. The qualitative approach can only expose the relations between the different perceptions. That’s why, the time has come to explore and interpret new obscurity, prioritizing the new subject matter. In this regard, the quest of “the general will” in “To a Sky-Lark” bears its justification. The paper similarly applies the interpretive paradigm to unmask the democratic ideals of “the general will” in Shelley’s poem because according to Croucher and Cronn-Mills (2015) varied interpretation is the essence of the interpretive paradigm and it relies on the belief that reality finds its value in the subjective perceptions and their interpretations. After the application of this paradigm, a new world view has been constructed by perceiving that the poem also expresses reality by scintillating the aesthetic pleasure as well. The present paper interprets only seven stanzas from Shelley’s poem “To a Sky-Lark” and they have been selected with the method of purposive sampling. Croucher and Cronn-Mills (2015) opine that this sampling method only includes the related aspects while excluding the others. Out of twenty stanzas, only stanzas like one, six, seven, fifteen, eighteen, seventeen, and twenty-one have been considered from the poem to expound on the theme of the “the general will”. The theoretical and supporting concepts of “the general will” have been derived from secondary sources like book reviews and related criticisms to establish the arguments and warrants.

The power of freedom and liberty plays a pivotal role in Rousseau’s philosophy. His great political work *The Social Contract* opens with a view of the democratic spirit that humans should enjoy the situation human beings are facing. The book opens, “Man is born free, and everywhere he is in chains. One man thinks himself the master of the others, but remains more of a slave than they are” (as cited in Russell, 2013, p. 632). This view consolidates that when human beings emerge from the natural to the social stage, they have to depend on each other because humans cannot fulfill their needs solely at this stage. This is an unavoidable pattern,

but this level of dependency fosters inequality and gives the signals of conflict and instability as well. So, people have to establish an authority with a mutual agreement among them that may establish peace and security. This is the basic need for the formation of political institutions, Rousseau(2013) says, “which will defend and protect with the whole common force the person and goods of each associate, and in which each, while uniting himself with all, may still obey himself alone, and remain as free as before” (as cited in Law, 2013, p. 169). He recommends the construction of an association that reflects the common voice of the members who are associated with it. However, this institution of mutual agreement grounds inequality with the force of power and law because the mutual agreement favours the people who possess wealth, power, and intellectual capacity as well. It leads to the situation of exploitation of the powerless. This is the point where he formulates the philosophy of “the general will” that outlines freedom for all.

The discussion leads to the point that differentiates “the general will” from “the will of all”. Then what is the basic difference between “the general will” and “the will of all”? Rousseau (2020) substantiates this in his *The Social Contract* as he says:

There is often a great deal of difference between the will of all and the general will. The later looks only to the common interests, the former considers private interest and is only a sum of private wills. But take away from these same wills the pluses and minuses that cancel each other out, and the remaining sum of the differences is the general will. (as cited in Grayling, 2020, p. 254).

The above passage clarifies that the will of all just considers the personal will and cannot encompass the will of the whole. On the other hand, in “the general will,” one finds the expression of the totality where the personal will is expressed.

The differences between the two can be elucidated with a good example. Law (2013) describes the difference between “the will of all” and “the general will” giving a very beautiful example. He explains:

Suppose individuals would like to pay as little tax as possible. Paying zero tax is what every individual would prefer. This is the will of all. However, a zero rate of taxation would be catastrophic for the state as a whole because public services would cease to function. So a zero tax rate, while the will of all, is not the general will. The general will is for whatever rate of tax is best for society as a whole. (p. 171)

Thus, “the general will” activates for the best interest of society. It is a meeting point for the collective interests of the people of a society. A legitimate state operates “the general will”, and to enjoy freedom is to obey the spirit of “the general will”. In Rousseau’s (2013) words, it is a stage of being “forced to be free” (as cited in Russell, 2013, p. 633). By saying so, he contrasts two dimensions of freedom that human enjoys “in the state of nature—‘natural freedom’—with the kind one enjoys in a legitimate state – ‘civil freedom’” (Grayling, 2020, p. 254). This is the essential point of Rousseau’s philosophy of “the general will”.

Rousseau’s philosophy of freedom also attracts further discussion on two aspects of liberty namely negative liberty and positive liberty. Law (2013) justifies the dichotomy between these two poles of liberty:

Negative liberty is the “freedom to pursue your own desires without external hindrance---no one prevents you from doing what you want or forces you to do something else. *Positive liberty* is when you are able to recognize and lead the kind of life that you ought to live—one that a rational person would choose to live” (p. 174).

The above discussed concepts radiate that the enjoyers of negative liberty resemble those who are only concerned with fulfilling their desires and appetites. On the other hand, true liberty, for Rousseau (2013), “is a kind of positive liberty—the kind of civil liberty we gain when we allow ourselves to be governed not by our individual wills, but by the *general will*” (as cited in Law, 2013, p. 174). This recurs the theme that while enjoying our own liberty, we should concern about the liberty of others. In a broader sense, one should think that seeing other in oneself is the best way of enjoying the true spirit of freedom because this world is the dwelling place of not only for the human beings, but also for all creatures. All these ideations of freedom and liberty are better exposed and expounded in P. B. Shelley’s poem “To a Sky-Lark.”

Results and Discussion

The forthcoming sections unveil Rousseau’s philosophy of “the general will” in P.B Shelley’s poem “to a Sky-Lark”.

Shelley’s Skylark: An Epitome of Rousseau’s Natural Freedom

Shelley (1986) opens his poem by posing a skylark as his messenger that could awaken the world from its normality. That’s why, in the first stanza of the poem, he apostrophizes the bird as “Hail to thee, blithe Spirit” (To a Sky-Lark, p.732). It signifies the bird is the source of maximum joy and bliss because it was a “Bird that never wert” (To a Sky-Lark, stanza1; p. 732). It must have been from

heaven or near to heaven. It does not simply sing, but pours its enchanting melody “In profuse strains of unpremeditated art” (To a Sky-Lark, stanza1; p. 732). He supposes the bird as a meeting point for human beings to find the perfect source of joy and happiness. If they assimilate within it, they can find peace and security. From the very beginning, the speaker epitomizes the bird as the point of consensus where the consciousness and will of the people merge. It is the idea that finds its perfect blend in the concept of “the general will” postulated by Rousseau. By delimiting the power of the will of all, we enjoy the freedom. In this stage, as Rousseau(2013) says, “we are forced to be free” (as cited in Russell, 2013, p. 633), which is a metaphysical stage. The speaker of the poem suggests that we go beyond the realm of common rationality when the mess of mere thinking vanishes and the human becomes natural. The concept of “the general will” clarifies that by enjoying “civil freedom” (Grayling, 2020, p. 254), one can be in full swing to perceive “the natural freedom” (Grayling, 2020, p. 254). In this regard, Shelley’s “To a Sky-Lark” encompasses the common voice of human beings who, though living in the institutionalized state, can realize the happiness and joy of the natural stage. Rousseau (2013) in his “Discourse on Inequality”(Rousseau, 2013) holds the belief that “Man is naturally good, and only by the institution is he made bad” (as cited in Russell, 2013, pp. 625-26). The bird skylark, being the “Blithe Spirit”(Shelley “To a Sky-Lark”, 1986, stanza1; p. 732), becomes the essence of the natural stage of human beings.

The structure of the first stanza is so intricately woven to expound this theme. King-Hele (1984) describes, “The four short lines match the quick wing-beats of the lark’s hectic climb, and the long final Alexandrine represents its easier descent” (p.228). Thus, the skylark transfers the celestial glory to the terrestrial world because “That from Heaven, or near it, Pourest thy full heart” (Shelley “To a Sky-Lark”, stanza 1;1986, p. 732). It is an angel or Messiah to liberate the world with its message to uplift the human condition. So the speaker hails the bird with enormous joy as the epitome of “the general will”.

The idea of the “general will” becomes much more intense when the speaker visualizes the skylark in a quite different situation than that of a human being living in this world. Since we are in the bondages of chains, the skylark breaks them and enjoys the natural freedom in the state of nature. For the poet, writes Goodman (2002), “it is the hope that he will be heard ultimately. And he feels that he may achieve this sooner, if he can capture the skylark’s fine, careless rapture” (p.179). In this sense, the poet disregards the will of all and feels that the rapture of the skylark could provide serenity to the human being as “the general will” of Rousseau. In the sixth stanza, Shelley (1986) mentions:

All the earth and air

With thy voice is loud,
As, when night is bare,
From one lonely cloud

The moon rains out her beams, and Heaven is overflow'd. ("To a Sky-Lark", p.733)

The speaker relates the joy of the skylark with the natural world. The entire atmosphere of the world is rejuvenated with "thy voice" and music. The song is mesmerizing that "Heaven is overflow'd", and how can the earth escape from it? Such encompassing voice, the source of liberty and freedom, is there to bridge the diverse will of the humans living here on the earth. One transcends the thought as it halts in this stage because one becomes a natural human. Rousseau (1961) also justifies, "I venture to declare that a state of reflection is contrary to nature; and a thinking man ('an intellectual', as we would now say) is a depraved animal" (as cited in Durant, 1961, p. 260). It radiates the point that to debunk the bondage of institutional tutelage, one needs to be free from it and merge in the ponderous glory of the natural state where will of all becomes one and then becomes "the general will". At this crucial juncture, Shelley's skylark becomes the paragon of "the general will".

For Shelley, the skylark categorizes heartstring pattern because its song becomes a soul of joy and bliss. Its natural beats become the lyre where different polarities of vibrations go beyond the phenomenal domain and synthesize with each other giving a unified melodious tune. This is also the ideations of Rousseau's "the general will". The negative liberty that seeks one's benefits transforms into positive liberty where one sees the other in the self. When one realizes the other, the rays of positive coexistence shine with all their intensity. Shelley (1986) glorifies the skylark in the seventh stanza:

What thou art we know not;

What is most like thee?

From rainbow clouds there flow not

Drops so bright to see

As from thy presence showers a rain of melody. ("To a Sky-Lark", stanza7; p. 733)

The skylark goes beyond the earthly parameters. That's why, the poet, as in the opening line, repeats that we earthly beings are not familiar with the identity of the kind of the skylark. It is far, but its affinity is with us. It is not perceived, yet

it is felt. It is the source of ultimate bliss because of this metaphysical quality as described by Tzu (1988), regarding the essence of Tao, “Its rising is not bright; Its setting is not dark” (p.14). This totality of the skylark illumines the human beings to realize their common interest by discarding their private interest. To justify this point, King-Hele (1984) views, “We are given another taste of inter-sense imagery here and in some of the answers to the question. . . Shelley saw thought as a glorious illumination breaking our all-too-common mental torpor” (p. 229). Only the humanly thought provocation cannot realize this point. To assimilate in the natural freedom, one must not be enslaved by gross passions; rather, as opined by Rousseau (2013), “Our natural feelings . . . lead us to serve the common interest, while our reason urges selfishness. We have therefore only to follow feeling rather than reason to be virtuous” (as cited in Russell, 2013, p. 632). To be virtuous is not to be an ignoramus about the skylark because from “thy presence showers a rain of melody (“To a Sky-Lark”, stanza 7; p.733). This melody is the melody to make us virtuous. It has a great symbolic implication.

The Skylark as a Harbinger of Peace and Joy

Shelley, in his poem, sees the skylark as the source of joy and liberty. To expose happiness of the skylark, he contrasts it with the condition of humans in this mundane world. Exactly like Rousseau, Shelley also focuses the anxiety and tribulations of this human-made world and its culture. Rousseau (1961) argued that “culture is much more of an evil than a good” (cited in Durant, 1961, p. 260). For him, the delimitation of the rapid growth of intellect and reason simply makes human clever and mischievous. So, feelings and even instincts remain reliable for him. This is the point where Shelley merges his ideas with Rousseau. His entire odes including “To a Sky-Lark”, meditate on the power of feeling, emotions that lead him to an affinity with pantheism. The fifteenth stanza exposes this profundity:

What objects are the fountains

Of thy happy strain?

What fields, or waves, or mountains?

What shapes of sky or plain?

What love of thine own kind? What ignorance of pain? (“To a Sky-Lark”, p.734)

These series of queries expose the dichotomy between the world of the skylark and this world where civil rules and norms dominate. These questions muse on the different kinds of the joy of the skylark while analyzing the human condition. The poet is projecting that the bird is from the other realm which has its “happy strain”.

It is the domain of “love of thine own kind,” the showering of joy and glory and freedom from tribulations, fear, “ignorance of pain”, and decay. Shelley disfavors the dominance of hard intellect and the bondage of this civic society. That’s why, he wrote *Necessity of Atheism*. As a result, he was expelled from Oxford and even his country. Doesn’t this strength of rebellion express the true intensity of Rousseau’s claim that “man is born free, and everywhere he is in chains” (as cited in Russell, 2013, p 532)? This is the reason they both want to materialize the power from the natural world that must become the harbinger of happiness and liberty.

The dichotomy between the joy of the natural world and this mundane world finds its crux in the poem when Shelley expresses the bitter reality and the profound truth of this world. MacEachen (1996) elucidates that Shelley believes in two lines of truth. The first one is an attempt to fix his satisfaction by writing about nature and her patterns. This is a relative one. The second one is quite important as he wants to find the secret of the skylark’s happiness. That secrecy of the skylark’s happiness becomes the common source of happiness for humankind. This is another important point where he speaks about Rousseau’s philosophy of individual will and “the general will”. If Shelley wants to disseminate Skylark’s happiness to the whole world, then it is the form of “the general will” that he sees in the form of nature. He analyses the condition of humans in the eighteenth stanza by contrasting it with the happiness of the skylark expressed in the fifteenth stanza. Shelley (1986) says:

We look before and after,
And pine for what is not:
Our sincerest laughter
With some pain is fraught;
Our sweetest songs are those that tell of saddest thought. (“To a Sky-Lark”, stanza 18, p.734)

This stanza provides the striking reality of the world. Looking “before and after” is the stage of analyzing the past and anticipating the future. Even the part of the joy that is “our sincerest laughter” encompasses the pain unlike the joy of the skylark that is beyond expression. The unsurpassable joy, love and happiness of the skylark come face to face with the situation of dilemma and paradox that dominates the entirety of our world. The last line of the stanza paradoxically expounds the reality. The sweetest songs of human beings always bear tragic thoughts because life itself is tragic and full of pain, vicissitudes, and ups and downs. Describing the intensity of the above stanza, Peterfreund (2002) writes, “The very sapience that languages human song consigns that song not only to temporality and materiality but also

meaning and individuation. To “look before and after” is to realize one’s distance from future and past by reason not only of mortality but of personhood as well” (p. 274). We cling in between the materiality and temporality, and the distance and diverse duality between the past and future. So, we let pains, tribulations, and impermanency rule here in human made society.

The poet always rules and builds the array of the worlds. They have their creations which always surpasses the materiality of the world. That’s why; Shelley (1986) in his “A Defence of Poetry” says, “Poets are the unacknowledged legislators of the World” (p.792). It signifies that poets create the truth of that wave the path for the morality of the world. They too bear strange power to prescience the reality of the world. In this regard, Shelley claims that poets are equally responsible to drive society as the philosophers and great politicians like Rousseau and others. Like philosophers, poets too envision and nurture the world throughout the multiple crossroads of the time. When we just see the contrast between the fifteenth and eighteenth stanza, it is not hard for us to realize that like Rousseau, Shelley too holds the belief in divisions. They have the meeting poet regarding the diverging patterns of natural freedom and civil freedom as well as individual will and “the general will”. Still, Shelley has to be acknowledged, regarding the other aspects. Abrams (1986) gives a foundational comment on Shelley’s philosophy about the world and above. He says, “Shelley found congenial the Platonic division of the cosmos into two worlds—the ordinary world of change, mortality, civil, and suffering, and the criterion world of perfect and eternal Forms, of which the world of sense-experience is only a distant and illusionary reflection” (p. 663). These divisions find the real essence when we just heed the seventeenth stanza of Shelley’s “To a Sky-Lark”:

Waking or asleep,

Thou of death must deem

Things more true and deep

Than we mortals dream,

Or how could thy notes flow in such a crystal stream? (p. 734)

The differentiation between the mortal world and the world beyond it justifies Abram’s comment about Shelley. Tarnas (2000) opines that the ideas are real for Plato because “it is crucial to the Platonic understanding that Forms are primary, while the visible objects of conventional reality are their direct derivatives” (p. 6). In the above stanza, Shelley makes the point that the world of the skylark is beyond the realm of mortal world. That’s why, its music can be compared to a singular consciousness that can give a release from the bondage of mundane concern.

Then what does the poet want from the skylark? This is the most crucial aspect of the poem. No doubt, the poet wants to form a knot of total consciousness or singularity in the message delivered by skylark. That message would perfectly tie up the whole world into a point. The personal will and ego sweep away and one realizes the other's role in the totality of existence. That small bird will answer the most complex question that has deluded humanity. King-Hele (1984) rightly judges, "The lark has no reviewers, slanderers or creditors to trouble him, and we heed his song" (p. 229). At the crux of the optimism and joyful stage the poet requests the bird in the final stanza of the poem:

Teach me half the gladness
That thy brain must know,
Such harmonious madness
From my lips would flow

The world should listen then, as I am listening now. ("To a Sky Lark", p. 735)

Shelley wants the skylark to teach only the "half the gladness" that has been enjoyed by the bird because it is a "blithe spirit." He projects that in that gladness all the world would find happiness disregarding personal will and accepting "the general will". It is the stage of positive liberty as projected by Rousseau. Only the perceptions of "harmonious madness" produce the rhythm of natural freedom. In the rhythmic beats of natural freedom, "to sing like the skylark involves relinquishing human identity and the language in which it is expressed. To learn 'half the gladness' reposing in the skylark's 'brain' is to relinquish the order of the human brain and thereby to create a poetry that is nothing other than 'harmonious madness'" (Peterfreund, 2002, p. 274). In this way, the skylark has become the metaphor for the exemplification of Rousseau's "the general will", where personal desires are eliminated and the collective will, desires, and actions give rise to a collaborative dance for the whole humanity.

Profound knowledge sheds its radiance when two different patterns merge. This study merges the political theory of Rousseau with Shelley's poem "To a Sky-Lark". Booth et al. (2016) highlight that additional implication in concluding part is an equally important aspect of research paper. Sometimes, philosophical catchphrases and ideas prove to be abstract and complex, making them inaccessible to the general public. When the abstraction and complexity of philosophy find a better exemplification with a simplified interpretation, everyone will be benefitted from the foundational aspect of knowledge. In this aspect, this paper gears up to view everything critically with a new perception. It better justifies that truth is one;

only the manifestations are different as expressed in Rig Veda (1.64.46) which says, “Truth is one, the wise call it by many names” (as cited in Goldberg, 2010, p.10) In essence, Rousseau philosophizes Shelley’s spirit of happiness in some natural stages while Shelley romanticizes Rousseau’s “the general will” with aesthetic pleasure. Thus, philosophical complexity can be revisited with a symbolic interpretation as the bird skylark in Shelley’s poem remains an emblem of Rousseau’s “the general will”.

All these interpretations and dynamics enhance the development of a prescience to interpret and reinterpret diverse subject matters so that they can be bridged. This can lead to harmony where the symphony of knowledge and wisdom flowers ceaselessly.

Conclusion

Shelley’s “To a Sky-Lark” expounds Rousseau’s philosophy of “the general will.” The poem consolidates the idea that skylark epitomizes the source of happiness and it remains beyond the tribulations and pains of earthly pros and cons. It is the spirit of joy and bliss, and the music that it pours from its world enlivens the message to sweep the misunderstandings of the world. “The general will”, as a mutual understanding, incorporates the personal will as well. The song of the bird becomes the meeting point for all the diverse desires that run in our world. When we set aside our desires and wishes for the happiness of others, we respect the general point of happiness. The impact of positive liberty shines in at that crux of realization. Besides, it is another way of enjoying natural freedom. This culmination of Rousseau’s philosophy sincerely finds its expansion in the intensive pattern of Shelley’s poem. The skylark carries the natural agenda that can uplift the human condition that has been routed with the mess of human-constructed institutions. The music and song of the skylark, with its angelic and genuine vibes of nature, can break the chain and bondage that liberates humans from institutionalized and hackneyed situations. The skylark becomes the messiah who opens the gateway to beatitudes. Since the core pattern of “the general will” radiates the collaborative dance, Shelley in his poem expects half of the gladness of the skylark that would invigorate the harmonious beats of a song. That would be the stage where all could enjoy collaborative and cooperative dance by merging the personal will into “the general will” with the genial spirit of democracy. Shelley’s poems demands further interpretations from other political philosophers like Montesquieu, Voltaire, and John Locke.

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Semantic Volte Face of English Words in Nepal

Shankar Dewan

Department of English, Sukuna Multiple Campus, Morang

Tribhuvan University, Nepal

Corresponding Author: *Shankar Dewan*; Email: dewanms4@gmail.com

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Abstract

With the spread of English globally and its contact with the local languages, English words have undergone some changes in their pronunciation, forms, meanings, and functions. This paper attempted to explore the changes in the meaning of English words in Nepal. From different literary texts, I purposively selected thirty English words that I found unique in their meanings, four English language teachers who could provide information about the semantic changes of some English words, and my own experiences. The selected words were categorized into five themes: semantic broadening, semantic narrowing, amelioration, pejoration, and semantic shifts, which were then analyzed and interpreted. The study reveals that English words in Nepal have changed their meanings from narrow to broad, from positive to negative and vice versa, and to something different or new in meanings, which are the variety markers of Nepali English (NE). The results of the study are useful for teaching profession, World Englishes, corpus linguistics, contact linguistics, contact literature, semantics, and pragmatics.

Keywords: Semantic broadening, semantic narrowing, amelioration, pejoration, semantic shifts

Introduction

With globalization and the unprecedented spread of English worldwide, bilinguals' creativity and nativization, a different variety of English has emerged in Nepal. The localized variety of English spoken and written in Nepal is known by different names such as Nepalese English (Crystal, 2003; Dewan & Laksamba, 2020; Karn, 2011; McArthur, 1987), Nepali English (Adhikari, 2018; Brett, 1999; Dewan, 2021; Giri, 2020; Hartford, 1993; Kachru, 2011), Nenglish (Daniloff-Merrill, 2010, as cited in Karn, 2011; Duwadi, 2010; Koirala, 2021; Paudyal, 2019; Rai, 2006),

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Neplish (Homes, 2007), Nepanglish (Kamali, 2010), and Nepenglish (Sharma et al., 2015). All these studies describe NE and its different features. In fact, English has been Nepalized in Nepal. In other words, the global character of English has been localized that has led to the emergence of a nativized and indigenized variety of English in Nepal. As Karn (2006) stated, "...the English language has been acclimatized here according to Nepali soil, Nepali culture, Nepali accent, and so on. As a matter of fact, some kind of Nepaliness has been added to the English spoken here" (p. 75), or some kind of hybrid English has emerged in Nepal (Dewan & Laksamba, 2020). The Nepaliness of English can be found at the levels of phonology, grammar, lexis/semantics, and discourses.

The phonological, lexical, semantic, grammatical, and discourse changes in localized varieties of English are becoming increasingly important areas of study in World Englishes. Previous studies (e.g., Brett, 1999; Jora, 2019; Rai, 2006; Sharma et al., 2015) have reported that English words have undergone the semantic volte face in Nepal, which means a major change in the meaning of words. Stevenson (2010) defined volte-face as a complete change of position in one's attitude or opinion. In semantic volte-face, the shift of meaning can be upside down; that is, words used in the positive sense are used in the negative sense, and vice versa (Rai, 1993). The semantic change in NE makes it different from other varieties of English, such as British English (BE) or American English (AE). Giving some examples of NE, Rai (2006) claimed, "Nenglish has its own specialties that make it different not only from English but also from Hinglish" (p. 34). Such specialties are evident in lexis and semantics. By using English words with new meanings, speakers of local varieties of English fulfill their communicative needs. If the speakers of other varieties of English do not know the new local meaning of English words, effective communication is not possible.

In recent years, there has been an increasing interest in the study of lexical and semantic changes in World Englishes. The study of the semantic volte-face of English words informs why and how words get changed in different local contexts. The research to date has not studied the semantic changes of English words in terms of semantic broadening, semantic narrowing, amelioration, pejoration, and semantic shifts in Nepal. Therefore, this paper seeks to explain the semantic changes of English words in Nepali contexts.

Literature Review

The majority of linguists in the past believed that language change was imperceptible and untraceable, despite the fact that it occurred. Since the 1970s, linguists have realized that language change is observable, provided one knows where

to look (Aitchison, 2001, p. 42). Labov showed that variation and fuzziness, which are quite often indications that changes are in progress, are amenable to strict observation and statistical analysis (Aitchison, 2001). Among the various factors of language change, Rai (1993) maintained that sociolinguistic factors are the main causes of meaning change. Aitchison (2001) mentioned fashion, foreign influence, and social need as the main sociolinguistic causes of language change. For her, language change is as unpredictable as fashion in clothes. Her substratum theory suggests that “when immigrants come to a new area, or when an indigenous population learns the language of newly arrived conquerors, they learn their adopted language imperfectly” (p. 137). Language, in this sense, changes naturally when it is acquired or learned by different language speakers. Such changes take place internally and externally. Kachru (2011) accepted that English lexical items have undergone semantic extension or restriction in South Asian English.

The English language has undergone formal and functional changes as a result of its spread from its original habitus to a new habitus (Patil, 218). The users deliberately change English to adapt to their situations. D’Souza (2001) reported how English was borrowed, transcreated, recreated, extended, stretched, and twisted in India. Therefore, English words have acquired specific meanings in India (e.g., “family” is used for “wife”). Achebe (1965) maintained that English needs to carry the weight of his African experience, which is possible only through a new English, still in full communion with its ancestral home but modified to fit its new African environment. He highlighted why nativized English is today’s need. On writing in English, a similar experience was expressed by Rao (1938) in his novel *Kanthapura* as “the telling has not been easy since one has to convey in a language that is not one’s own the spirit that is one’s own” (p. vii). His experience also justifies the fact that the native variety in its unchanged form is inadequate to express one’s inner feelings and desires. Therefore, it is necessary to adapt and modify the English language to make it able to express local cultures and meanings. As Larsen-Freeman (2007) stated, “Indeed, English is one of the most hybrid and rapidly changing languages in the world. You yourselves have experienced this in Nenglish where ‘cold store’ has come to mean corner shop” (p. 70). In this way, English words are used to mean different things in the local contexts.

All languages experience gradual changes in word meaning throughout time. Murray (1997) maintained that semantic broadening, semantic narrowing, amelioration, pejoration, and semantic shifts are the five different phenomena or processes that undergo semantic changes in words. In semantic broadening, the meaning of a word becomes more general or inclusive than the native speakers’ usage. Brett (1999) described that “bored” in Standard English means “not interested,” but NE uses this word to describe everything from “not interested” to “frustrated” and “annoyed.”

Similarly, she claimed that the meaning of the word “romantic” has been overextended to mean “nice” or “pleasant” in NE. In Rai (2006), the word “cheat” means “deceive” or “trick” in Standard English, but it also means “use unfair means in the examination” in NE. All these examples show that the meaning of English words has undergone semantic broadening in Nepal.

In semantic narrowing, the meaning of a word becomes more specific or restricted than its earlier meaning or the native speaker’s usage. Rai (1993) maintained that native Hindi speakers use the word “betaa” for both their son and daughter, whereas Nepali speakers use it only to refer to their daughter. Such semantic narrowing confirms the sociolinguistic cause. He added, “The modern attitude of treating son and daughter equally is being firmly established specially in the elite class, and the use of ‘betaa’ to address daughter reflects this attitude” (p. 70). Similarly, the word “wife,” which meant “any woman” in Old English, has narrowed in its application nowadays to “only married women” (Yule, 2010). This change of meaning also reflects the attitude of the people towards women.

The meaning of a word can also change, both positively and negatively. In the case of amelioration, the meaning of words becomes more positive or favourable; for example, the word “pretty,” which meant “tricky, shy, cunning,” has changed its meaning to “attractive” now, whereas the meaning of the words becomes more negative or unfavourable in the case of pejoration; for example, the word “silly,” which meant “happy, prosperous,” is used to mean “foolish” now (Murry, 1997). In this regard, Rai (1993) described that the word “guru” was very honorific and referred to a highly respected person such as someone who was devoted to teaching and learning, highly learned, honest, and having a very strong moral character, but it is now used to denote a person who teaches in schools and campuses but not necessarily a scholar, and even to the bus and truck driver. Similarly, he exemplified that the word “hero,” which means “a boy or man respected for bravery or noble qualities,” is used to refer to a hooligan, or a dandy. In both examples, the meaning of the given words has become more negative. In another article, Rai (2006) described that the word “typical,” which means “the most common of its kind” in Standard English, is used in the opposite sense by Nepali speakers; for example, “He’s a typical man” means “an uncommon man or a weird man.” All these examples show that semantic change is common in every language.

Another process of semantic change is known as semantic shift, in which a word loses its earlier meaning and receives a new, but often related, meaning. For example, the word “immoral,” which meant “not customary,” is used to mean “unethical” now (Murry, 1997). In NE, the word “scale” is used to mean “ruler” (a material used to draw lines or measure distances) (Brett, 1999). Similarly, Pingali (2009) found that

some English words have different Indian meanings, such as shift “move, especially house or office,” smart “well-dressed or cunning,” bearer “waiter,” clever “intelligent, especially cunning,” and latrine “a toilet in any place.” Such shifts in meaning can also be found in other varieties of English.

Dewan and Saud (2022) analyzed the growing craze in the use of English in Nepali public domains, and found that there has been a growing craze in the use of English in Nepali discourses and public domains, along with code-mixing in speech and writing. Similarly, Saud’s (2022) study discussed the phenomenon of mixing multilingual terms in Nepali folk pop songs and the reasons for mixing such codes from other languages, and found that the young generation is mostly attracted towards the folk pop songs with code mixing, and such songs become popular among the youths due to their multilingual flavour. Researchers from home and abroad have focused on different areas of NE in their research, such as Adhikari (2018) on phonology; Brett (1999) on lexical features (a glossary of NE words); Dewan (2021) on bilinguals’ creativity; Dewan and Laksamba (2021) on hybridity; Jora (2019) on some phonetic, syntactic, semantic, and discourse features; Karn (2012) on nativization in English literature in Nepal; Rai (2006) on specific spoken and written features; and Sharma et al. (2015) on some lexical and grammatical features of NE. Some studies have given only a few examples of semantic changes in NE. However, no research has yet been carried out focusing on the semantic volte-face of English words in Nepal. Therefore, this is a new area of research in NE, which distinguishes it from other varieties of English.

Methods and Procedures

I adopted the qualitative content analysis approach, which analyzes perceptions after close reading of texts (Given, 2008), particularly the manifest and latent content or meaning of texts (Bryman, 2016; Schreier, 2013), or the main contents of data and their messages (Cohen et al., 2008). I purposively selected four English language teachers from Morang district as the sample. They had had the experience of teaching from school to college level students for about a decade. At first, I informed the participants about the purpose of my study and briefed them on how their privacy would be maintained. To ensure anonymity, I used an alpha-numeric identity (T1-T4) for all participants involved in this study. After receiving the consent of the participants, I conducted semi-structured interviews with them and recorded the interviews using my mobile. The interviews contained open-ended questions. I also purposively selected three anthologies of stories, namely *Martyr and Other Stories* by Vishnu Singh Rai (2016), *The Royal Ghosts* by Samrat Upadhyay (2006), and *Arresting God in Kathmandu* by Samrat Upadhyay (2018);

four novels, namely *Seasons of Flight* by Manjushree Thapa (2012), *The Other Queen* by Sheeba Shah (2018), *Crossing Shadows* by Shiwani Neupane (2015), and *Palpasa Café* (translated version) by Narayan Wagle (2005/2016); a travel essay *A Day in the KalaksetraGuwahaty, Assam* (2016) and a memoir-like essay *Reminiscing my Childhood Days (Ignorance of Bliss)* (2012) by Govinda Raj Bhattarai; an autobiography *Atmabrittanta: Late Life Recollections* (2017) by B.P. Koirala; and an essay *Is Nepal Small?* by Laxmi Prasad Devkota (2017). I read the sampled texts and picked up the English words that have undergone semantic changes in Nepal. I purposively selected thirty words from the interview, texts, and my own experiences, categorized them into five themes: semantic broadening, semantic narrowing, amelioration, pejoration, and semantic shifts, and analyzed and interpreted them.

Findings and Discussion

The study revealed that English words have undergone semantic changes in Nepal. The meanings of some English words have become more general, others have become more specific, and some others have become more positive as well as more negative.

Semantic Broadening

Semantic broadening is the process by which a word's meaning expands from its original context to become more inclusive or general (Murray, 1997). Findings of this study show that Nepali writers and speakers of English use some English words which have more extended meanings than in BE or AE. They use the verb "eat" not only with edible things but also with drinkable things (e.g., I eat beer) and non-edible things. In the example "Some ate bridges and roads, some fertilizers and aeroplanes" (Rai, 2016, p. 114), the verb "ate" means "corrupted the budget allocated to construct bridges and roads and to buy some fertilizers and aeroplanes." Perhaps, this is the typical NE usage of the verb, which may be difficult for English speakers to understand unless they understand the pragmatic meaning of "eat" in the Nepali context. NE speakers also use the verb "eat" with "water" (e.g., I eat water) to mean "drink" and with "promises" (e.g., I eat promises) to mean "make" because of the influence of Nepali. The verb "eat" is more commonly used than "have" and "take." For example, "I ate my dinner while she sat there" (Wagle, 2005/2016, p. 22). But in Standard BE or AE, the verbs "have" and "take" are more common. The use of "ate" in the above examples reflects both the influence of Nepali and the bilinguals' creativity. It also indicates that when any word is used in a new local context, its meaning may also be changed. The speakers of other varieties of English need to understand the local pragmatics of Nepal.

In Nepal, the teachers are generally addressed as “masters.” In sentences like “What did the masters do to you today *Saila*? Did they beat you?” and “Let’s have a look at your works— how your masters have written in your notebook” (Bhattarai, 2012, para. 16), the word “masters” refers to school teachers. Now, the meaning of “master” is not limited to the teacher. In the sentences such as, “The classmate replied, ‘No, I’ll be a schoolmaster, Sir.’ This time the teacher had laughed. ‘Oh, you’ll be a master all right. A master tailor!’” (Wagle, 2005/2016, p. 117), the word “master” refers to both the school teacher and the tailor. In this regard, T1 explained:

The word “master” is an English word that was used to address a specific person who had mastery over any specific subject. Now its meaning has been extended. It is used to refer to a tailor as well as a school teacher.

The meaning of the word “master” is much more extended since it is also used to address the tailor as well as the boss or house owner. In the sentence “My master was calling me again, so I hurried to the kitchen to heat water for him” (Upadhyay, 2018, p. 167), the word “master” refers to the boss or house owner. This is a typical lexical feature of NE because the word “master” is not generally used in these senses in BE or AE.

The finding revealed that the word “guru,” a borrowed word in English from Sanskrit, is used in a much broader sense in NE, which endorsed Rai (1995). The word “guru” has two meanings: a Hindu or Sikh religious teacher or leader, and a person who is an expert on a particular subject or who is very good at doing something (Stevenson, 2010). In Nepal, *guru* is commonly used in our day-to-day communication to refer to anyone who is not a religious teacher or an expert, for example, *ke chha guru?* (How are you *guru*?). In my interview, T1 explained:

The term “guru” is used in Nepali English, but the meaning of *guru* in the past and present is different. Its meaning at present is extended. In the past, “guru” was used to refer to a specific person, but now it is used to refer to many people, whether they have knowledge of any specific subject matter or not.

In this way, the meaning of “guru” has gradually moved from a religious teacher or an expert to anyone without any expertise and then to a driver. Moreover, the driver is addressed by adding the suffix “-*ji*” to the word “guru.” For example, “Guruji not only gave her a free ride...[.]” (Rai, 2016, p. 135). Therefore, the word “guru” is prestigious, as the suffix ‘*ji*’ is attached to it, and the drivers are always addressed as “guruji,” not simply “guru,” which indicates that teachers are less paid than the drivers and have less respect in the present Nepali society (Rai, 1995). With the extension of its meaning, the word “guru” has completely lost its glorious position in Nepal.

The study showed that the word “line” is used uniquely in Nepal. NE speakers extend the meaning of this word to mean “electric supply.” In the words of T3:

When the electric supply is gone, we only say “line,” that is, “line is gone” or “line has come.” I think the word “line” might be uniquely used in Nepal.

In BE or AE, “line” refers to the thick wire that carries electricity from one place to another, but in NE, it is used to mean electricity. It indicates that the speakers of the local variety of English use the English word with a different meaning according to the local context.

Another word that has undergone semantic broadening is “manpower,” which simply refers to the human resources or workers needed to do a particular job in BE or AE. In Nepal, its meaning has been extended; for example, I have heard many people say, “I work in the manpower” and “I have opened the manpower in Kathmandu.” In my interview with T3, he said that the agency that sends workers abroad has been named “manpower.” In NE, “manpower” refers to not only the workers or human resources but also the agency/office/organization that sends workers abroad. Similarly, the word “tiffin” is uniquely used in NE. In a sentence by Bhattarai (2012, para. 15), “There was no Tiffin hour, no break, and no pocket money, nothing to eat,” the word “tiffin” refers to break time to have a snack rather than a snack or lunch itself. To its usage, T3 stated:

The word “tiffin” might be used as “snack or meal” by foreigners, but we use “tiffin” to mean “the break time to take a snack.” Now it is about to have tiffin.

T3 opined that the word “tiffin” is used to mean not only the snack one eats in the middle of the day at school but also the time to take such a meal. Its meaning has been extended in the NE.

The study revealed that the meanings of the words “boarding,” “tower,” and “read” have been extended in NE. In this regard, T3 responded, “The word “boarding” is used to refer to a private school, although there is no boarding facility in that school, that is, a facility for accommodation and meals.” The boarding school is called a private day school in Britain and a public day school in other countries (Brett, 1999). Similarly, in NE, the meaning of “tower” is extended from “a tall, narrow building” to “a mobile network.” In day-to-day communication, I have heard many mobile users say, “There is no tower in my mobile today” or “Check whether there is a tower in my mobile.” In a similar vein, the verb “read” is used to mean “study” and more than this. A very common question asked by the English teacher in Nepal is “In which class do you read?” rather than “In which class do you study?”

In my interview, T3 also responded that NE uses the verb “read” (e.g., I read in class three) where “study” is used in BE or AE. This finding endorsed Brett (1999) that the Nepali people say “My son reads in K.G.” to mean “My son is in kindergarten” (as children neither read nor study in kindergarten).

Nepali speakers of English tend to use the words “give” and “take” for reverse meanings. In NE, the verb “give” is used to mean “to hand over or provide something to somebody,” “to take,” and “to lend.” I have frequently heard Nepali students of English say, “When will you take our exam, sir?” and “Give me your dot pen,” and some English language teachers say, “Give your exam properly.” Such expressions reflect the speakers’ mother tongue influence or their bilingual creativity. In a sentence like “Say that you have a meeting to attend or I have an exam to give!” (Neupane, 2015, p. 18), the word “give” has been used instead of “take.” In BE or AE, students or examinees take an exam or a test, and the examiners give it. In NE, the verb “give” is commonly used “to take” an exam.

The study also revealed that the words “romantic” and “straight” have undergone semantic broadening. In the sentences “That’s why your works seem so romantic” (Wagle, 2005/2016, p. 23) and “One day, I heard the voice of a man singing a romantic song... [.]” (Koirala, 2017, p. 144), the meaning of the word “romantic” is “nice or pleasant,” which endorsed Brett (1999). In another sentence, “Don’t I look like a romantic?” (Wagle, 2005/2016, p. 260), the word “romantic” is a noun that refers to a person who is not serious but makes a lot of fun. In Nepal, a person who constantly makes fun of themselves or always cracks jokes is typically referred to as a romantic. Brett (1999) mentioned that the word “romantic” has two specific meanings in Standard English: one is synonymous with “dreamy”- a person whose feet are not quite on the ground or one who has an active imagination, and the other is connected or concerned with “love.” Stevenson (2010) mentioned its meaning as a person who is very imaginative and emotional. But in the NE, “romantic” means more than this. Similarly, the word “straight” is concerned with not only direction, size, and shape but also someone’s attributes or character in NE. In the sentences “We’re both equally straight” and “And she told me you were as straight as a rod” (Wagle, 2005/2016, p. 260), the word “straight” means “not talented” or “simple-minded.” The writer produced these sentences because of the influence of the Nepali language. It is the direct translation of *sojo* or *sidha* from Nepali. It indicates that the meaning of “straight” is overextended in NE.

Semantic Narrowing

Semantic narrowing refers to a semantic change in which a word is used with a less general or less restricted meaning (Yule, 2010). The findings indicated

that some English words have undergone semantic narrowing in the NE. Words, such as degree, don, knife, bike/cycle, basket, safari, and hero/heroine, which have broader meanings in BE or AE, have a narrower meaning in NE. In BE, the word “degree” refers to the qualification obtained by students who successfully complete a university or college, that is, the bachelor’s degree, or the master’s degree, or the postgraduate degree (Stevenson, 2010). In NE, it is often used to refer to only the master’s degree. For instance, there is a post graduate campus in Biratnagar, which is also known as the Degree Campus, where only master’s level courses are taught. I have heard many students who study at the master’s level say, “I am studying for a degree.” Similarly, the teachers also say, “I teach degree-level students.” In these examples, the meaning of “degree” is restricted to “master’s level only.” In BE, the word “don” has two senses: a teacher at a university and (informally) the leader of a group of criminals involved with the Mafia (Stevenson, 2010). In NE, it is restricted to the second meaning only.

In NE, the word “knife” is not used to denote all sharp cutting instruments. For the Nepali people, the *khukuri*, *karda*, and knife are different weapons. The Nepali writers have restricted its meaning by using more redundant words, such as *khukri* in the sentence “And Ganesh would hoist the *khukri* knife high in the air... [.]” (Upadhyay, 2018, p. 97) and *karda* in the sentence “...he would bring me a *karda* knife or *chulesi*... [.]” (Bhattarai, 2012, para. 16). In this regard, T4 also responded that the word “knife” is used in a more restricted sense, that is, a specific type of cutting instrument, particularly *chakku* in Nepali. It indicates that the meaning of English words changes when they are used in different local contexts.

Stevenson (2010) incorporated meanings of “bike” and “cycle” as “a bicycle or motorcycle.” In this regard, T3 also responded that the words “bike” and “cycle” refer to both bicycles and motorcycles. But in Nepal, “bike” is used to refer to a motorcycle and “cycle” to refer to a bicycle. In NE, both words are used in a limited sense. Similarly, “safari” in Nepal is now commonly used as a vehicle in the small cities. Regarding this word, T3 explained:

Until a few years ago, I had not seen a safari in Nepal. A vehicle which is generally used as local transport in Nepal is called a safari. I think “safari” might have a broad meaning, but we have been giving the name of the electric rickshaw “safari.” I don’t know whether it is called a safari in foreign countries.

Stevenson (2010) incorporated the meaning of “safari” as a trip to see or hunt wild animals, especially in East Africa. In Nepal, it is used differently to denote an electric *rickshaw* used locally for transportation.

Regarding the meaning of the words “hero” and “heroine,” Stevenson (2010) mentioned that the word “hero/heroine” refers to a man/woman or girl who is admired by many people for doing something brave or good. It also refers to the main male/female character in a story, novel, or film/movie. In Nepal, these two words are generally restricted to mean an actor or an actress, for example, “You should be the heroine in an action movie” (Wagle, 2005/2016, p. 178), “You presented me as a romantic hero, an individual” (p. 90), “She had sympathized with the heroines and heroes and felt sorry for them but all of it was fiction” (Neupane, 2015, pp. 27-28), “...the first time she saw that it made her look like a Bollywood heroine (Thapa, 2012, p. 128), and “Akhil shouted from behind the camera, and Ranjit fell to the ground, clutching his heart, ‘Now, the hero chasing the heroine!’” (Upadhyay, 2006, p. 68). In Standard English, the words “actor” and “actress” are preferred. In Nepal, the terms “hero” and “heroine” are also used to describe someone who is brilliant or talented, physically handsome or attractive (a “hero”), or beautiful (a “heroine”). In the sentence, “What came over you, Umesh? I never knew you wanted to be such a hero...what are you saying? I only want to help” (Upadhyay, 2006, p. 38), the word “hero” refers to someone who does something good for others. Rai (1995) explained that the word “hero” refers to a hooligan, or a dandy, rather than a man who ought to be respected for his bravery or noble qualities. In Nepali society, hooligans are not only feared but also praised and respected as heroes. Rai further added that it is not at all surprising because, in the long run, these hooligans will take the saddle and bridle of the government. In this way, the meaning of “hero” and “heroine” has changed in Nepal.

The word “basket” in BE or AE has a broad sense because they use the same word to refer to a container for holding or carrying things. In NE, the word “basket” refers to a small bamboo object such as a *dali* or *tokari*. In this regard, T1 explained:

The word “basket” has one type of meaning in British or American English. In our context, it refers to only a specific thing. We have several words to refer to different forms of basket. Its meaning seems to have been narrowed down in our context.

NE is richer than BE or AE to refer to the basket. This word is not used to refer to *doko* “a big-eyed bamboo basket carried on the back,” *dhobe* “a large bamboo basket used to carry dungs,” *thunse* “a large bamboo basket that the hill women carry grains or shopping items in it,” and *dhakar* “a large bamboo basket used to carry things while traveling a long distance.” Therefore, the authors borrowed the word “doko” and did not use the word “basket” in the sentences “As I was watching them, a group of girls with *dokos* on their head came... [.]” (Rai, 2016, p. 54) and “How long do we have to keep carrying these *dokos*?” (Wagle, 2005/2016, p. 102) since the Nepali

speakers of English have narrowed down the meaning of the word “basket.” English does not have fully equivalent words to refer to different Nepali words such as *dali/ dalo, doko, dhobe, thunse, and dhakar*.

Amelioration

Amelioration refers to the development of a more positive or favourable meaning of a word (Murry, 1997). The study revealed that English words like “silly” and “danger” have changed their meaning from negative to positive in NE. In BE or AE, the word “silly” has a negative connotation, that is, it is used to mean “stupid or embarrassing,” but in NE, it has a more positive connotation. In this regard, T1 said:

The word “silly” was used in the negative sense in the past, but now it is used to refer to someone who is clever and wise and can easily trick others.

In Nepali culture, if someone is silly, it does not always imply that they are stupid. They might be much cleverer or more intelligent than others. This view is also expressed by T2 as follows:

I think words like “silly” and “cunning” are used much more positively in our context despite having many negative connotations. We call those politicians “silly” or “cunning” who have easily reached the upper positions.

Both teachers agree that the word “silly” is used much more in the positive sense in NE. It is used to describe someone who is clever, wise, and intelligent rather than foolish, rude, or weak-minded. Let us observe the meaning of “silly” in the following paragraph from Shah (2018):

He is a poor man. But he holds fast to his religion and his honour. Oftentimes, I have told him to take a wife, but that he won’t. He says that he loves me and if he cannot have me, he will never marry. Silly boy!

In the above context, the word “silly” does not seem to have a negative connotation. The boy seems to be clever, not stupid. Regarding the semantic volte-face of the word “danger,” it has a negative connotation in BE or AE, but it also has a positive connotation in NE. It is because of the direct translation of the Nepali word *khataraa*. The word *khataraa* has undergone the volte face, which was used to show negative quality previously, but it is not used in its previous sense anymore (Rai, 1993). In this regard, T2 explained:

We call someone a danger if he does something perfectly. We use it to mean “brilliant” and “talented.” We say that he gives a danger speech, which means a good speech.

In the above excerpt, the meaning of the word “danger” has a positive connotation. It is used to mean perfect, brilliant, and talented.

Pejoration

Pejoration is a process in which a word acquires its negative meaning, or has its meaning downgraded or depreciated. The study revealed that some English words like “sexy” and “drugs” have changed their meaning from positive to negative. Some words that have positive meanings in BE or AE are used in negative senses in NE. In Standard English, the word “sexy” means attractive, beautiful, or sexually exciting. It also has a positive connotation. In Nepal, it is used in a restricted and negative sense. In this regard, T4 responded:

In America, when we say “How sexy?” to a woman, we might get a “Thank you” response from her, but if we say the same to a woman in Nepal, she might slap or scold us. It has a negative connotation in Nepal, where it is generally associated with sex.

T1 also agreed with T4 that the Nepali people generally understand “sex” as “sexual intercourse” rather than the word to distinguish between male and female. Therefore, people often feel uncomfortable when they hear it. Let us observe the meaning of “sexy” in the following sentences:

“We like your sister, donkey,” another man said. “She’s sexy.” Jay laughed at him. The three men pummeled Jay, who was trying to protect himself and strike back at the same time (Upadhyay, 2018, p. 149).

Ranjit laughed. “It will be a sexy movie, eh, Diwakarji? (Upadhyay, 2006, p. 70).

The word “sexy” has the negative connotation in these two examples. One of the reasons is that sex is not openly discussed in Nepali society. Therefore, the Nepali people do not prefer to be called or addressed by the word “sexy.” Similarly, the word “drugs” is used in Nepal in a narrow and particularly in a negative sense. In this regard, T1 explained:

Drugs generally refer to medicinal substances, but in Nepal, we generally understand them as something taken by addicted people, not as something used by all patients. When someone says he uses drugs, we interpret it negatively. Actually, we are all having drugs.

What can be inferred from T1’s explanation is that the Nepali people generally view drugs as illegal substances that some people smoke or inject but not as medicine. In AE, a drugstore means a shop or store that sells medicines and other types of goods, for examples, cosmetics (Stevenson, 2010). For Americans, “druggist” means

“chemist” or “pharmacist,” but in Nepal, it refers to someone who consumes illegal substances called drugs. In the NE, this word has a more negative connotation.

Semantic Shifts

Semantic shift refers to the loss of the original meaning and the acquisition of a new meaning for a word. Findings revealed that Nepali speakers of English use some English words “pass out” to mean “graduate,” “handle” to mean “steering wheel,” and “back mirror” to mean “rear view mirror,” indicating a semantic shift. The word “cinema” is used interchangeably with “film” or “movie.” I have heard several times that Nepali people say “cinema *herna najane?*” (Don’t you go to watch a cinema?). In the sentences “When I am in a foreign land, I am watching cinema or a drama” (Devkota, 2017, para. 14) and “Luis was not cinema-hero handsome” (Thapa, 2012, p. 47), the meaning of the word “cinema” has shifted from a building in which films or movies are shown (Stevenson, 2010) to a movie/film. Similarly, the word “tuition” means “teaching in a college or university” in BE and “the amount of money paid for teaching in a college or university” in AE. But it is commonly understood as teaching privately by charging some fees in the private centres in Nepal. People can see several privately run tuition centres, particularly in the cities or around the schools, campuses, and universities where the students take tuition classes out of school, college, or university class hours.

All the kinds of semantic changes discussed above represent innovation, not degradation, and they make perfect sense to the native speakers of that variety (Baratta, 2019). Such semantic innovations demonstrate how words lose their original meanings and acquire fresh meanings, or are used in local contexts (Crystal, 2005). The reason behind it is that the speakers of NE are not only the consumers of the meanings of others but also the creators of meanings who shape and reshape the meanings of words (Halliday, 2006). They use their agency to appropriate word meanings based on local needs. In this regard, Pennycook (2010) maintained that language is a local practice in which words acquire new meanings as a result of their use in the local context. All kinds of semantic changes of English words occur as a result of change in the world, change in linguistic context, and change resulting from borrowing (Meillet, 1926, as cited in McColl Millar, 2015). When words move from global to local contexts, multiple layers of meaning are generated.

Conclusion

NE is a distinct variety of English that has words with different local meanings than BE or AE. English words have undergone semantic broadening, semantic narrowing, amelioration, pejoration, and semantic shifts in Nepal because speakers, listeners, writers, and readers produce new meanings as they move, write,

read, and travel through different local spaces (Pennycook, 2010). Such changes are not for the worse, but for appropriation in local contexts. In this regard, NE, following Anesa (2019), often undergoes appropriation processes, which allow its speakers to adapt English to fit the local milieu in a creative way. Therefore, according to Schneider (2003), “It is absolutely necessary to develop some tolerance toward such changes” (p. 273). The local practices and local meanings of English are not idiosyncrasies but innovations, which show agency and bilinguals’ creativity (see Dewan, 2021, for details). These realities should be duly considered in teaching, corpus linguistics, contact linguistics, contact literature, and lexicography. The study provides information on local semantics and local pragmatics to those working in the semantic and pragmatic sectors. Teachers can encourage their students to understand and use the local meanings of English words. Furthermore, it is necessary for applied linguists to change their traditional perspectives on error analysis while dealing with the semantic features of NE words.

This study was limited to the semantic analysis of some English words obtained from different texts; interview with English language teachers; and my own experiences. Future researchers can collect more English words from different sources, such as English newspapers, billboards, speeches in English, everyday discourses, email/messenger/Facebook chats, and different literary texts, and study the semantic volte-face of those words in the Nepali context. They can also study the semantic volte-face of English words at the acrolect (standard or high variety of English), mesolect (informal variety of English), and basilect (low variety of English, also known as broken English) levels.

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Classroom Activities of Trainee English Teachers in Nepal

Arun Kumar Kshetree, PhD

Department of English Education, Butwal Multiple Campus, Butwal

Tribhuvan University, Nepal

Corresponding Author: *Arun Kumar Kshetree*; Email: arunkshetree@gmail.com

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Abstract

The classroom activities refer to the techniques and activities used by the teacher in the classroom to teach the topic of the day. This article is based on the observation of the classroom activities of the trainee teachers while teaching English. In this study, I have presented what actually the trainee English teachers of the basic level schools of Butwal Sub-metropolitan City tried to do to make their students feel easy in learning English. Based on the classroom observation, the activities of the teachers have been categorized in three major categories namely starting the lesson, lesson or content delivery and closing the lesson. The activities observed during the class observation of the trainee teachers have been presented with some theoretical bases related to the activities. In fact, the students of the Bachelor's Level of Education have to teach the students as the trainee teachers for just two weeks in the schools around the campus and their classes are observed by their internal observer as well as by an external examiner. The study is basically a descriptive study based on the observation method. I have observed the classes of many of the trainee teachers of English as an external examiner and as an internal observer and have found that their activities were not as expected by the university curriculum. This suggests that the trainee teachers need to be familiar with different kinds of techniques and activities useful to teach English in the classroom and the courses need to be designed to motivate the student teachers use creative ideas to apply the techniques and activities to help their students learn English easily.

Keywords: Trainee teachers, practice teaching, class observation, motivation, teaching activities, external supervisor

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Introduction

The four year B.Ed. programme of Tribhuvan University is actually the major teacher preparation programme which aims to produce quality teachers to fulfill the national requirement and its curriculum has been designed that way. Among many courses taught for the students, one of the most important courses or part of the B.Ed. programme is the practice teaching which is accomplished at three phases: microteaching, peer teaching and real class teaching in the schools sent by the department. The students as the trainee teachers sent to the schools nearby and a teacher from the campus as their internal observer is also available to support the trainee teachers during their school teaching. At the end of the teaching practice, their final class is observed by the external supervisor and their total tasks are also evaluated after the class observation. This article has been prepared on the basis of the observation of the activities for teaching English by many of the trainee teachers when the researcher was observing an external supervisor and internal supervisor in different schools.

Teacher education, in fact, is a system of preparing individuals for effective educational transactions including classroom teaching. A teacher needs teacher education to be able to transmit knowledge, skills and attitudes to the learners in a more effective way. The expansion and explosion of knowledge has great impact and significance on teaching and teacher preparation. Thus, in the expanding world of education, teacher education has become highly thrilling and challenging (Chakrabarti, 1998). Kafle and Aryal (2000) mention that the teacher education is always viewed as calling for a search for quality and excellence and thus it opens up the horizon of human mind and accelerates the pace of both individual and national development. In this regard, teacher education is accepted everywhere as one of the most important sub-systems of the overall education system. In the same way, emphasizing the need of effective teacher education, Sharma (1997, as cited in Kafle and Aryal, 2000) states that a perfect teacher education system should produce a man of creative imagination rather than a technician of teaching or a manager of classroom.

In fact, the evaluation of the teaching can be done by various ways like analysing the students' achievement, teachers' promotion and progress or the improvement of the classroom situation and whole school situation. The society also looks silently on the school activities and evaluates them. The most important and reliable way of finding out the effectiveness of teaching is to observe the classes of the teachers who actually try their best to make students understand in the actual class. Though the criteria may be different on what aspects to measure and how many

classes to be observed, there is a general norm established on this, which means that the observation of classes in announced and unannounced ways will give sufficient idea about the effectiveness of training and the efficiency of the trainee teachers.

The English language teaching and learning in Nepal is not still satisfactory though much changes and developments were adopted in it in Nepal. The university courses have also been revised and refined to help the trainee teachers teach English more effectively. But the situation is still not improved in the actual classroom activities. The researchers and the school authorities are in the view that the classroom activities of the English teachers in general are not satisfactory and the activities of the trainee English teachers are hopeless. The head teachers complain that the trainee English teachers of B. Ed. programme are very weak and most of them have ruined the students they teach in their schools and many of the head teachers are reluctant to let the trainee English teachers to teach. Thus, the study tries to answer the basic question why the trainee English teachers' classroom activities are criticized and why these are not effective.

With this problem in mind, the present study was conducted basically to find out and analyze the classroom activities of the trainee teachers with the aim of suggesting some ways to improve the activities of them to help the students learn easily.

Literature Review

Many researchers have tried to study the classroom activities of the teachers and students and concluded in different ways. In this context, the Research Center for Educational Innovation and Development (CERID) in its 2002 study report pointed out that classroom delivery of the trained teachers were as teacher dominated and textbook based and the dominant classroom practices were simple. After entering the classroom, generally the teacher asks students for a copy of the textbook, if he/she has not carried one with him/her. Then they ask students where they were (page number or lesson number) in the sequential order of the lessons or ask students to turn to such and such page number. The teacher, after this, asks one of the students to read the text or the teacher himself/herself reads it adding his/her own interpretations here and there – mainly in a paraphrasing manner. In lower grades chorus repeating of the text is the usual practice and in the upper grades, memorization of the question and answer is done. Translation method is used most in the English language classes.

In this regard, Thapa (2018) conducted a research to find out the techniques of the female teachers in Kathmandu and found out that the teachers used techniques like use of teaching materials, motivation, warm up activities, providing feedback, use of rhetoric language, frequent walking in the classroom, self checking and peer

checking, use of lesson plan, group divisions, managing physical facilities etc. In the same line, Reimers-Villegas (2003) describes that the successful professional development experiences have a noticeable impact on teachers' work, both in and out of the classroom, especially considering that a significant number of teachers throughout the world are underprepared for their profession. Evidence shows that professional development has an impact on teachers' beliefs and behaviour. It also indicates that the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their practices is not straightforward or simple; on the contrary, it is dialectic, moving back and forth between change in belief and change in classroom practice. These findings suggest that the teacher education programmes need to change the beliefs of the trainee teachers and the courses need to help them sharpen their classroom activities so that the teaching and learning of English can be improved.

Not only this, Bastola (2018) in a research report found out that the students adopted different classroom activities such as language games, role plays, discussions, group groups, pair works, translations, question answer activities, drilling in the classroom and they organized other competitions at the schools. These all interactive activities are based on the principle of communicative language teaching where the teacher acts as facilitator and an advisor and students learn with fun. They were found regular, punctual and dedicated in practice teaching. They were found to be dutiful and responsible following every suggestion of their supervisors. They were found to be trying to construct attractive materials and using them appropriately to make their classroom teaching effective. Every student teacher was found to try to motivate the student by using different techniques such as jokes, question answers, language games and different types of activities. This study shows that the situation is slightly improved in the general classes but the case of English teachers is different in the real classrooms in Nepal.

In this regard, Hada (2008) emphasizes on good teacher education and mentions that studies have reported that much of the problems related to the quality education would be solved if high quality training is provided to the teachers. In the same way, Borko and Putnam (1996) describe that the data collected during the Cognitively Guided Instruction Project (CGI), a multi- year and multi-phase programme of curriculum development and research show a powerful evidence that experienced teachers' pedagogical content knowledge and pedagogical content beliefs can be affected by professional development programmes and that such changes are associated with changes in their classroom instruction and student achievement.

Johrabi (2011) in a research article mentions that based on the results of the questionnaire and classroom observations, the English lecturers rarely used diverse

types of techniques in order to practice language. Due to this, the students in most classes got bored and they lost attention. Not only this, another hidden problem was also noticed during classroom observation which was the lecturers' lack of motivation to communicate in English. When interviewed, many lecturers pointed out that students only need to acquire the reading skills and strategies to tackle their academic requirements. In the article the writer found that most of the lecturers and students told that pair and group work were not used as classroom activities. When asked, some of the lecturers pointed out that during pair or group work, the students used their mother tongue rather than English language, so they did not use group work and instead preferred individual work.

In this way, there are a lot of research works accomplished in the area of teachers' activities specially focusing on the transfer of the training skills and transfer of the course objectives in the real classroom use. Most of the research works were found to have studied the classes of teachers teaching different subjects in different levels of schools. Not only this, there were many research works conducted to measure the effectiveness of the pre service and in service teacher training programmes in Nepal which also focused on the transfer of the training skills in actual classroom teaching. Though there are many studies, conducted in Nepal and outside to find out the activities of the teachers and the effectiveness of the activities conducted during teaching, this study was focused in just analysing the activities of the trainee English teachers (students) of B. Ed. programme from Tribhuvan University, Butwal M. campus focusing on their classroom activities as the society and the academia criticizes the English language teaching in Nepal. The main focus of this study was to find out and analyze the English trainee teachers' classroom activities and techniques of teaching English and suggest the concerned authority to improve their activities of teaching.

Methods and Procedures

This study is basically a descriptive study based on the qualitative data analysis methods. The basic research tool used for the present study was a set of class observation check list developed on the basis of the Teaching practice course for the B.Ed. level students majoring English. The classes of trainee teachers teaching English in grade eight in the government aided schools were the main informants of the study. Thirty classes of fifteen student teachers were observed in five different schools of Butwal Sub-metropolitan city. The class observations were informed and uninformed both for the same student as this gives the real picture of their class performances and activities. Not only this, the overall impression of the class of every student teacher after their class observation was also used to find out and

analyse the activities of the students. Ary et al. (2010) believe that observation is a primary approach of getting data into qualitative. Thus the analysis is based on the class observation of the trainee teachers. For the interpretation of the data gathered, I used the analysis technique by Miles and Huberman (1994), which consists of the reduction of the data, displaying the data and drawing conclusions and verifications. This means that the obtained data were analyzed by gathering the data, classifying the activities of the student teachers and sub categorizing the English teaching activities of the student teachers as the activities while starting the class, during the content delivery as well as while closing the class etc. The results obtained were presented describing them as according to the curriculum objectives.

Results and Discussion

The classroom observation of the trainee teachers was focused on the activities like how the lesson started, subject matter delivered and how the classes concluded as to analyse the level of the performance of the trainee teachers and to analyse the extent of the success of the programme by means of improved class delivery methods of the trainee teachers to successfully accomplish the B.Ed. programme as the teacher education programme or teacher preparation programme. The results after the observation of the trainee teachers' classes are presented below in three categories of activities.

Starting the Lesson

In this part, the situation of how the classes of trainee English teachers were started and what was done to start the classes is analysed and presented. This part is segmented into a number of activities to be done to initiate the class like reviewing the previous lesson, using the lesson plan, linking the day's lesson to be taught with the previous lesson, asking questions about the lesson taught previously. The reality of what was observed is presented below.

Review of Previous Lesson

Generally the teachers have to make a quick review of what was taught in the previous classes as to create the background for the lesson to be taught on the day. Reviewing the previous lesson can help leading the day's lesson effectively. Reviewing the previous lesson also helps teacher and students link up the lesson of the day with the previous knowledge. It also prepares the students to study the day's lesson and reminds them the previous day's work. Thus the revision of the previous lesson taught is vital to start new lesson as it can help the students concentrate on the things to be taught.

Most of the student teachers in my sample did not try to revise the lessons taught previously while initiating the classes. They were not found to know what to teach in the particular class and thus they were found to be asking for the textbook from the students and asking what they studied in the previous class. Less than ten percent of the teachers tried to revise the lessons taught previously with one or two sentences about the lesson taught previously. About twenty percent trainee teachers were found to be trying to motivate the students by asking some funny questions and the questions related to general knowledge. Very few of them were found to be using some real objects or pictures etc. to motivate and start the class. Most importantly except telling the title of the previous class by a few teachers, none of the trainee teachers tried revising the lesson taught in the previous classes while initiating the classes. This is similar finding to CERID (2002) where the teachers were found to be asking for the book and asking the topic to teach. This indicates that the trainee teachers were unaware of the importance of linking up the previous knowledge to the topic to be taught.

Using Lesson plan

Harmer (2015) claims that a plan helps to remind teachers what they intended to do, especially if they get distracted or momentarily forget what they had intended. Lesson planning is very important for successful teaching as it ensures better and more effective teaching-learning and achievement of students. For the trainee teachers and the novice teachers, the lesson plan gives confidence and systematic delivery of the information as well as effective presentation. It helps the experienced teachers as well to make their classes effective by reminding the teachers about what is to be delivered. Preparing a good lesson plan helps designing the activities of the class and collecting the useful materials to teach effectively making students easy to learn.

During my class observation, I did not find any teacher who had not prepared the lesson plan. Only one trainee teacher said she had forgotten to bring the lesson plan she had prepared. Normally the experienced teachers say that they have mental lesson plans when someone asks for the written plan. But in reality they do not even remember what to teach before they see the textbook and ask the students about it. Though the preparation of the lesson plan may be time consuming for them, it certainly leads them towards a successful teaching. The trainee teachers in my sample responded that they always prepared the lesson plan in the written form and use the plan to make their teaching systematic and well organized. None of the teacher trainings can allow the teachers entering the class to teach without a lesson plan. The experienced teachers were completely careless towards preparing and using the lesson plans whereas the trainee English teachers were found to be sincere about

the benefits of preparing and using the lesson plan to build confidence and make teaching effective.

An elderly teacher said, I also used to prepare the lesson plans after I returned from the trainings but I never made the plan for more than a week. We have many periods to teach here and much to do in the school. We are not like the trainee teachers who just have to teach a class in a day and prepare materials and lesson plans.' It is reality of the schools that the teachers have more than five periods to teach everyday and they cannot prepare the lesson plan. But the teachers need to be motivated to at least see what to teach in the class before they go to class. This will slightly improve the situation to some extent.

Linking Previous Lesson with the Lesson to be Taught

Linking the class with the previous lesson is an important task which can easily motivate the students towards the lesson of the day. During my class observation more than fifty percent of the trainee teachers were found to be asking about the homework but they did not tell the students when they were checking the homework. Most of the trainee teachers asked students what they studied the day before after asking for a book from one of the students in the class because they only have some materials and lesson plan register. In the case of the experienced and permanent teachers such question might have been asked because they did not have any idea about the lesson taught. But the trainee teachers as they have the lesson plan and the materials to teach the topic, such questions might have been asked to make students remember and recall the previous day's information to link the day's lesson with the previous knowledge. About forty percent of the trainee teachers whose classes were observed tried to summarize or describe the previous day's lesson which was very effective to help students learn easily by linking previous knowledge to learn the new things to be taught that day.

Questions on Previous Lesson

Asking a few questions from the previous lesson is an effective way to make students aware of the day's lesson and recalling the previous one. This motivates them and prepares for the new lesson as well. This also helps the students and teachers to link up the previous knowledge with the lesson to be taught. In the study, the trainee teachers during my observation were found to be unaware of the benefits of linking the previous lesson with that of the new one to be taught. Most of the trainee teachers were not found to be asking anything from the previous lessons and they did not try to link it with day's lesson. Though some of the trainee teachers tried to ask one or two questions from the previous lesson, the way they asked was not effective enough to encourage the students to remember what they were learning that

day and link that with the previous knowledge. The questions asked by the teachers were also not much appropriate and seemed to be asked just to show the observer and make the class observer feel that. But they were not found to be serious about the students' responses and the questions were asked for questioning only. It only ruined the time of the trainee teachers and the students.

Lesson Delivery

The lesson delivery is the skill of presenting the subject matter successfully so that the students feel easy to learn the things taught in the class easily. Thus this part is equally important as the initiation and conclusion parts of the class. In this part I have tried to observe and study about various aspects of teaching like the teaching methods and techniques, construction and use of teaching materials, vertical and horizontal linking by the trainee teachers, medium of instruction, contextualization of the language items to be taught, teachers' questions in the classroom, acknowledging the students' participation in class, group and pair work activities used, classroom management and timely conclusion of the class as well as the attitude of the teachers towards the students etc.

Teaching Methods and Techniques

The classes of B. Ed. and the teacher trainings of the present situation emphasize the student-centered methods and techniques for the usual classes. They also emphasize the communicative method to be used to teach the present courses of the basic level classes. The techniques of the communicative method are also emphasized to be used in the class as these are effective. But the trainee teachers were not found to be effectively using the ideas they learnt in their classes in the real life teaching period. Most of the teachers were found to be using the traditional way of reading i.e. reciting and translating the lessons to the students and not using any student-centered techniques to teach English. I did not find any of the trainee teachers using any games and fun making activities while teaching English. I also did not find many teachers trying to create English medium instruction and situation.

Not only this, as this is the age of ICT and the twenty first century teaching and learning needs to be interlinked with the online resources and there needs to be ICT inclusion in the teaching methods and techniques so that the students can independently learn even if they cannot come to the school using the online resources. Most of the trainee teachers were not capable to incorporate the ICT in their English teaching. Only two trainee teachers tried this just by showing some events in their cell phones.

Construction and Use of Instructional Materials

Ordu (2021) suggests that the use of pictures, video clips, objects, internet facilities help the students to have a real-life imagination of the context of what is being taught. This leads to the reinforcement of learning: what we hear we forget; what we see we remember; what we do we understand. In fact, the use of instructional materials plays a vital role in the language teaching classes. The materials not only make the teaching and learning conducive but also give students some clues of English culture which is really important in language learning. Samuel (2009) describes that the instructional materials constitute alternative channels of communication, which a teacher can use to convey more vividly instructional information to learners. Almost all the training programmes and the B Ed classes to the students emphasize on the construction and use of the instructional materials while teaching English. In some teacher trainings the trainers make the trainee teachers compulsory to prepare and construct some teaching materials to be used in the English classes. Unfortunately, the teachers teaching in B. Ed. classes just teach the topic of construction and use of teaching materials and escape, they don't make students work on constructing the teaching materials like charts, word cards, flash cards etc and how to use them. While observing the classes, the use of materials for teaching English was not found satisfactory especially when I was observing the classes without making the trainee teachers know that I was observing their class. But during the announced class observation, the trainee teachers tried to use the teaching materials such as some charts of fruits, flowers, animals' names etc. and word cards. Though the major focus of the pre-service and in-service teacher trainings in Nepal is to make the teachers able to construct low cost and no cost materials to teach language effectively by using them, most of the trainee teachers were not found to be developing the materials for teaching and using the instructional materials satisfactorily. Whatever the trainee teachers found to be doing in the class was to make some materials just to show them to the internal supervisor and the external supervisor not to use in the class to teach. This is really a bad practice and dark part of the teacher preparation programme in Nepal. In case of other regular teachers or job holder teachers almost all of them are not found to be constructing and using the instructional materials. They only take a duster and a piece of chalk or board marker which is also not used properly and effectively.

Linking the Contents with Previous Knowledge

Linking the present lessons with those the students studied in the previous years in the same subject or other subjects is also one of the most important techniques of effective teaching. This means that the trainee teachers need to be familiar with what the students have already studied and what other subjects they

study with which their content can be linked. The horizontal and vertical linkage of the contents is very important in ELT classes. Both vertical and horizontal linkages play a vital role in memorizing the concepts being taught. But in my observations I found that very few of the trainee teachers tried to link the content to be taught with what was taught last year in the previous class or even in the previous lessons. The trainee teachers were found to be unable to link the idea with something they have to study in the same class in other subjects and the things they have already studied. Such horizontal linkage is also very effective and interesting for the students to learn new concepts. Very few of the trainee English teachers reminded the students about the grammar rules they studied in the previous grade. This is in fact the weakness of the trainee teachers and the trainee teachers do not have much experience about what they have to study in their class and before.

Medium of Instruction

The medium of instruction is one of the most serious aspects of English language teaching classes in Nepal. Giri (2015) describes that in the context of Nepal, the history of using English in academia has not been very long. In 1850, as the prime minister of Nepal, Jung Bahadur Rana visited Britain and was influenced by its education system. Crystal (2012) states that the first reason is that English has been used widely in the global context in different aspects of human endeavors such as education, science, technology, politics, communication, and trade. Thus the importance of English has been much and if the students become competent in English they can easily get better opportunities after their studies. The English teachers are often criticized mainly for teaching English in the Nepali medium. The classes observed were taught in Nepali medium, describing everything in Nepali, even asking the simple questions in Nepali by the trainee teachers. The only English expressions some of the students spoke in the English classes were ‘yes sir’, ‘no sir’, ‘may I go out sir’, ‘may I come in sir’ etc. with inappropriate pronunciation. The English words most of the teachers were found to speak were ‘thank you’, ‘yes’, ‘no’ etc. but all other instructions and questions were in Nepali. Though the use of Nepali as the mother tongue of the most of the students can also be beneficial to the students to grasp the content, they will be deprived of learning and using English as well as deprived of getting English exposure to learn to speak English.

Contextualization for Teaching

In the language classes the role of contextualization is very important for making the abstract concepts clear and it is appropriate to teach the meanings of different expressions and terms. In my observation very few trainee teachers tried to contextualize for the meaning of some vocabulary items. But most of the teachers

just told the meanings of the words in Nepali without creating any context so that the students could remember the concepts and meanings for a long time. A trainee teacher tried role play activity for teaching the language structures while asking the price of the things but she was unable to use it successfully. This might have happened due to the fact that she could not give clear context of the situation and the students were not habituated for such activities.

Classroom Questions

Hayano (2013) has defined the term question as an utterance that requests a verbal or embodied response. This definition does not include every question possible, because questions are difficult to define and their identification might be context-based. In the views of Dayal (2016), questions can be studied for their pragmatic, syntactic, semantic, and prosodic features. Thus, when identifying a question, it is important to specify which features are taken into account. Asking questions in the class has many advantages; the teacher can make the class interaction two-way to some extent and the teacher can get feedback as to how effective the teaching had been. Moreover the students will stay attentive about what is being taught due to the fear of being asked immediately in the class.

In my observation of the English classes, I found about twenty percent of the trainee teachers using fewer numbers of questions where as only two teachers were observed to be asking numerous questions. The trainee teachers were found to be asking questions to the particular students only, basically the brighter students of the class and it seemed that the questions were asked because there was an external supervisor or an internal supervisor was observing the classes. Some of the teachers asked students individually, making a particular student stand up before s/he asked questions and many teachers just asked the questions to the whole class, whoever answered and whatever was the answer was not important. They, then, told them to write the right answer copying from the board. It was also found that some teachers normally repeated the students' answers correcting them but without punishing them for making mistakes. This was supposed to be a good sign for ELT development.

Group Work and Pair Work

The use of group and pair work in teaching English is one of the major focus areas of the teacher preparation courses and teacher training packages. The teachers and trainers emphasize the use of group work and pair work techniques. But during my observation I did not find the trainee teachers using these techniques in the ELT classes. In large classes as well as small classes, group works and pair works would be very much helpful to develop language. Only five trainee teachers tried using group work while asking some questions dividing the two rows of students into two

groups which was just to ask the question to the group. Such practice is not useful for language development as the teacher does not know which students answered right and who answered wrong. The teacher could have told students practice introducing types of activities in the pair form as well as group activities.

Timely Conducting the Lesson

Proper management of class and time while teaching is the sign of a good teacher and it gives positive impression on the students. In my class observation, I found most of the trainee teachers finishing too earlier. This might be because of the fact that they were being observed by their teacher and they could not teach openly. This kind of practice is done normally by the trainee teachers during the practice teaching when they are observed by their internal or external teacher. Very few (only two) teachers were found to be conducting the class properly in time.

Other Aspects of Classroom Environment

The classroom environment also plays an important role in teaching and learning. Noisy classes due to outside noises of vehicles or factory noises may not be as effective as the peaceful classes. Learning is affected by seating arrangement and the classes with insufficient light and ventilation. Not only this, the use of charts or wall paintings of the things with educational value is also important for effective learning as they create proper situation for teaching and learning. The teachers and trainers most frequently emphasize on setting up all subject corners with the displays of students' work in each class. During my observation I was able to see any such things displayed in the classroom walls of the classes I observed.

Teachers' Attitudes towards Students

The attitude of the teachers towards students is also important for effective teaching and learning. Some teachers are friendly to the students and some are not and they go to the classroom with a stick in one hand and a piece of chalk and a duster in the other hand. The attitude of the teachers towards students affects the students' achievement as well. During my class observation very few of the trainee teachers were found to be not as friendly as expected. Most of the teachers were found friendly to the students and mostly they stopped punishment in the class for not answering correctly and even for not completing the homework. I did not find any teachers using punishment. Three female teachers and two male teachers were not found as friendly as they were expected, but they also did not use any punishment in the class.

Only one case of simple punishment was observed in a class which was also for making noise in the class. The teacher just shouted at the student to stay quiet or

go out. One of the focus areas of the teacher preparation courses is about improving the attitudes of the future teachers towards students, school management and the school and community. This indicates that the training and education has changed the attitudes of the teachers towards students and the teachers are now-a-days more friendly to the students and they normally do not use punishment in the ELT classes.

Conclusion of the Class

The conclusion of the class is also as important as the initiation of the class. The ending part of the lesson should be made more effective and concisely presented because the things told last are most memorized as many psychological researches proved. Thus, in this part I have tried to study and analyse some behaviours and activities of the trainee teachers such as briefing and summarizing the lesson, providing the homework, remedial teaching after evaluating the students' achievement of the class etc. to conclude their classes.

Briefing and Summarizing the Lesson

In fact the briefing or summarizing is synthesizing the things taught in the particular class and thus it is recapitulation. The briefing of the concepts and summarizing the lesson taught is normally done in the classes as there is a general saying that the things listened at last remain for a bit longer time. Not only this, the teachers should summarize the lesson to make the students active to complete their homework. In my observation of the classes in many schools I found that the trainee teachers did not summarize the lesson taught instead they just assigned the homework in Nepali and left the class. This may be because they were not able to teach naturally due to the presence of the observer. Only four trainee teachers told one or two sentences mixing English and Nepali about the lesson taught. This indicates that the teachers are careless about the importance of recapitulation of the ideas taught. Even a single sentence synthesized about the things taught in a class can work much for the students to remember what was taught in that class.

Providing Homework

Homework in our society is an essential part of teaching and getting feedback about the achievement of the class. The parents notice that the teachers are teaching their children if they see their children doing homework. To some extent it is the indicator for the parents that the children are learning and the teachers are teaching. In my class observation, I found that most of the trainee teachers gave homework to the students. But I found very few teachers asking about homework given in the previous class and checking the homework in the class and even in the school office. Whatever the homework mostly given was to copy the texts and in some cases

answering the questions in the exercise. Such activities for the students can be given as homework but these are not much sufficient for language classes as the English homework should be helpful to develop some language skills or language item useful for their day to day communication.

Remedial Teaching after Evaluation

Normally the teachers evaluate the students to see how effective their teaching has been in case of students' learning. But the trainee teachers must evaluate their students just to make sure that their teaching objectives of the class are fulfilled. Evaluation gives a lot of ideas about how much the students have learnt. This can be done throughout the class when they feel necessary and can be done before they close the lesson. Remedial teaching after the evaluation may be required when the teacher finds that the students have problems in learning what was taught. If the teachers do not do remedial teaching the whole day's teaching is wasted. During the observation of the classes I found the trainee teachers trying to evaluate the students but the remedial teaching did not follow. Even if the remedial teaching was done, it was very briefly given with incomplete sentence and mostly it was told in Nepali. For example a teacher taught a text and asked the students some questions. The students answered different things most of which were wrong. But the teacher just told the answer in Nepali 'petma lagyo' patting his own belly. Neither there was good answer nor any remedial teaching for the students to get right answer of the questions like that. In fact, the remedial teaching was not done anywhere in my class observation. The evaluation was also mostly done in Nepali medium. From the view point of students who are weak in understanding English it is very helpful to use their mother tongue but from the view of aims and objectives of teaching English, such use of mother tongue of the learners will only be the hindrance to the opportunity to listen and practice English and it only will deprive the students from getting English exposure in their English classes.

Conclusion

In this way, the reality of the transfer of teacher education programme of four year B.Ed. of Tribhuvan University was observed. Though some aspects of teaching activities have been improved in comparison to the traditional classroom practices of the English classes because of the teacher education programme, the transfer of the skills imparted in the B.Ed. classes is still not at the satisfactory level as there are many activities imparted during the courses not implemented in the actual classes. The class management skills, teachers' attitude towards students, their closeness to the students etc. have been developed due to the teacher education programme. But the content delivery, students centered teaching learning situation etc. have still not

been implemented in the classes which may be due to the lack of sufficient practice during the peer teaching and microteaching phases or may be due to the lack of sufficient knowledge to apply in the teaching. The most important part of the B.Ed. programme is the construction and use of materials, planning lesson, making the teaching more effective, producing creative teachers etc. are not still as expected by the curriculum. The lesson plans are prepared but the teaching and lesson plan activities do not match in the classes. The students prepare the teaching materials but they cannot use them properly. The most important aspect of the 21st century teaching is to be linked with the IT and the teachers need to be able to incorporate the IT skills in their teaching which were missing in my observation. The course designers need to rethink about making the teachers more competent especially in the part of lesson delivery and all the classroom activities. The authority cannot escape by just blaming the teachers, campus managements and students as well as the trends of youths. Most often they claim that all the things were not found to be practised due to their carelessness and the teachers' busy schedules in the campus. It is time to rethink about the modality and implementation of the practice teaching in the Faculty of Education. Otherwise we will be converted into the place to just issue the training certificates.

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Analysis of Secondary Level English Teachers' Action Research Reports

Nawaraj Puri

Education Officer, Suryagadi Rural Municipality, Nuwakot, Nepal

Tek Mani Karki

Department of English Education, Mahendra Ratna Campus, Kathmandu

Tribhuvan University, Nepal

Corresponding Author: *Tek Mani Karki*; Email: tmkarki@gmail.com

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Abstract

Action research (AR) is a methodical process of self-inquiry accomplished by practitioners to unravel work-related problems. This paper analyzed the action research reports (ARRs) in terms of objectives, methodologies, citations and references, structures, areas covered in the problem, and lengths purposively selecting 30 samples of ARRs prepared in the 2020-2021 academic year by all the permanent secondary level English teachers of community schools in Nuwakot district. The ARRs were analyzed descriptively by applying document analysis as the method for this study. From this study, 17% of the ARRs were found without clear objectives, 60% ARRs were without the methodological section, and around 77% of ARRs were prepared without in-text citations and references. The variation was found in the ARRs in terms of the format, no research was found in relation to the listening skill, and 23% of ARRs were related to solving writing-related problems. The ARRs were found to have 418 -5312 words in terms of length and the language used especially in the findings were vague. It can be concluded that there is a great variation in the ARRs and a gap between theories and practices of AR in terms of objectives, methodologies, citations and references, structures, and length.

Keywords: Permanent English teachers, action research reports, variations, Nuwakot district

Introduction

Teachers face different types of problems in the process of teaching-learning activities in the classroom. These problems include demotivation in the study,

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dropping out of school, and so on. The best way to solve the problems encountered in the teaching learning process is to conduct action research (AR), find out the causes, and go for the resolution. This is a reason for conducting an AR, and another reason is to get a promotion as provisioned in the teacher service commission rules and regulations (Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology, 2000) for the teachers. For the second purpose, the permanent teachers carry out and submit the action research report (ARR) attaching it to the work performance evaluation form provided by the concerned authority annually to the Department of Education of respective municipalities.

Teachers are the real practitioners of teaching and learning theories in the classrooms. They normally carry out the ARs based on some model/theories to overcome the problems seen in the classrooms. Regarding AR, there are some theories/models which provide a way to conduct AR. Following the model(s), many teachers, teacher educators, teacher trainers as well as researchers (e.g., Harris, 2021; Hebisen, 2018; Horne, 2018; Keller, 2021; Nikic, 2021; Shin, 2021; Suwal, 2021; Wnuk, 2021, to name a few) have recently carried out the AR to solve the problems experienced in the particular item in the various skills and aspects of the English language teaching and literature. However, less attention has been paid by the researchers to study about ARR and their analysis. To fill this gap, we conducted a study which has analyzed the ARRs focusing on their components—objectives, methodologies, citations and references, structures, and length—prepared by the secondary level English teachers of community schools of Nuwakot district in 2020-2021.

Concept of AR

AR is the methodology of research that tries to change the action. It helps to “innovate teaching practices in the classroom that will give a greater impact to the total development of the students” (Ching, 2021, p. 72) in schools. Lewin (1946), coining the term, described action research as “comparative research on the conditions and effects of various forms of social action and research leading to social action” (p. 35). He further explained that the AR uses “a spiral of steps, each of which is composed of a circle of planning, action, and fact-finding about the result of the action” (Lewin, 1946, p. 38). He concluded that AR is a cyclical and continuous process.

AR helps to change the way of teaching in the classroom and the way of perception of teaching learning activities and the conditions of teaching and learning. Kemmis (2009) asserts “action research aims to change practices, people’s understandings of their practices, and the conditions under which they practice” (p.

464). He further explains AR is a “critical and self-critical process” to stimulate the transformations “through individual and collective self-transformation”, that is to say, the “transformation of our practices, transformation of the way we understand our practices, and transformation of the conditions” (p. 465) that empower our practice.

In line with Lewin, Mills (2014) claims that the AR is systematically conducted by “teacher researchers, principals, school counselors, or other stakeholders in the teaching/learning environment to gather information about how their particular schools operate, how they teach, and how well their students learn (p. 21)”. AR improves the practice and ability to solve real-life problems. The researchers are practitioners and the practitioners are researchers in this case. The researchers are not outsiders but practitioners. The theories developed by the experts concerning AR may not be applicable in the local context. It may even not be applicable to another student in the same context. The researchers research and practise at the same time. Some models regarding AR are reviewed in the following section.

Models of AR

Different models and formats of AR are discussed by different researchers. Goh (2012) writes “Kurt Lewin initiated the practice of action research when he researched about what happened when people became involved in decision-making about how the workplace was run” (p. 8). Many researchers planned their work and reports succeeding Levin’s cyclical five-step model: observe-reflect-act-evaluate-modify.

Kemmis and McTaggart (1988) proposed a model of AR which is familiar among researchers. This model is also based on the cycle which envisioned to develop a deeper understanding of existing circumstances. It begins with conceptualizing a concentrated problem and moving through numerous interventions and evaluations. They proposed a four-stepped model: plan-action-observe-reflect.

Efron and Ravid (2013) provided a sixth-step model for conducting the AR. The first step of action research, according to them, is identifying an issue or problem the practitioner wants to explore; AR starts with the identification of the problem. When the practitioner faces a problem, s/he needs AR to solve it. The second step is gathering background information through a review of appropriate literature and existing research on the topic; background information helps to understand the problem. To overcome the problem, we need to analyze the context with the help of background knowledge. The third step is designing the study and planning the methods of collecting data; after collecting the background information, the

researcher should design and plan for the research. The researcher should be able to choose suitable methods in his or her context.

Fourth step is collecting data; it includes getting the necessary information from data collection tools. The finding is based on the collected data. The fifth step is analyzing and interpreting data; raw data become meaningful after the analysis and interpretation. It is the process of giving meaning to the data collected. It enables the researcher to come to the conclusion. The last step is writing, sharing, and implementing the findings, a conclusion is drawn after the analysis of the data. It should be shared with other practitioners. At last, the findings are implemented to solve the work-field problem (teaching-learning problem). After some time, this method may not work. Then, the teacher conducts the research. This process is continuous as AR is a cyclical process.

McNiff and Whitehead (2002) set out an eight-step model of the AR process. Step one is reviewing the current practice. At this step, the researchers review the current practices to begin the action research. Step two is identification of wish to improve. The researcher, at this step, identifies the aspect he/she wishes to improve. Step three is imagination of a way forward. At this stage, the practitioner/researcher analyzes them carefully. Step four is trying it out. The researcher should try the best one that he/she thinks to be best. Step five is monitoring and reflection on what happens. After the utilization of the possible solution, the researcher has a reflection on what kinds of improvements are found in the practice.

Step six is modification of the plan in the light of what has been found, what has happened, and continue. This stage is for the modification of the plan based on the findings. The reflection helps to find weaknesses and strengths in the practice. It also helps whether to continue the method or modify it. Step seven is evaluation of the modified action. The researcher evaluates the modified action which shows whether the modified action has worked well or not. Step eight is continuation until satisfaction with the aspect of the work (e.g., repetition of the cycle). AR is a cyclical process. Therefore, the researcher conducts the AR continuously in a cyclical way.

Sagor (2005) sets out a straightforward four-step model of AR. They are “Clarify vision and targets. . . . Articulate appropriate theory. . . . Implement action and collect data. . . . Reflect on the data and plan informed action” (p. 5). The steps provided by Sagor are more or less similar to the other four-step model introduced above.

McNiff and Whitehead (2002) provide useful advice for novice action researchers. They suggest the researchers stay small and stay focused. They should identify a clear research question. It is required to be realistic about what can be

done and be aware that wider change begins themselves. They need to plan carefully and set a realistic time scale. They are suggested, if needed, to involve others (as participants, observers, potential researchers, etc.) in the research process and ensure good ethical practice. The authors advise novice researchers to concentrate on learning, not on the outcomes of action and the focus should be on the own self in company with others.

In the context of Nepal, the Education Section of the concerned rural municipality seems to be flexible relating to the model or the format of ARs to be prepared by the concerned teachers. In this circumstance, keeping Levin's cyclical five-step model (i.e., observation-reflection-action-evaluation-modification) in the center, we analyzed the ARRr carried out by the English teachers of the secondary level of the selected district.

Methods and Procedures

To analyze the ARRr we employed the "document analysis" (Asdal & Reinertsen, 2022; Bowen, 2009; Davie & Wyatt, 2022; Rapley, 2018) design which is used to review and evaluate documents both printed and electronic material systematically (Bowen, 2009) as a method to fulfill the objectives of the present study. In this study, 30 ARRr prepared by the secondary level English teachers in 2020-2021 were used as the documents which were collected using a purposive sampling procedure. To collect these documents, the first author visited the office of municipalities, rural municipalities, and Education Development and Coordination Unit (EDCU) of Nuwakot district.

After collecting the documents, the ARRr were simply coded with numbers from Report 1 to Report 30. Preparing the checklists for the target items of the ARRr - objectives, methodologies, structures, citations and references, themes of the topics, and lengths, we filled out the checklists with the appropriate data based on the ARRr. Then we (both authors) analyzed and described the data by means of tables and figures using percentage - one of the most commonly used statistics - in already decided themes (i.e., objectives, methodologies, citations and references, structures, areas covered, and length regarding the ARRr).

While collecting and analyzing the data, we followed the guiding principles of ethical consideration such as voluntary participation, informed consent, anonymity, and confidentiality as informed by Creswell (2007), Ryen (2007), Ary et al. (2019), and Cohen et al. (2018). For this, we took informed consent from the education officers and the chief of EDCU that we were going to use the research reports as the data of the study. We made sure we would maintain the researchers'/ practitioners' privacy and confidentiality. We also made sure that the information

received from the ARRrS would not be used any other purposes than writing research and publishing.

Results and Discussion

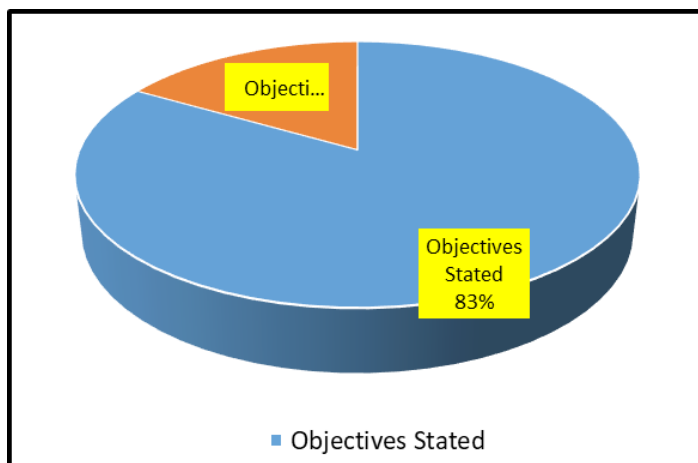
This section presents the findings of the research and their discussions. The raw data collected from 30 ARRrS were analyzed and described on the basis of the themes - objectives, methodologies, citations and references, structures, themes of the topics, and length, - as follows.

Objectives of the ARRrS

Objectives in any research pre-define concisely what the researcher is trying to achieve. The objectives provide guidelines to the researchers to go to the action. It is also true in the ARRrS. While analyzing the ARRrS, we found five reports (i.e., Report 1, 2, 15, 17, and 21) were completed and submitted without the objectives stated (see Figure 1). Completing the research reports without mentioning the objectives do not seem to be sound in the field of research. Concerning the issue, Trigueros (2019) mentions that research without objectives is like the adventure of unknown places without a guide which may lead the researchers to the unknown places. The five reports (17%) seem to have been out of track as they missed mentioning the objectives of the research.

Figure 1

Statement of the Objectives in ARRrS



Among the 25 ARRrS with a statement of objectives of the AR, most of them have imprecise objectives. For example, a researcher in Report 13 entitled “Ways of developing writing skill of secondary level students” stated the objectives (a) to encourage the students in writing skill of English, (b) to enable the students to do

different writing tasks, (c) to enhance their grammatical knowledge, and (d) to find out the better ways to improve writing skills. Similarly, another researcher in Report 14 entitled “An AR on developing skills of reading comprehension in English in grade-8” stated the objectives ambiguously, for example, (a) to improve the reading comprehension of the students, (b) to build up the vocabulary to comprehend the text easily, (c) to answer the questions related to the text appropriately, (d) to make effective and interesting reading experiences in their long life. These objectives are not in line with Bjerke and Renger (2017) who talk about the process for developing the research objectives. They stated that the research objectives should be specific, measurable, attainable, relevant, and time-bound (SMART). Most of the teacher-researchers have not used SMART principles while preparing the objectives.

Methodologies of the ARRs

The methodology section of the report presents a step-by-step explanation of the research process and how the research was conducted, the research methods used, and the reasons for choosing those methods. Some scholars (e.g., Kassu Jilcha, 2019) suggest that the major considerations of methodology are the design of the study, sources of data (primary, secondary, or both), the methods of the study, the population and sample, sample strategy, the study area/field, tool and techniques of data collection, the step-by-step procedures of data collection and the procedures of data analysis and interpretation.

While analyzing the methodological section of the ARRs, most of the teacher-researchers (60%) have not stated the research approach/method of the AR clearly. Regarding the statement of sample in the ARRs, only 18 of them were found to consist of the sample of the research. Among 18 ARRs, five reports (Reports 3, 12, 15, 22, and 23) were found to have stated the number of samples taken for the study. Among 30 ARRs, about three-fourths of the reports had the absence of a sampling procedure for selecting the sample. Of those which have consisted of the sampling procedure, all of them except one have applied the purposive sampling procedure. Only 22 research reports were found to have mentioned the research tools, the researchers employed limited types of tools (e.g., tests, observation, questionnaire, and interview) to gather the data for their AR.

Regarding the methodology section in ARRs, Goh (2012) suggests to include the action research framework, target group, action research plan, instrumentation, data collection procedures, data analysis, and conclusion. However, more research reports were not found to align with Goh’s suggestion. Besides, many scholars (e.g., Flick, 2022; Kumar, 2019), concerning the research methodology, state that

the researchers, regardless of the type of research, have to present a procedural plan systematically to answer the research questions validly, objectively, accurately and economically. They show the importance of the research design and methodology in the research which most of the practitioners have missed mentioning in their ARRs in the present study.

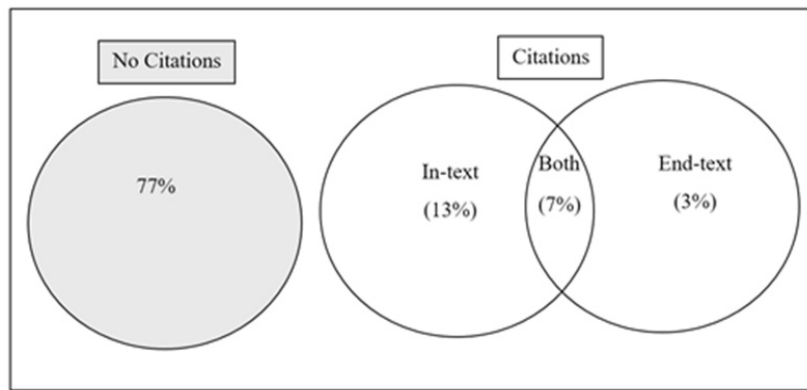
Citations and References of the ARRs

Citations and references mentioned in the research reports provide the original authors with proper credit for their creations. Incorporating others' creations and ideas without acknowledging them in a proper way is "plagiarism" or "academic offense" (Bailey, 2015; Hartley, 2008; Leki, 1998). Principally each reference cited in the text should be listed in the reference section.

Among 30 ARRs, 23 (77%) ARRs have neither in-text citations nor a list of references (end-text citations). Four reports have in-text citations but do not have a list of references. Two reports are found to have both in-text and end-text citations. One ARR among 30 has only a list of references but has no in-text citations. The condition of citations and references in 30 ARRs used by the practitioners has been diagrammatically presented in Figure 2.

Figure 2

Use of Citations and References



The result of the present research regarding the use of citations in the reports is informed by Karki's (2020) findings however, providing references and citations in academic writing is essential for three reasons. The reasons, according to Bailey (2015) are to show that the researchers have "read some of the authorities on the subject, which will give added weight" to their writing, to allow "readers to find the source, if they wish to examine the topic in more detail", and to avoid plagiarism"

(p. 52). Most of the ARRs prepared by the practitioners could neither show their “weight” in writing nor provide the source of their writing.

Structures of the ARRs

Different models and formats of AR are discussed by several researchers. The common cyclical structure which is tentatively followed by most of the practitioners is: observe – reflect – act – evaluate – modify as suggested by Lewin (1946). While analyzing the ARRs, they are found to be varied in terms of format or structure. Some of them are found to have only the description of the components used in the methodology of the AR, while some are found to have reviewed some of the related literature works and some are found to follow some traditional ways before writing something in the methodology of AR. The structures of three ARRs are presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Structures of Three Sampled ARRs

Report 1	Report 2	Report 11
Introduction	Introduction	Introduction
Plan	Statement of the problem	Objectives
Action	Possible causes of the problem	Problems of statement
Observation	Selected cause within my research	Possible causes of Problems
Reflection	Intervening actions	Strategic Intervention
	-Stage 1	Plan
	Plan-Action	Acts
	Observation-Reflection	Observation
	-Stage 2	Reflection
	Plan-Action	Conclusion
	Observation-Reflection	
	-Stage 3	
	Plan-Action	
	Observation-Reflection	
	Findings and conclusions	

Regarding the format or the structures of the reports, Goh (2012) states “Unlike most conventional research, the action research report need not follow a rigid format, however, for a beginning researcher, you may wish to take comfort in a given structure”. Most of the ARRs have been aligned with the ideas of Goh in terms of the format as there are similarities and differences in writing ARRs in terms of the structure. Though all the researchers do not seem to have followed the particular

model, the common thing is that most of the teacher-researchers more or less have used the cycle “Plan-Action-Observation-Implementation” in their ARRs.

Areas Covered (Topics) in the ARRs

In the Nepalese context, English is regarded as a foreign language. In this situation, a number of problems can appear in the process of English language teaching-learning activities. There can be a wide range of researchable issues in English language teaching classrooms. While observing the topics of 30 ARRs, they are found to have focused on language skills (16 ARRs), and other are vocabulary (five ARRs), grammar (two ARRs), and others (seven ARRs). The areas covered by the research report are presented in Figure 3.

Figure 3

Research Area Covered in the ARRs

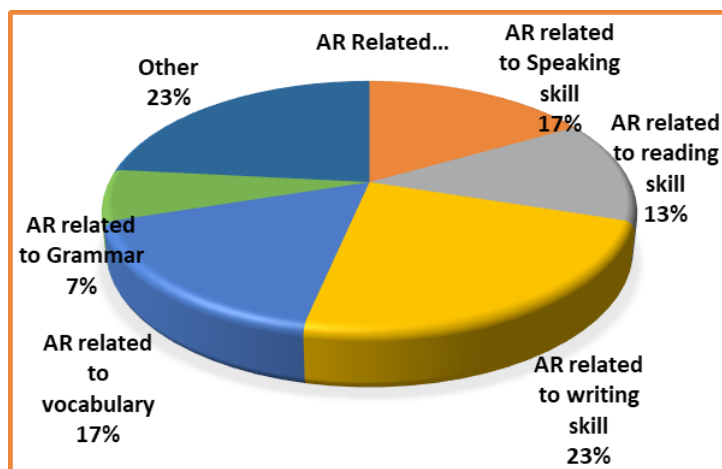


Figure 3 shows that the highest number (seven) of ARRs is carried out in relation to writing skills (Reports 13, 14, 17, 23, 25, 28, and 30). An equal number of research topics were found related to speaking skills (Reports 6, 8, 15, 16, and 18) and vocabulary (Reports 5, 7, 9, 11, and 27). Four ARRs (Reports 4, 10, 12, and 26) were found in reading skills. There are two ARRs (Reports 20 and 24) conducted on grammar-related topics. Some other areas covered in the ARRs were “Effectiveness of alternative teaching-learning tools used during covid-19 lockdown (Report 29), “Teaching in English medium” (Report 22), “English language curriculum” (Report 21), “Practical use of English language” (Report 19), “Way of improving learning achievement” (Report 1), “Facilitating learning through the messenger (Report 2)”, and “Dealing with the students of disruptive behaviors” (Report 3).

The teacher-researchers may have many potential issues, especially appearing

in the teaching-learning activities in English language classrooms. However, some significant issues are left to be researched. They could not cover the research topic related to listening skill which is a primary and important language skill (Tyagi, 2013) to learn the language. Similarly, among many others, the ARRr were not found to cover the areas related to the teaching aids, especially the “supplementary resource materials” (Karki, 2018) which play an important role in learning the content and language.

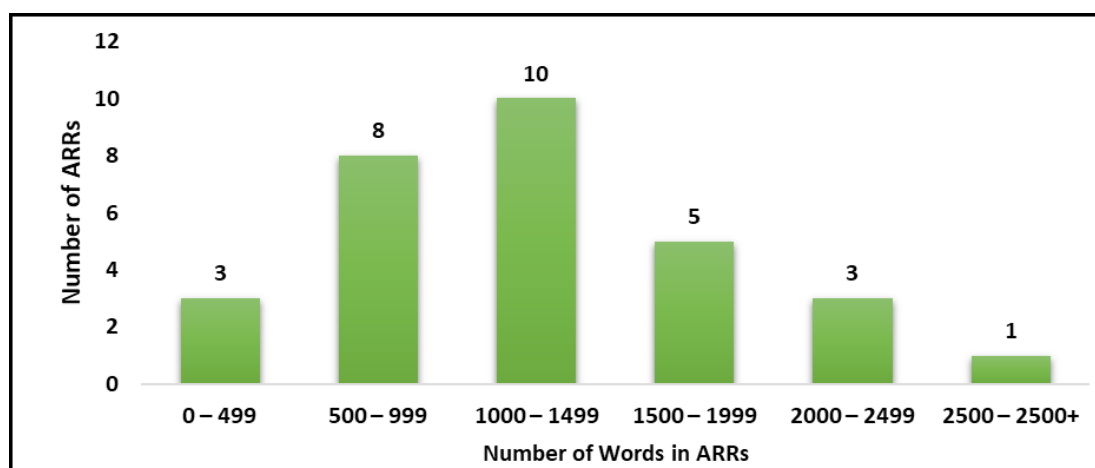
Besides, some topics of ARRr are vague such as “Practical use of English language” (Report 19), “Classroom teaching in English medium” (Report 22), etc. While deciding the appropriate topic, an action researcher, following Goh (2012), needs to be specific in the issues such as “the shortcomings in the teaching plans, preparation, and implementation” (p. 11), which facilitates the otherwise the researcher can be lost while selecting the topic.

Length of the ARRr

The length of the content of the research is an aspect of any report. The ARRr were found to be wide-ranging in terms of length (see Figure 4). A report (Report 12) was found to have only 418 words which is regarded as the thinnest one and another report (Report 22) was found to have 5,312 words which was the thickest of all the ARRr. Among 30 ARRr, one-third of the ARRr seem to have 1,000-1,499 words, slightly higher than one-third of ARRr have less than 1,000 words, and slightly lower than one-third ARRr have more than 1,000 words in general.

Figure 4

Length of AR Reports in Terms of Words



With reference to the length of the ARRr, there is no hard and fast rule on

how long the ARRr should be. The government policy documents even seem to be flexible in the issue of the length of the ARRr to be prepared by the teachers to submit to the concerned authorities. Similarly, different theories and models concerning AR proposed by several scholars even do not seem rigid about this issue. Concerning the issue, Mertler (2017) clearly states that “the length of research reports depends largely on their purpose” (p. 375). According to him, the ARs focus on cultivating the children’s learning, improving the schools, and empowering the educators rather than the length of the reports. The important thing is that the ARRr are believed to raise and discuss the target issue mentioned in the objectives/research questions of the particular AR. Whether the ARRr raised and discussed the target issue sufficiently can be another separate topic of research in the future.

Conclusion

The main purpose of conducting ARs is to assist teaching learning activities so as to avoid the problems experienced and faced by the students in the classrooms. It is a considerable approach to the teachers’ professional development. This paper analyzed purposively collected 30 ARRr carried out by the secondary level English teachers of Nuwakot district for their promotion, by selecting the parameters such as objectives, methodologies, citations and references, structures, research areas covered by the topics, and lengths of the ARRr. After analyzing the ARRr, it was found that there were significant variations among the reports in the target parameters and gaps with the AR theories or models of these reports were clearly observed in the parameters of the ARRr.

To produce quality ARRr, to bring uniformity among the ARRr, to implement the findings appropriately in the classrooms, and to minimize the gap between the ARRr with the AR theories, there is a need for preparing the guidelines by the concerned authorities at different levels (e.g., Teacher Training Center, Department of Education in the municipal level, Teacher Service Commission, etc.), for providing the teacher training focusing the AR, for mentoring the teachers while preparing the ARRr. As the study was conducted by collecting the data purposively from a confined place within a limited area, the findings of the research cannot be generalized to other places and subjects. For more wide-ranging, credible, and extensively applicable outcomes, similar but larger-sized studies in the future concerning AR are recommended.

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Metatheatricality and Self-reflexivity in Subedi's *Plays*

Bimal Kishore Shrivastwa, PhD

Post Graduate Campus, Biratnagar

Tribhuvan University, Nepal

Corresponding Author: Bimal Kishore Shrivastwa, Email: bimalksrivastav@gmail.com

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Abstract

This paper seeks to explore meta-theatricality and self-reflexivity in Abhi Subedi's two plays, *A Journey into Thamel* and *The Caretaker's Sky*, to mark how the playwright reflects the changing social and cultural milieus of Nepal through these dramatic techniques. Through a close reading of Subedi's *A Journey into Thamel* and *The Caretaker's Sky* from the metatheatrical perspectives propounded by Lionel Abel and Richard Hornby, the research surveys how the playwright connects theatricality and realism in these plays. *A Journey into Thamel* portrays the hardships of people living in the post-war scenario of Nepalese society. *The Caretaker's Sky* deals with the quest for freedom of creativity. But both plays share the common ground in terms of form, as Subedi's dramaturgy expresses using metadrama as a rhetorical vehicle. In doing so, he uses as many metatheatrical tools as possible in making the plays self-reflective. The chief finding of this research is that Abhi Subedi exploits meta-drama as a rhetorical vehicle and at a time responds to the co-existence of realistic drama, staged theatricality, and anti-theatricalism in these plays so as to portray the Nepalese problems. The research scholars intended to work on Nepali theatre are expected to take the paper as a reference.

Keywords: Experimental plays, meta-theatricality, Nepali theatre, realism, self-reflexivity

Introduction

Experimentation has been marked in the Nepali plays that began with Bal Krishna Sama in the early twentieth century. Modern Nepalese plays are "associated with religious and seasonal rituals and festivals" (Davis, 2010, p. 177),

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and “based on social subjects to depict the Nepalese lifestyle” (Mottin, 2007, p. 321). The research paper surveys how Abhi Subedi crafts *A Journey into Thamel* and *The Caretaker’s Sky*, both dramas published in 2003, as experimental plays interacting with metatheatrical techniques. The use of meta-theatricality in his plays ascends modern Nepalese theatre to a new height challenging the hitherto existing conventions of both readings and seeing the culture of the plays (Pokharel, n.d.). Thematically both plays differ; however, they share common ground in terms of meta-theatrical techniques and blur the traditional limitations of plays being anti-realistic amid the realism time and again. Abhi Subedi, a Nepalese playwright, poet, critic, and essayist, is recognized for his contribution to literature in both English and Nepali languages. The playwright voices the voice of historically muted women and ordinary people (Mishra, 2020). Subedi creates the world of marginalized people in his plays, where he brings in characters not very often used in mainstream literature. He takes different ingredients to his plays ranging from culture, rituals, religion to the meta-theatre, and postmodernity (Rijal, 2004). Subedi is also lauded for his style of introducing post-modern western styles of writing and creating the characters who realize the meaning of life once they face the bitter reality of life (Vatsayana, 2005). In the present dramas, *Journey into Thamel* and *The Caretaker’s Sky*, based on meta-theatre, the characters themselves act, direct, and discuss the play. *The Caretaker’s Sky* presents the complexity and challenges of modern life and life philosophy (Rijal, 2004). It tries to replicate the human quest of meaning in life. *A Journey into Thamel* is a quasi-historical play depicting a long-rooted aristocratic Nepalese family on the verge of downfall due to certain elements of social transformation.

Divided into five short acts, *A Journey into Thamel* is set on the historical palace, with the characters related to the palace and its hidden mystery in one way or the other. It does not have a central character unlike most of the experimental plays (Upreti, 2007). Bipin is the caretaker of the palace. The old woman, namely Rumjadidi, hardly makes her presence in the play; yet again the entire play is associated with her. There are other characters like Anup Nepali, Bhaskar Malla who are theatre actors and who plan to stage a post-modern play and wait for Rumjadidi’s arrival as if she is a key to everybody’s freedom. They plan, argue, act, and prepare a script for the play. Everyone is on a theatrical journey. When they attend *jatra* at the end they finish seeing a stage where different artists, painters, theatre directors, actors, poets, musicians are performing different forms of art. The closing scene of flowering creativity transforms in any reader or audience the sense of freedom through art. It portrays the way society transforms into a vast abyss of inequality present between capitalists and serfs. The minor characters in the plays are rarely given significant space and names of their own. *A Journey of Thamel*

demonstrates lots of metatheatrical elements throughout. The use of ballad singers, poetry, masks, randomly used dialogues, a celebration of the ceremony are some of the metatheatrical elements. At the very outset, a troubadour sings about the first Rana Prime Minister, Janga Bahadur Rana, and how he seized the power. This song of the troubadour is used as the refrain in the entire drama for depicting the hardship of people in reality (Updety, 2007). Jeewan, a poet often seems self-reflexive in his talks. However, these realistic plays exhibit and to some extent revolve around the depictions of depictions, the dramas of dramas, and especially in *The Caretaker's Sky*. Thus, the paper seeks to explore what message Subedi wanted to give using meta-theatrical elements in the plays.

Methods and Procedures

This study develops a theoretical modality based on meta-theatrical praxis. It applies a qualitative approach to research by using the primary resources, that is, Abhi Subedi's plays, *Journey into Thamel* and *The Caretaker's Sky*, and secondary resources such as literature from journals, websites commentaries. In addition to the close reading of the plays, the researcher uses the analytical research method to mark metatheatrical elements highlighted by the pioneers of the meta-theatre, Lionel Abel and Richard Hornby.

'Metadrama' or 'metatheatre' or even 'self-reflexivity in theatre' is a theatrical technique that emerged and developed in the western theatrical arena. Abel (1963), who coined the term 'metatheatre', introduces meta-plays as "theatre pieces about life seen already theatricalized" (p. 61). In one way or the other, it was in practice in Greek theatre, Oriental and ancient Sanskrit plays. In modern drama studies, Pirandello's *Six Characters in Search of an Author* (1921), Samuel Beckett's *Waiting for Godot* (1953), and Tom Stoppard's *Rosencrantz and Guildenstern Are Dead* (1966) are the skillful subversion of meta-theatrical conventions that lead to a rediscovery of realities beyond the grasp of rational thinking. With his emphasis on the fictiveness of plot and character, a meta-theatre is "the playwright's invention" (Abel, 1963, p. 59). Meta-theatre foregrounds the illusion of theatrical reality created by a dramatic performance. For Abel, all "meta-plays or works of meta-theatre are theatre pieces about life seen already theatricalized" (p. 61). The metatheatrical heroes are different from other theatrical figures in that "they are aware of their theatricality" (Abel, 1963, p. 60). Abel (1963) concluded his study of metatheatre with two observations: "The world is a stage and life is a dream" (p. 60). The first statement implies that the world is a projection of human consciousness: it is a man-made artifice, created by imagination. The second one emphasizes the flexibility and malleability of fate, and the dream like nature of existence.

Similarly, Hornby (1986) provided a concise and form-oriented analysis of the genre, pinpointing several easily recognizable forms of metadrama, such as “the play-within- the play, the ceremony within the play” (p.19). Role-playing and self-references are marked in the metadrama. Hornby (1986) defined metadrama as “a drama about drama” (p.31). A drama becomes melodramatic by its subject, which is always willy-nilly and complex (Hornby, 1986). Hornby (1986) further wrote, “A playwright is constantly drawing on his knowledge of drama as a whole as his vocabulary’ or his subject-matter” (p. 30). The cultural uniqueness is best reflected through the metatheatrical techniques.

This theorization of Abel becomes broader when he categorizes the forms of metadrama and reaches its core technical aspects as to regard metadrama as drama within drama. When the subject of the play becomes the play itself, there is the occurrence of metatheatrical phenomena. As all plays in one way or the other involve the drama/culture complex, such depiction becomes metadramatic. Every play in this sense is metadramatic construct. Specifically, he defines that if the play depicts on the play already heard or seen, that is a metadrama. Pavis (2020) defined Metatheatre as “a form of anti-theatre” (p. 59) where the demarcation between fantasy and reality is erased. All types of metadrama have in common, a self-referential quality, whether to the theatre, or to performance.

Thus, the present paper seeks to expose Subedi’s experimental interaction of techniques as metadrama and self-reflexivity in his plays, *A Journey into Thamel* and *The Caretaker’s Sky* from the meta-theatrical theories of Lionel Abel and Richard Hornby to note the motive of the playwright for using such techniques.

Literature Review

Down through the publication of *A Journey into Thamel* and *The Caretaker’s Sky* (2003), they have been viewed and reviewed in different ways. For many critics, *A Journey into Thamel* is a postmodern play bearing both the modern and postmodern traces of contemporary Nepalese culture. Uprety (2007) marked the drama, *A Journey into Thamel*, as the blend of pre-modernity and post-modernity, where Thamel works as the bridging element. Some critics have attempted to analyze the plays through feminist perspectives. Mishra (2020) noticed the miserable conditions of females in the patriarchal Nepalese society depicted in Abhi Subedi’s dramas. Rayamajhi(2003) evaluated the objectification of female characters like Muma Hajur and Rumjadidi in these words:

The playwright vividly brings to the present time, when young girls were brought to such houses of the aristocrats to serve as maids the ladies of the houses. These maids, where they devoted their whole lives to the service of

the lords and ladies were either lost in the maze of the aristocratic households or surfaced as strong and powerful women winning the hearts and minds of the members of the household. (p. 11)

This demonstrates the unfair gender treatment in Nepalese society. Subedi's dramatization of rituals, unique culture, *jatra* is often lauded by critics. Rijal (2004) examined the use of local culture, rituals, and their values in Subedi's writing in these words:

In *The Caretaker's Sky* characters wait for the *jatra*. They are street theatre artists by profession. By the time *jatra* begins, they enter into the theatre having a cultural caliber. Such scenes dramatize three different streams of Nepali theatre: proscenium or closed, street play, and cultural dance. (p. 21)

The *jatra* is a reflection of the unique and diverse Nepalese culture according to Rijal's interpretation. Vatsayana (2005) claimed that Subedi exposes the sense of self-discovery in his plays: "With simple but deceptive language, Subedi goes into another era and culture" (p. 25). Subedi definitely belongs to the post-modern era for his experimental approaches.

In this way, different critics have their different perspectives on analyzing *A Journey into Thamel* and *The Caretaker's Sky*. Nevertheless, critics have not paid attention to research on the technicalities of the plays. Critics did not notice how meta-theatrical consciousness develops behind the scenes observing contemporary political and social issues of the Nepalese society. Here lies the research gap. Hence, the paper attempts to probe into plays of Subedi to note his objective in exploiting such theatrical techniques through the analysis of meta-theatrical criticism.

Results and Discussion

A Journey into Thamel and *A Caretaker's Sky*, demonstrate Subedi's splendid craftsmanship of utilizing experimental techniques as a playwright. The play deflates the reality through his metatheatrical awareness and catapults modern Nepalese theatre into a new height. Subedi's dramas challenge the hitherto existing convention of both reading and seeing the plays. Metatheatrical often tends to be anti-theatrical, where the dividing line between play and real-life is erased (Pavis, 2020). Both plays depict the absurdities of long-rooted aristocratic Nepalese family and domestic war so as to highlight the creativity and unity of the Nepalese people as reflected in the folk songs. Many metadramatic patterns prevail in the play to reflect the ongoing interaction between society and the theatre.

Metatheatrical Craftsmanship in *A Journey into Thamel*

The use of song, a distinct metadramatic tool, is marked at the outset of the play. As the play *A Journey into Thamel* opens, a troubadour is singing a folk song somewhere in a corner of Thamel. This technique intersects in reality and illusion. Songs or dances are presented as fully part of the main action in metadrama (Hornby, 1986). The troubadour's song reminds the audience of the Nepalese history of the Rana regime. He recalls the days of Rana Prime Minister Jung Bahadur Rana, who was the first Prime Minister of Nepal to visit Britain. The song in the play has double functions: the reflection of real-life history and the performance itself.

The troubadour, carving the beautiful songs out of our history and culture, exposes the play to the sense of our traditional folk culture. He repeatedly sings: "Albert Maharaj was born/When Jung Bahadur Maharaj/And B. P. Maharani made a union/In the flower garden of Belayat" (p. 86). This song of a troubadour, known as *gaine*, represents Subedi's consciousness of filing the metadramatic technique of real-life reference. It glorifies Nepalese history representing Jung Bahadur image of a romantic hero. This bizarre song of troubadour marks the self-referential quality of the play from the very beginning. The opening lines of the troubadour also clarify that a metadrama entails an element of self-reference and self-reflection. In meta-theatre, the reflection upon theatre and society is fused with self-staging (Pavis, 2020). In some way, it has a social function to share. Subedi uses this metadramatic technique not for pleasure alone but with the intention of altering the audience's attitude and behavior.

Jeeven in *A Journey into Thamel* is a poet who often delivers long and absurd poetic dialogues. Hornby (1986) deemed that the poetic performance within the play is intended to demonstrate how characters interact with culture and society. Performance within the play can be well noted when he says:

Guests from across the seven seas
Holding on to crumbling dreams
Here at the edge of Thamel
Thamel is a flow
Here something flows
I am standing on the edge of that flow
Looking at its incessant flow
The journey into Thamel
It is journey of history itself. (p. 92)

Jeewan, the poet character delivers a poetic dialogue as to introduce the kind of city Thamel is. He also describes the journey into Thamel as the journey of history itself. Subedi picks the title of the play, *A Journey into Thamel* from the very line of Jeewan's dialogue. In his description, he appears more like a poet performing in front of the mass. This makes the audience feel that they too are part of the performance.

Subedi uses violence and rebel skillfully in his play, *A Journey into Thamel*. Violence and rebel are essential elements of metadrama (Simon, 2011). The play was written during the Maoist Movement in Nepal during the nineties. Nepalese society was in constant decline up until the revolutionary revival of democracy in 2004 AD. In a way, Subedi writes like a rebel calling for social change amidst the conflicting forces in society. The play, therefore, dramatizes the war-aggravated Nepalese society to make people realize how horrible the war was (Upreti, 2007). Many such metadramatic elements as marches, parades, rebels, street protests, explosions, and so on are used in the play. Such elements can be regarded as the ceremony within the play, an integral part of the procession of the revolution the play is representing. Hornby (1986) maintained, "Ceremonies contain encoded sign by which their society understands both the external world around them and the emotional world within" (p. 51). In the very first scene of the play, *A Journey into Thamel* Mahesh Raja describes the scenario of conflict his society is going through in these words: "People are at the moment moving about in all the directions. Little children walk about carrying guns. The bigger armed government personnel are having an armed conflict. Fire burns all around you" (p. 95). These lines depict the nature of revolution where even the children are used as the rebels.

Life is pretty hard for everyone because of such violence. Similarly, off-stage parades and marches are used in the second scene of the play. Subedi maintains an off-stage description of such ceremonies: "Sloganeering is heard in the background. All unanimously shout out uuuuuuh! And step back. Slogans and explosions are heard in the background" (p. 125). In the play, there are different rebel characters who are named Gunman1, Gunman 2, Gunman 3, and so on. The rebellious spirit of the Gunmen reaches higher when they snatch away the guns owned by Muma Hajur and her relatives:

Gunman 1: Put down the gun, otherwise we shoot. Don't try to fight us. We are many. Everybody could die here. Give us all the guns. We will go away once.

Muma Hajur: The guns of this place can never go anywhere else. These guns have history. These are not trivial guns. (p. 126)

Muma Hajur's insistence on preserving the guns used by her forefathers symbolizes her intention of preserving history, but the rebels attempt to erase it. The use of guns, disputes, street protests, and explosions in the drama denote the playwright's skill of using metatheatrical consciousness to reflect the class conflict of the contemporary society

The play also abounds with the use of masks, another key tenet of metadrama. Biasin and Gieri (2000) considered that mask is used in the play for metatheatrical simulation. The use of masks in the play gets unmasked as such plays prohibit their theatrical simulation either by doubling or over tuning (Abel, 1963; Jin-xia, 2019). This also connotes that the use of masks by the character blurs the boundary between actor and character. Wearing a mask in the play replicates the typical Nepalese cultural tradition and at the same time blurs the boundary between representation and reality. This draws the audience into the realm of theatre. There are a number of instances in *A Journey into Thamel* where the characters use masks. Subedi constructs a norm among the characters that donning a mask one would not get hurt even in the explosion and bombing. This is the private craft of Subedi's dramaturgy indeed. He establishes such norms through the discussion of mask and its usefulness when Gunman and Jeewan interact:

Jeewan: (*Taking off his mask and looking around at everybody*)

The most immediate thing that should be done is this. After doing that one need not leave the stage. No matter how much of explosions there are outside if you wear a mask there is no need to leave the stage. Whatever occurs does occur between the mask and invisible explosions. Our time moves in this very way. (p. 97)

Jeewan maintains the quality of self-reflectivity with the mask he uses. Mask for him is the shield that protects his existence. The use of masks is a metatheatrical tool that appeals to the audience to become a part of theatricality since the play reveals itself (Jin-xia, 2019). Jeewan apparently becomes a self-conscious character in between the representation and reality.

Metadrama uses literature as an allusion, as a literary reference; and this is noticed in the play. When the audience realizes this kind of an allusion, they experience a meta-dramatic feeling (Hornby, 1986). On many occasions, Subedi's dramaturgy brings in literature as a reference. When in Scene two Devyani and Mahesh Raja argue upon the possession of guns, Mahesh Raja charges Devyani of becoming more rigid:

Devyani: First talk to me, not with Jwai Saab [son-in-law].

Mahesh Raja: Why? Isn't Jwai Saab here? You speak in the same manner as Martha speaks to her husband in Albee's drama, *Who's Afraid of Virginia Woolf*? But this is life not drama, baina. (p. 99)

This conversation between Devyani and Mahesh Raja brings into literary allusion in the play. The use of such reference and allusion in the play, as Biasin and Gierie (2000) believed, "leads one to exit the theatre as an illusion, and forces the audience to question the notion of theatre as a double of reality" (p. 61). Mahesh Raja compares Devyani with Martha. Martha is a female character in Edward Albee's drama, *Who's Afraid of Virginia Woolf*, published in 1962, that examines the breakdown of the marriage of a middle-aged couple, Martha and George (Uprety, 2007). This reference here is an outcome of the conscious mind of the playwright to interact metadrama. Moreover, the illusion and reality tussle when Mahesh Raja in the same line reminds Devyani that they are leading a real-life not that of drama.

Depiction of history and culture in a play, another form of the real-life reference, and a characteristic of metatheatre, is observed in the play. When the playwright turns to real-life history and culture of the particular society, there are more chances that the play represents the mirrors the socio-political scenarios (Hornby, 1986). In the first scene of the play, *A Journey into Thamel* a male character and female character talk about the history of trade Nepal used to have. They however focus on fostering their trade and culture in a better way. They interact:

Male Character: (*Cutting off mid-sentence*) Well, talking about trade, Nepal used to have trade transactions with Lhasa since Chanakya's time. There was this system of bringing Yak wool rug from there.

Female Character: (*Cutting off mid-sentence*) our ways, our culture, we have to be able to introduce our culture to the tourists. (p. 89)

Male and female characters converse about the prosperity of the Nepalese culture from the onset of history. The meta-theatrical plays give space for the characters to discuss on the cultural and current aspects of the societies they belong to (Hornby, 1986). This is the reality that Nepal had a very good economy during Chanakya's time. From these lines, it is also obvious that Nepal had a good international relationship with Lhasa as they used to exchange the transaction. The female character, therefore, wants to introduce Nepalese culture to the tourist through the tourism industry. This is how Subedi tries to develop metatheatrical awareness in the play.

Another easily caught example of reflection of history can be noted when Muma Hajur speaks about Rana Regime in Nepal and British Rulers in India. She compares those moments with her present social patterns. She, as a descendent of Rana rulers, finds in them the glory and pride and feels that her presence is the most annoying part of her life. She brings in the reference of history as she speaks, “We should be able to understand the power of the old guns, the guns with which our ancestors went hunting with the British Rulers” (p. 109). Muma Hajur in these lines refers to some of the real-life historical events. She mentions Rana Regime, British Rule in India, and disorder in her present life society caused by the Maoist-led armed movement. She glorifies her old days and is worried about her present. Presenting here the history as such, Subedi aims to recall the old day that tries to represent the reality in his play.

Subedi juxtaposes reflective fragments of dialogue to depict the absurdity of life in the play. Subedi tries to present what is absent by the limitation of thought in such dialogues. Melodramas embody the fragments of dialogue to reflect the futility of life (Abel, 1963). Indeed, he appears to be the master of utilizing such metatheatrical devices. Such dialogues stop the motion of the play and mingle the past, present, and future together as the minor characters in the play converse:

Female Character: Did I not tell you earlier on that it would not be?

Male Character: What difference does it make if you say it will not be?

Female Character: Why would not it make a difference? When is the work finished?

Male Character: (*Cutting off mid-sentence*) let’s forget about finishing the work

Female Character: (*Cutting off mid-sentence*) how can I do that? Today he said Jung Bahadur had risen. (p. 87)

These randomly reflected dialogues are pretty hard to understand because the characters are not identified. Rijal (2004) reviewed on the dialogues of *A Journey into Thamel* in these words: “When the dialogues get reflected randomly, there develops the metatheatrical awareness in the play” (p. 24). The theme that the characters are talking about is clueless. They interrupt each other while talking. Their conversation sounds simply absurd.

The use of the song is marked throughout the play. This technique intersects in reality and illusion. Hornby (1986) asserted, “Songs or dances that are capable of standing apart, yet which are still presented as fully part of the main action” (p. 33). Songs, however, add the metadramatic impulse in the play when Rama and Hima sing the typical folk song and talk about song in scene three as:

Rama: It would naturally make a difference to you; you grew up with the gun as a pillow. We have a song from Western Nepal what is it? O yes, *Kadhaima Bandukko sirani/ chha maachhi jalaima* [Gun is held as pillow/as fish caught in a net].

Hima: Yes, of course diju. You were talking about a song. Many of the things Similar you know in our side of Himanchal and Gadwal. We have a similar song!

I'll sing in Nepali itself. OK? *Kholama pani bagya kasaile nadekhya/ mero Aakhama aansu aaya sabaile dekhyha* [Nobody notices water in a river, but everybody notices tears in my eyes]. (pp. 54-55)

The conversation between Rama and Hima includes two different songs. While talking about the difficulties one has while having a new settlement in a new culture, Rama recalls the old song from Western Nepal (Uprety, 2007). This typical western song that she sings turns into the performance within the play. Moreover, the issue becomes even more metadramatic when they discuss the similarities of the song of different Nepalese communities. However, Subedi uses such the songs as an integral part of the main action.

Dream and fantasy are other subtle elements of metadrama employed by Subedi in his play. He connects theatre with dreams and aims to critique the socio-political situation of Nepalese society. Realistic elements are blended with fantasy to reflect the contemporary social problems in meta-plays (Abel, 1963). The connection between theatre and dream can be noted in *A Journey into Thamel* in the conversation between Mahesh Raja and Jeewan:

Mahesh Raja: Whatever I do I will suffer it at that time, for now, I have two persons to see. I will meet you again right here if not there.

Jeewan: Well then sell. Sell the heartbeat of your house, sell the illusion, and sell our dreams that were amassed by your forefathers by oppressing us. To build their dreams your forefathers used to dismantle ours. (pp. 96-97)

This conversation between Mahesh Raja and Jeewan demonstrates that human beings take dreams as an integral part of life. Jeewan's response to Mahesh Raja regarding dreams becomes very philosophical when he connects it with reality. Mahesh Raja, as a representative character of bourgeoisie mentality still dreams to control over the power and prestige whereas Jeewan opposes his dream (Rayamajhi, 2003). He firmly clarifies that Mahesh Raja's forefathers had already dismantled their dreams but now Jeewan wishes to celebrate the history as common property.

History for him does not belong to a single person. Putting forward his ideas clearly, Jeewan seems satisfied. Sudedi uses dreaming in ironic sense. Dream damages people's activeness. Subedi, playing with this technique, critiques the socio-political issues and shows how modern people are living their life as a dream.

Role-Playing in Subedi's The Caretaker's Sky

Abhi Subedi in *The Caretaker's Sky* integrates two dominant metadramatic patterns: the play within the play and role-playing within the roles. The use of this tool in Nepali theatre brings forth the dialectics of drama and life, illusion and reality, seeming and being, acting and doing. Subedi seems to create an illusion and then shatter it in the play. Hornby (1986) affirms that a playwright depicts a character that is "closer to the character's true self" (p. 67). A higher level of metatheatrical consciousness develops in the play, *The Caretaker's Sky*, as it incorporates two layers parallel to the metadramatic patterns: "First there is the play that Anup, Bipin, and Bhaskar Malla prepare to stage" (p. 4) and the whole play itself of *The Caretaker's Sky* as presented to the audience. This play, thus, makes use of metadramatic techniques in order to awaken and acquaint the audience with the power, enthusiasm, and freedom of creativity at large.

The play, *The Caretaker's Sky*, opens with the scene where Bipin, the caretaker of the old palace murmurs himself about his life. He sounds more like a philosopher and a poet rather than a mere caretaker. His heavily loaded words on human life and his quest for freedom pervade the opening scene of the play. As the play proceeds, other characters like "Anup Nepali, Bhaskar Malla, and theatre actresses join him" (p. 7). Everyone looks impatient and their dialogues sound as if they are in the quest of something. It appears later that all of them are associated with theatre. There are theatre directors, scriptwriters, dancers, poets, and actors. Rumjadidi, as Uprety (2007) evaluated, becomes the focal figure of the play from whom they expect the way to freedom, the freedom of creativity. They argue, plan and describe the theatricality of the play they want to stage. Their play keeps on developing as the main play develops. The role-play reflects the character's true self (Dustagheer & Newman, 2018). They write the script, divide the roles, and discuss the appropriateness of the techniques of the play. In this sense, the play is all about the play within the play which depicts the theatricality in a particular and theatrical journey of the characters in general and which ultimately results in the sprouting of freedom of art and creativity in them.

Bipin's long monologue opens the play. Although monologues are not explicitly marked as meta-dramatic by Hornby, I believe them to fit into the metadramatic category possibly as a self-reference. Such technique draws attention

to the artifice and illusion of theatre since it breaks the audience's immersion into the actions of the play. Hornby (1986) believed that "With self-reference, the play directly calls attention to itself as a play. So the audience is made to look at the play as an artificial construction with events that are not to be taken seriously" (p. 103). With this kind of metadrama, the fourth wall, behind which the audiences are supposedly eavesdropping, is shattered in front of their eyes, destructing and deconstructing the illusion of the audience and of theatre itself.

The Caretaker's Sky makes use of multilayered techniques through which Subedi's message about the quest of freedom of art is embedded. Abel (1963) found the instrumental motive of the playwright when he employs the tool as a play within the play. When it comes to self-reflective dramaturgy, it has roots somewhere in the original source. The degree of such elements in the plays may vary but still, the major motive of the playwright in such a case is to flow the message in an even more subtle manner. The technique of play within the play, therefore, makes the audience perceive the theme the playwright intends to pass. Characters' awareness of their own theatricality through this tool resembles the scene in *The Caretaker's Sky* when Anup Nepali and Bipin discuss the usefulness of training the theatre artists. Their conversation also marks that they are in the initial phase of staging the play they talk about:

Bipin: It is strange. There is no point in training someone with singing, dancing and acting.

Anup Nepali: Why not?

Bipin: What is its outcome? Train the girls. What can they do in the future?

Anup Nepali: You are right but from the training, they will learn what life is.

Bipin: How can they see life from learning acting?

Anup Nepali: By the difference between life and drama. (p. 238)

The dialogue reveals Anup Nepali as the veteran theatre director who convinces Bipin about the importance of art in human life. Bipin keeps questioning the value of training someone on drama, dance, music, and acting (Vatsayana, 2005). Anup clarifies that people who learn dance and acting at least understand the meaning of life, as is often marked in the Nepalese myth. Any play is metadrama to some extent because of its attachment to the original source, myth (Simon, 2011). Anup and Bipin can differentiate the reality of life from drama. This dialogue primarily gives us a hint that Anup Nepali is in the initial phase of playing a drama. It is a depiction of the play as Subedi handles the metatheatrical tool of play within the play. This scene is equally significant as the audience's mind is hit by the idea of what is going to come next in their play.

When drama has the subject matter of drama itself, a case of metadrama, such a tool also establishes the poetic. Chiu (2000) opined, “Technically, any play which attempts to describe and analyze dramatic practice and theatrical connections and to establish general poetics for this particular genre qualifies as metadrama” (pp. 2-3). Moreover, it is a layering technique that allows for introspection. The inward movement of metadrama allows for layers of introspection (Newman, 2018). Poetics used in the play should be understood not just as a source of pleasure but also as a reflection of socio-political issues. In this sense, this is a unique technique used to raise a voice against the social issues that critique reality despite being self-reflective in form. The drama’s exploration of itself in every possible aspect ranging from its medium, connection, form, function to status may come up with the holistic message of social life.

Another possible example of role playing is noticed when again the characters discuss the nature of theatre. Bipin, First Lady, and Anup Nepali talk about the world of theatre. This scene is reflective of the fact that they are even more aware of the theatricality when they discuss:

Bipin: What is the sky of theatre like?

Anup Nepali: I cannot say exactly. Theatre has the drama of the sky too. The drama of the sky is performed after painting, adding music and effects of light. Drama is the acting of the sky. (p. 240)

Bipin metaphorically asks his co-actors about the reality they were brought up in. He argues that he is known to all of their sorrows. Anup however responds that his upbringing resembles that of Bipin. But First Lady, as Vatsayana (2005) observed, finds a difference between real-life and life in drama. Bipin does not know what the world of theatre looks like. Anup again clarifies that the world of theatre is a unique world where reality is brought in as the theme of the play. Combination of music, light, and effect with reality results in the world of meta-theatre (Abel, 1963). In this dialogue, Anup’s awareness of what builds the theatre is clear. Though the level of theatrical awareness among characters seems low, Subedi through this dialogue unnoticeably clarifies and at a time differentiates paradoxical notions of real-life and representation of life.

Role-playing within the role is an apparent meta-theatrical tool (Hornby, 1983). Subedi skillfully incorporates it into the play. Subedi’s role-playing can be incorporated in the technique of play within the play that forms a meta-dramatic consciousness. The role-playing aspect in the meta-theatre is intended to reflect human consciousness (Dustagheer & Newman, 2018). It is observed in the play when Rishi Singh, BhaskarMalla, and Anup Nepali divide the roles for their postmodern play they are to stage. The scene makes use of the same multiple layered techniques

but in terms of roles; for, actors seem to be coming in and getting out of their multiple roles as in Scene two when the actors talk:

Anup Nepali: This play is designed as per the roles of the characters.

Bhaskar Malla: This play consists of everyone's story.

Anup Nepali: Irony will be constructed in the play. One will be given the same role that he/she feels difficult to play. It makes the formation of irony.

Bhaskar Malla: One who cannot run will get the role to run, one who cannot speak should speak. A liar gets the role of telling truth. One who tortures others will be the agent of peace and who has never loved anyone will be given the role of lover. (pp. 250-51)

The dialogue is descriptive of how the characters are conscious of the theatricality. In a way, it becomes the depiction of the roles in the play. Anup Nepali wants to form irony in the play. This indicates their concern about the technique of the play they want to employ. Bhaskar Malla, on the other hand, decides to make the play even more postmodern by giving actors difficult roles (Upreti, 2007). One who feels doing something deserves the same role for him. Their discussion suggests that they are designing a very genuine postmodern play.

There are many obvious cases where Subedi uses literary allusions in *The Caretaker's Sky*. The skillful uses of literary allusions in the play add a significant value as an outcome of the meta-theatre (Newman, 2018). We can notice it when Anup Nepali recalls the piece of a poem composed by Agam Singh Giri. It reads: "Parvat pakha bhir pakhera/ Kshan khan/ Hera na Ram jhankuiro lagyo" [God Ram, see hills and dales are covered with fog] (p. 253). This literary allusion in the play reminds readers of the poetry trend based on typical Nepali folk culture. The Hindu deity Ram is addressed to solve the problem of people when the hills and plains are covered by fog. Subedi consciously uses this piece of the poem to add the self-reference quality of the play. He attempts to present in the theme the literary history of Nepal. Agam Singh Giri is a poet of distinction who is regarded as one who best represented the Indian Nepalese (Gorkha) people in Nepali literature who writes of sadness felt incessantly by him and a rather over-burdensome sadness pervades his poems.

In this way, Subedi makes potential use of play-within-the-play and role-playing-within-the-roles, remarkable metatheatrical technique, in the play, *The Caretaker's Sky* to highlight the social and dramatic dimensions of a person's identity. The characters of the dramas are engaged in playing some kinds of roles. They discuss how they can abolish the unfair power politics of the leaders and rulers so as to provide justice to the common public. The use of the literary allusions in *The Caretaker's Sky* is intended to glorify the Nepalese history and culture and make the public aware of the beautiful Nepali culture.

Conclusion

Thus, by skillfully using the experimental metadramatic tools in the plays, *A Journey into Thamel* and *The Caretaker's Sky*, Abhi Subedi reflects the philosophical problems marked in contemporary Nepalese society. In *The Caretaker's Sky*, Subedi exposes the intricacies and hardship of life and replicates the human quest for meaning. The play exhibits and to some extent revolves around the depiction of depictions, the dramas of drama, and the roles within the roles. *The Caretaker's Sky* deals with the search for freedom of creativity. Melodramatic technique is used in the play to reveal the hardships of life and creativity. In *A Journey into Thamel*, Subedi unmasks the absurdities of long-rooted aristocratic Nepalese society. Distinct metadramatic patterns prevail in both plays to reflect the ongoing interaction between society and the theatre. *A Journey into Thamel* has a quasi-historical content because Subedi intends to depict the post-war scenario of Nepalese society. The metatheatrical technique used in the play demonstrates how the dream of an aristocratic family shatters due to the domestic war in the play. It is worth noting that different self-referential patterns allow each play to have different levels of introspection upon itself, upon the socio-politics of culture, and upon life in general. Subedi makes ample use of meta-theatrical devices to demonstrate the play-like nature of life and to explore myriad possibilities of representing life through theatre. Thus, meta-theatre has undergone several transmutations to reflect the predicament of changing social and cultural milieus. Subedi's plays, therefore, breaks with the conventional theatre principles falling away from the accepted standard as his dramaturgy builds on metatheatrical awareness so as to unearth and attack discriminations exploitation on marginalized people. But both plays share the common ground in terms of form as Subedi interacts with metadrama as a rhetorical vehicle. In so doing, he uses as many metatheatrical tools as possible making the plays self-reflective. The research therefore analyses metatheatrical elements in the play bringing into detail the different critics as Lionel Abel, Richard Hornby etc. and at the same time maintains how theatricality and realism co-exists in the same plays.

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Deep Ecological Consciousness and Interconnectedness between Humans and Nature in Thoreau's *Poems*

Rupsingh Bhandari

Universal Peace Federation, Nepal

Corresponding Author: *Rupsingh Bhandari*; Email: dirupss44@gmail.com

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Abstract

Deep ecological criticism emphasizes the biocentric approach to analyze the literary texts, whereas the anthropocentric approach is human-centric. Therefore, the major purpose of this study is to bring balance to the ecosystem between humans and nature by analyzing Thoreau's poetry from a biocentric point of view. It relooks radically the relationship between humans and nature on deeper level because the extreme human-centric development has been inviting many ecological crises. Therefore, this paper critically discusses, analyzes, and interprets Henry David Thoreau's selected poems from a deep ecological perspective to explore the deep ecological consciousness and interconnectedness between humans and nature. Deep ecology is a new perception against anthropocentric ideas, which proposes a new solution and visualizes the inexorable current ecological challenges. Thoreau is a transcendentalist poet, his poetry expresses the profound interconnectedness between humans and nature which is unexplored, yet richly found in his poems. His poems express the wisdom of humans' inner experience with nature and longing for harmony with nature. Consequently, the present paper will contribute to strengthening the relationship among all biospheres, thereby raising human ecological consciousness and increasing climate resilience.

Keywords: Ecocriticism, environment, transcendentalism, biocentric

Introduction

The ecocriticism focuses on the relationship between humans and nature in literary texts. Through the study of nature, culture, and human interrelations, it examines and investigates the global ecological crisis. There are different

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perspectives of ecocriticism, this research paper deploys the deep ecological perspective, heightening that all organisms in nature are equal, and serve an important role to bring ecological balance among all biosphere. Furthermore, it asks deep ontological questions about the harmonious relationship of human and nonhuman world. Henry David Thoreau's poetry has been discussed from the shallow ecological perspective. Similarly, many critics have mischaracterized nature poets as escapists. Therefore, this research paper unfolds the deep ecological interconnectedness between humans and nature.

The purpose of relooking Thoreau's selected poems: "I am the Autumnal Sun," "Song of Nature," "The Inward Morning," "Tall Ambrosia" is to discover a deep ecological consciousness and interconnectedness by analyzing and interpreting his writing from a deep ecological perspective. Fundamentally, ecology focuses on the human being as the center, which is called the anthropocentric perspective. This view emphasizes that everything in nature is meant to serve human beings, which has been increasing many ecological imbalances. Therefore, deep ecology advocates all the organisms of nature are inherent, interconnected, and equally important. Thoreau is an important figure of the American literary and philosophical movement known as New England transcendentalism. His essays, books, and poems have advocated two major themes over the course of his intellectual career: nature and life. Though he highly emphasizes nature in his poems, his writing is less discussed from a deep ecological perspective.

While reading the selected poems by Thoreau some research questions arise: Does the poet only bemuses himself with nature by its corporeal beauty, or does he also find inner connectivity and try to advance humans' ecological consciousness? In these selected poems, nature's mysterious power is expressed in different ways. These poems search for freedom as nature, their connectivity with nature is not only satisfied or sublimed by nature rather they are alerting humans to ecological consciousness and interconnectedness in a deeper way.

Literature Review

Henry David Thoreau's poetry has attracted and analyzed a voluminous amount of criticism, and studies in English. Such criticism analysis and study have touched many different perspectives. Many critics have also discussed his poems from romantic perspectives. Among them describing the romantic notion of Thoreau's poetry, as Smith (1985) makes the point in her paper, "Walking" from England to America: Re-Viewing Thoreau's Romanticism:

In analyzing Thoreau's place in the romantic tradition, it is helpful to consider Robert Langbaum's conception of romanticism as a series of

individual efforts to renew an emotional, spiritual connection to nature after the dualistic split of the eighteenth century. . . Implicit in a reworking of the past, for Thoreau, is his need to proclaim his identity both as an American and as a modernist. In establishing his own identity and constructing his own form of romanticism. (p. 222)

This analysis shows that Thoreau's poetic characteristics are deeply related to the notion of romanticism, which describes the glorification of nature, emphasis on aesthetic beauty, themes of solitude, imagination, and vivid sensory description. Therefore, it underscores that his poetry establishes the foundation of romanticism, but it also uncovers the inner relationship of the poet with nature. It is not just a mere description, rather his poetry needed to be observed from a deep ecological perspective. As critic Stickers (1976) writes about Thoreau's poetry in his paper, "Living the Poetic Life: Henry David Thoreau's Experiment at Walden Pond":

Thoreau produces a spark, or shock, which awakens the higher, poetic consciousness. This, in turn, begins a self-perpetuating reciprocity by which the poetic in Nature inspires the poetic in the individual and enhances his ability to listen to Nature's song, thereby creating a continually deeper and deeper appreciation of Nature . . . While the written poem can be casually dismissed as idle dreaming, the life poem stands as an irrefutable testimony that such human ideals are not in vain. (p. 8)

Here, critic Stickers describes the higher poetic consciousness arisen through the interconnection with nature and human intuitions, which means nature's power inspires the poet to listen to the nature's song. This description shows romantic attributes, and also describes the bitter truth of humans' attitudes towards nature and the poetic consciousness described here need to explain from the point of ecological consciousness. There are underlined meanings which suggests that the self is a part of nature and that humans can develop their deep ecological consciousness by experiencing nature. Therefore, his poems are not only describing nature as a romantic object but exploring himself in nature and searching the inner harmony. As Naess basic principles of deep ecology believes that richness and diversity of life forms contribution to the realization of these values and are also values in themselves. These evidences stress that his poetry needed to be rediscovered from a deep ecological perspective to expand the deeper relationship between humans and nature.

Similarly, Wells (1944) describes Thoreau's poetry from the perspective of spiritualism in his research paper, *An Evaluation of Thoreau's Poetry*:

Moreover, he is a spiritual cosmopolitan by virtue of his intuitive grasp of the poetic imagination of other periods than his own and not by any mere wealth of allusions which he plunders from abroad. . . He makes no display of his internationalism, for it is the most natural and instinctive thing about him. (p.101)

Critic suggests that his poems consist of metaphysical elements and universalism. No doubt, his poetic imagination searches for the hidden incorporeal strength in nature. At the same time, being a poet he himself tries to realize those spiritual aspects of nature, therefore, he does not only become overwhelmed by nature but rediscovers his own self. However, deep ecologists emphasize the humans' ecological ethics need to develop biocentric inner connectedness with nature together with personal spirituality. Deep ecologists Session (1995) also explains that the interconnectedness between human and nature is essential, in the book *Deep Ecology for the Twenty-first Century*:

Shallow ecology is anthropocentric. It views as above or outside of nature, as the source of all value, and ascribes only instrumental, or use value to nature. Deep ecology does not separate humans from the natural environment nor does it separate anything else from it. It does not see the world as a collection of isolated objects but rather as a network of phenomena that are fundamentally interconnected and interdependent. Deep ecology recognizes the intrinsic values of all living beings. (p. 20)

These lines make point the difference between shallow ecology and deep ecology. It clarifies that deep ecology emphasizes the deeper interconnectedness of human beings with nature. From the deep ecologist's point of view, humans are the part and parcel of nature; they believe that all the participants of nature are interrelated to each other, though they are distinct in nature. Therefore, Thoreau's poetry though seems spiritual and mystical; in fact, they are searching for a deeper relationship between humans and nature.

Moreover, describing the writing style of Thoreau, Bull (1973) writes in Thoreau and the Literary Excursion from the transcendentalist point of view:

Difference between Whitman and Thoreau and the popular excursion, in addition to the fact that their writing is simply more difficult, is that they refuse to do no more than daydream; they must also prophecy, whereas Margaret Fuller is largely content to remain on the level of description and anecdote. This made Whitman and Thoreau less popular but truer to Transcendentalist ideals of art. (p. 205)

This highlights Thoreau's writing from a transcendentalist lens, Bull compares his writing with other nature poets, though he is a daydreamer, he searches for the hidden connectivity with nature. This also emphasizes Thoreau's uniqueness in his writing which is more concerned with nature's incorporeal power and mysticism. Even though Thoreau describes nature and its transcendence power, in his poetry he also describes the interconnection of human life and nature, this research paper will explore another deep dimension of Thoreau's poetry.

Consequently, this research paper will focus on the study of deep ecological interconnectedness between humans and nature in selected poetry by Thoreau, applying recently developed deep ecological philosophy by Norwegian philosopher Arne Naess, the American sociologist Bill Devall, and the American philosopher George Sessions, who focus on a radical change in humans' relationship to nature to maintain the equilibrium between human and nature.

Methods and Procedures

This research has applied a qualitative study through an analysis of deep ecologists Arne Naess, the American sociologist Bill Devall, and the American philosopher George Session's theoretical parameter of deep ecology to examine, analyze and interpret the selected poetry of Henry David Thoreau. Ecocriticism has different major trends: Arcadian discourse, Ecosystem discourse, Environmental justice discourse, Ecological justice, Ecofeminism, Eco Marxism, Toxic discourse, Discourse on animal rights, Environmental apocalypse, and Deep ecology. But, this research will discuss, analyze and interpret the selected poetry by Henry David Thoreau by applying deep ecology; a recently developed ecocritical perspective, which focuses on a radical change in humans' relationship to nature on a deeper level: a biocentric holistic perspective.

Arne Naess coined the term "deep ecology" and gave it a theoretical foundation. The deep ecological perspectives aim to value everything in the environment as its distinct uniqueness, and searches deep ecological interconnectedness of ecology asking deeper questions about the relationship between humans and nature, believing that all organisms of the biosphere have equal and reciprocal relationships and all are equally important for ecological balance. Applying this theoretical perspective, this research will unfold the deep ecological interconnectedness between humans and nature in the selected poems of Thoreau. In this research paper, Thoreau's four nature poems will only be discussed and analyzed.

Results and Discussion

Thoreau is a philosopher of nature and its relation to the human condition. In his early years, he followed Transcendentalism, which was an idealist philosophy advocated by Emerson, Fuller, and Alcott. They believe that an ideal spiritual state transcends, or goes beyond, the physical and empirical realm. Thoreau is mostly concerned with the incorporeal aspect of nature, in which he believes that there is an ideal and physical reality and both are interconnected. His poetry describes the natural beauty, nature's power, and the mystical strengths of the universe. Moreover, his poetry unfolds the interconnectedness of self and nature. As Thoreau (2012) compares himself with the sun in the poem, I am the Autumnal Sun:

I am the autumnal sun,
With autumn gales my race is run;
When will the hazel put forth its flowers,
Or the grape ripen under my bowers?
When will the harvest or the hunter's moon
Turn my midnight into mid-noon? (p. 24)

In these lines, he imagines himself as the autumn sun and asks humans to cooperate with him. In these imagined inner dialogue, he imagines and expresses the sun's suffering through the symbols of nature. Nature is inseparable from the poet himself. This deep connection proves that he is not enjoying nature's beauty but rather searching for other dimensions of his relationship with nature. In this poem, he further asks to turn his midnight to mid-noon in the beauty of nature as the sun he wants to be inseparably one with nature's beauty. As Hinchman (1989) writes about deep ecology in their paper "Deep Ecology" and the Revival of Natural Right:

Thus, to answer the question, "What does it mean to be human?" The Deep Ecologist tries to situate people in a more encompassing natural-cultural totality in light of which both the meaning of nature and of individual human existence will be illuminated. The telos of the individual, his or her full development as a human being, cannot be conceived except in the context of a flourishing nature. (p. 210)

It proves that without understanding nature, it is difficult to understand human existence. Humans need nature to become complete, humans and nature have indispensable interconnection. Humans and nature are inseparable. This enlivens the deep ecology that human self-centeredness is humans' ignorance of superiority. Humans are not supper being but also a part of nature. The deep interconnection

needed to be discovered to advance human consciousness toward other organisms. He imagines himself as the autumn sun harvesting all the creation and as well as delves into its depression. It is a fundamental requirement for humans to become the conscious owners of nature as the other parts of nature are responsible and move according to natural laws. What Naess (1995, p.15) argue is, in his paper *The Deep Ecology Movement Some Philosophical Aspects*, “we increasingly see ourselves in others, and others in ourselves. This self is extended and deepened as a natural process of the realization of its potentialities in others.” This also clarifies the interconnectedness of all human and nonhuman beings on earth. Similarly, Thoreau (2012) writes about the deeper connectedness of nature in his poem *Song of Nature*:
Mine are the night and morning,

The pits of air, the gull of space,
The sportive sun, the gibbous moon,
The innumerable days.
I hide in the solar glory,
I am dumb in the pealing song,
I rest on the pitch of torrent,
In slumber, I am the strong. (p.49)

In this poem, the poet connects himself to morning and night, he tries to find himself in air and hollow space, and his motivation seems to be lost in the sacredness of nature. Poet’s imagination is expanding into the mysterious creation’s beauty of mysterious creation. He wants to hide inside nature and is overwhelmed by the sun and moon. This poem describes the inexpressible feeling of nature inside the human, and how much humans want to be intermixed with nature. A deep ecological perspective also uncovers the inner attachments of human being towards nature asking deeper questions about humans and nature’s relationship. In the same way, critic Luke (1997) also asserts the essence of deep ecology in his paper, “Deep Ecology: Living as if Nature Mattered: Devall and Sessions on Defending the Earth”:

Deep ecology has been developed by outdoors person—mountain climbers, backpackers, field biologists—with experience in observing natural phenomena and comes from the conservation/preservation movement” and “seeks to develop a new paradigm, questions the essence of human civilization, fundamentally condemns human overpopulation and industrialism, is anti-modern and future primitive. (p. 183)

Deep ecology also questions humans' egos and humans' civilization. How external industrialization devours the inner connection with nature. Poets are lamenting in front of nature and asking to be submerged into its gamut which opens the heart of poets toward nature's sublime. The higher consciousness of poets arises through the beauty of nature at the same time, why do poets compare self to nature? Why do they find more inner satisfaction with nature? These questions lead us toward the inner imbalance in a poet's mind by external development. Therefore, poets search for their inner original relationship with nature, in the selected poetry of Thoreau also has such lamentations, stillness, and queries for interconnectedness. Adhering to the importance of connectedness with nature, Lewis (1993) explains humans' attitudes and their connectedness in his article On Human Connectedness with Nature:

Distance from nature, which has undoubtedly intensified over the past few centuries, easily leads to an unconscionable denial of the finitude of most natural resources, as well as an inability to grasp the limited capacity of ecosystems to process the waste materials generated by human activities. Moreover, for many if not most human beings, natural landscapes offer infinite aesthetic and intellectual delights. A great many of us suffer deeply when we feel cut off from nature. (p. 799)

It illustrates that contemporary humans' attitudes towards nature and the consequences which increase the humans' inner emptiness. That is why, humans need to remain connected with nature for aesthetic and emotional strength, and being distant from nature, always make emptiness in humans. Therefore, interconnectedness with nature is important to human beings. As Thoreau (2012) expresses his inner interconnectedness in the poetry The Inward Morning:

Packed in my mind lie all the clothes
Which outward nature wears
And in its fashion's hourly change
It all things else repairs.
In vain I look for change abroad,
And can no difference find,
Till some new ray of peace uncalled
Illumes my inmost mind. (p. 55)

This poem elucidates the natural phenomena which are all interconnected, it explains nature and its intuition which are interconnected with everything. In this stanza, Thoreau explains and celebrates these mysterious attributes of nature and

what goes in his inner thoughts. His motivation is to find harmony between nature and himself. As he is aware of the coming morning the flowers and trees are also aware of the coming morning. In these lines, the poet relates humanity and nature's interconnectedness. He further describes until the "ray of peace...Illumes" his mind. This "ray" is human awareness that tells him that the "change" or the sunrise, is coming. Here, the poet searches for the connection point between his mind and nature's laws, which are invisible but demonstrated through the outer body. He compares him to nature and finds no difference in essence. Deep ecologists as well search for the deeper interconnection among all biospheres, their inherent value together with their inseparable relationship with others. For example, deep ecologist Devall (1985, p. 65) writes clearly in his book, *Deep Ecology*, "The foundations of deep ecology are the basic intuitions and experiences of ourselves and Nature which comprise ecological consciousness." This admonishes that humans' interconnection with nature is unavoidable to develop ecological consciousness. This poem also shows Thoreau's attachment to nature which he beautifully expresses by comparing his inner mind to nature's flows.

Similarly, Thoreau (2012) expresses his inner connectivity in his poem, I am the Autumnal Sun:

Sometimes a mortal feels in himself

Nature – not his Father but his

Mother stirs within him, and

He becomes immortal with her immortality. (p.24)

Here, in this first stanza of the poem, the poet juxtaposes his inner self with his changeable nature. Sometimes, he feels immortal as nature, sometimes lifeless. In the poem, he refers to himself as the autumnal sun and imagines depression about the coming winter and its lifelessness. He expresses his deep interconnectivity with nature describing himself through the autumn sun showing the similarity between his life and the autumn sun.

Thoreau's poems are analyzed from the transcendentalist perspective searching for the mysterious energy in nature. The underlined purpose is to rediscover the interrelationship with nature. Therefore, his poems are uncovering the hidden connectedness of humans to all biospheres. Thoreau's deep interest revives the ecological consciousness of humans for better equilibrium among all participants of nature. Deep ecologists also emphasize this new biocentric deeper perspective and believe that all organs of the biosphere are equal. This understanding they believe is

the best way to deal with all ecological crises. In the poem Tall Ambrosia he further expresses:

We trample underfoot the food of gods
And spill their nectar in each drop of dew—
My honest shoes, fast friends that never stray
Far from my couch, thus powdered, countrified,
Bearing many a mile the marks of their adventure. (p. 53)

In the poem “Tall Ambrosia” Thoreau explains the humans’ ignorance of the natural mystery, this poem describes “Ambrosia” as the mythical food of god for immortality. Metaphorically, he describes the human’s haphazardness towards nature’s beauty and power. In these lines of poem, the speaker explains that humans are walking through the fields of nectars of gods unnoticed. He sees humans’ negligence and ignorance that they pass through the immortal plant. “Trample underfoot the food of the gods.” In this line, he mentions not just himself but “We.” Here, “we” represents humanity that neglects the beauty and power of nature. He further adds that humans are unknowingly destroying nature when he describes the field as full of nectar but, humans are far from the fact that they are living in nature’s mystery and destroying nature for only selfish purposes. Therefore, it opens the discussion of deep ecological interconnectedness between humans and nature. In the book *Ecocritique Contesting the Politics of Nature, Economy and Culture* describing nature and human relationships, Luke (2002) explains deep ecology:

In liberating Nature, everything in the biosphere would be treated as an animate subject with inherent rights for self-realization. Thus, “the intuition of biocentric equality is that all things in the biosphere have an equal right to live and blossom and to reach their individual forms of unfolding and self-realization within the larger self-realization. (p. 9)

Here, critic describes the fundamental ideas of deep ecologists, summarizing their core ideas. He emphasizes that everything in nature is necessary to treat as a living being. All biospheres have an equal and unique role to bring balance to nature. In that process, all need to realize themselves to be united with the greater self which means nature. Therefore, it is humans’ responsibility to rediscover themselves by searching for their dynamic interconnectedness with all biospheres. Deep ecologists’ major concern is also to discover all biospheres’ inherent values and their interconnectedness.

Similarly, Thoreau (2012) expresses the feeling of interconnectedness with nature in his poem 'I am the Autumnal Sun':

The mast is dropping within my woods,
The winter is lurking within my moods,
And the rustling of the withered leaf
Is the constant music of my grief . . . (p. 25)

Here, the poet compares the suffering of humans to nature. His metaphoric poem 'I am the Autumnal Sun' represents nature. This poem describes the deep emotional sorrow of nature by personifying the sun as human, which emphasizes the inseparable relationship among all biosphere. As Naess (2003, p.15) argues in his paper *The Deep Ecology Movement Some Philosophical Aspects*, "we increasingly see ourselves in others, and others in ourselves. This self is extended and deepened as a natural process of the realization of its potentialities in others". This proves that humans are extended beings by many others, the deep interdependence and the natural process scrutinize our values and responsibility as humans; either the supreme of everything or the part of this nature. Naess deep ecological ideas strongly oppose the human-centered anthropocentric perspective, he describes humans as the part of nature. Humans exist through their relationship with others. He sees everything in the universe as unique and interrelated. William (1964) also encapsulates the theme of Thoreau's poetry in the paper *The Concept of Inspiration in Thoreau's Poetry*:

As do numerous other poets trying to develop a consciousness of meanings hidden behind the appearance of things, Thoreau frequently developed his poems by means of antitheses, by balancing the observed with the envisioned. In doing this he really is embodying in poetry transcendental dualisms, balances between Understanding and Reason, Fancy and Imagination, the source of Talent and the source of Genius. (p. 467)

William affirms that Thoreau's poems search for the hidden inner connectivity among all the biosphere. He further experiments on humans' imaginations and feeling about nature's beauty. He tries to blend inner feelings and outer reality of the human and nature relationship. Therefore, this research discussed and analyzed Thoreau's poems' hidden attributes of deep ecological consciousness and interconnectedness between humans and nature.

The above poems of Henry David Thoreau search for the interconnection. Thoreau's poetry is deeply connected with nature and its invisible attributes, which are not only describing the beauty and power of nature but search for the deep interconnectedness in human and nonhuman life for the dynamic relationship of nature.

Conclusion

This paper critically analyzed, interpreted, and discussed the selected poems of transcendentalist poet Henry David Thoreau from a deep ecological perspective to find the interconnectedness between humans and nature and deep ecological consciousness. This paper found that these poems have deep-underlined suggestions, lamentations, and repentance of humans in relation to nature. It vivified the deep concern of the poet in his poetry which unfolded the deep ecological consciousness. This discussion suggested that humans need to find a deep interconnectedness with the nonhuman world to develop a dynamic relationship with nature. The poems discussed in this research have personified humans as nature organisms. Poet imagined himself as the sun birds and animals in his poetry, which expressed the humans as part of nature rather than the dominant subject as deep ecological principle believes that all living creatures have inherent value, because nature is not only a visible sublimed object but is a part of humans' life. This new perception of deep ecology has applied to look deeper meaning of poetry, which can help to interpret and analyze the literary texts to deal with the extreme consumerism tendencies and the technological development by human and the cause of ecological crises. Human selfishness is the cause of many ecological disasters; therefore, literature is necessary to look from deep ecocritical lenses to find the deep ecological connectedness among all biospheres. This ecocritical analysis of poetry will be helpful to advance our relationship with nature.

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Implementing English Medium Instruction in Nepalese Public Schools: Teachers' Perceptions

Krishna Kumari Mahara

M.Phil. Leading to Ph.D. in TESOL

Far Western University, Nepal

Corresponding Author: *Krishna Kumari Mahara*; Email: maharakrishna2271@gmail.com

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Abstract

This study explores the perception of teachers towards English medium instruction (EMI) along with the challenges in implementing EMI in public schools of Nepal. Adopting phenomenological qualitative research design, three secondary level English language teachers from three community schools of Kailali district running EMI up to secondary level were purposively selected as research participants. A semi-structured interview (30 minutes each) was undertaken with the participants to collect information. The study reveals that even though teachers have positive attitudes toward EMI, they are still facing difficulty in implementing EMI successfully in the schools. The research participants perceive some challenges such as lack of competence in English, uncertain roles and responsibilities of teachers, lack of teacher training or workshop, lack of authentic resources and instructional materials, lack of infrastructure, students' motivation towards learning and lack of awareness of the parents. Similarly, the study also reveals that the schools are unable to implement EMI effectively because of a lack of clear government policy, lack of effective supervision mechanism and inadequate support from the government and community.

Keywords: Medium of instruction, language policy, implementation, English language teaching, challenges

Introduction

English language has a broad range of uses in almost all industries and fields around the world, not just one nation or area's language either. It has essentially

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covered every location and bit of information in the modern world (Khatri, 2019). According to Freeman (2007), there is a huge surge in the demand for English all over the world. It is not simply because of shifting demographics, but also because of the globalization trend. As a result, English language has been used by the modern world to communicate its advancements, changes, innovations, and many other things. The world has shrunk and become simpler as a result of the widespread use of English. Because of the ease of a lingua franca increasingly utilized as a second language in major areas of the world, English is gaining popularity across political and ideological lines (cited in Gnyawali, 2010, p. 7). People appear to be obliged to study it due to rapid developments in science and technology, politics, and the economic world.

In recent years, public schools in Nepal have been adopting English medium instruction (EMI) as a new linguistic market in education (Saud, 2020). This trend is attributed to globalization and the socio-economic strength of English language, which is viewed as a linguistic capital (Bourdieu, 1993) for improved “socioeconomic mobility” (Khushchandani, 1978, as cited in Bhattacharya, 2013, p.165) in the globalized socio-economic market. The English language occupies an impeccable and important place in the socio-economic system, and so, the drive for its study is paramount. English is, thus, socially, economically, and educationally raised higher than any other local languages (Giri, 2010, pp. 64-65). According to the National Curriculum Framework (NCF, 2007, p.34), “the medium of school level education might be in Nepali or English language or both”. Since then, public schools have had the option of using either English or Nepali as their medium of teaching. As a result, since 2010, a considerable number of public schools in Nepal have implemented EMI (Sah & Li, 2018). Community schools in Nepal, as Ojha (2018) mentions, are aggressively shifting to EMI from the traditional Nepali medium instruction. There has been a growing demand of parents for EMI viewing English as a linguistic capital in the global socio-economic market. People have taken it as an economic investment in education. Even though there is high demand of English medium instruction among everyone, and teachers have positive attitudes toward EMI, teachers of the secondary level are facing different challenges while implementing EMI in classroom (Khatri, 2019). Similarly, Saud (2020) argues that there seems a noticeable gap between the true spirit of EMI policy and actual classroom practice in public school education. Thus, the objective of this paper is to identify the perception of teachers towards EMI and to analyze the challenges in implementing EMI in public schools of Nepal. To achieve the objective, the study deals with three basic research questions: How do teachers perceive EMI in the context of Nepal? What are the major challenges in the implementation of EMI

policy in public schools? What can be the ways to minimize the challenges for better implementation of EMI in the Nepalese context?

Literature Review

Even though there has been a high demand and wider adaptation of EMI in the community schools of Nepal and teachers have positive attitudes towards EMI, there are several challenges in its implementation (Khatri, 2019). There are various problems that are common in the successful deployment of EMI. The policy, as well as stakeholders such as school administrators, teachers, and students, face such issues. Teachers, parents and students have a positive attitude toward EMI. However, teachers have to face a variety of challenges while using English as a medium of instruction such as students' limited exposure to the language, mother tongue interference in the classroom, poor English competence of students, a lack of support and encouragement from parents and society, and a lack of a motivating environment for teachers. Despite the fact that the official EMI mandates that core subject areas be taught in English, Sah and Li (2018) contend that the school has adopted their own EMI practice, combining English and Nepali as the MOI due to the inadequate competence of their teachers and pupils. Teachers who have been taught in Nepali experience significant difficulties in delivering English lectures. Teachers, on the other hand, are aware of the issue, but they lack the English ability required for EMI. They are well-known for communicating everything they know in English.

EMI is in practice in most of the schools of Nepal. However, there are many issues related to students and teacher in implementing EMI effectively in the classroom. In this regard, Poudel (2010) asserts that neither the teachers nor the students are satisfied with the use of medium of instruction in higher education classrooms due to the issues like linguistic limitations, communication issues, content delivery issues, and comprehension issues. According to Sah and Karki (2020), pupils that switch to EMI are not adequately equipped. They don't know enough English and don't live in an English-speaking environment. Despite the fact that English-medium textbooks are available to them, they lack the necessary skills to comprehend them. When pushed to use English, they either switch back and forth between English and Nepali or remain silent. Despite the objective to use EMI to build linguistic capital and compete with their private school classmates, Sah and Li (2018) contend that teachers' (and students') lack of English proficiency has undermined both content knowledge and English skill learning. Although the students are clearly capable of improving their learning, teachers are skeptical that their overall accomplishment has improved. This demonstrates how EMI has made it difficult for kids to improve their English language skills.

In a similar vein, Dearden (2014) revealed that a lack of EMI-qualified teachers and teaching resources, as well as questions about which subjects should be taught through English medium, the age at which EMI begins, the lack of a standard level of English for EMI teachers, the role of the teacher, and the role of language centers and professional development are the issues that affect EMI practice globally. Because these are global difficulties for EMI implementation, they appear to be the same in Nepal. Similarly, Giri (2011) believes that the largest issue community schools face in implementing EMI policy is teachers' lack of English language competency.

The ability of teachers to communicate effectively in English is critical to the efficient execution of the EMI policy. Similarly, regarding the proficiency of teacher, Sah and Li (2018) asserts that teachers in non-English areas in public schools are typically not native English speakers, and the Teachers Service Commission examination in Nepal does not assess teachers' English competence. However, Sah and Karki (2020) argue that most teachers are either underprepared or unqualified to teach EMI classes. Teachers, you observe, feel under pressure when they must communicate or teach in English solely. Similarly, Galloway and Rose (2021) assert that language-related problems and linguistic readiness have been identified as important impediments to the implementation of EMI in a growing number of studies. These issues, which have arisen as a result of the unbridled expansion of EMI services, influence practitioners and students, and underscore the importance of ELT practitioners in providing linguistic support. While talking about subject teachers' perspectives and practices in EMI, as well as students' motivation, Jiang et al. (2016) reveal that successful education was maintained through the use of pragmatic tactics, but the aim of increasing English proficiency was not met since language teaching was not prioritized. The perceptions of EMI among subject teachers harmed prospective students' linguistic gains.

Even though previous research works on EMI explore the practice of implementing EMI in various academic contexts, research studies on investigating perception of teachers in the context of Nepal are inadequate. Similarly, the research is insufficient to explore the challenges in implementing EMI in public schools of Nepal. Moreover, research works are scarce in identifying the ways how teachers minimize the challenges for better implementation of EMI in the Nepalese context.

Methods and Procedures

This study is based on a qualitative phenomenological research design. Three community schools, which run EMI up to secondary level, were purposively selected as a research site. The schools selected for the research were DSS, GSS and SSS (pseudonyms). From the three schools, the study uses three secondary level English

language teachers (one from each) who were purposively selected as research participants. A semi-structured interview was undertaken with the participants to collect information. For data collection, I physically approached each of them and had a 30-minute interview with each of them and additional information was obtained from telephone conversation. The interviews were taken in Nepali language because the research participants felt comfortable using Nepali during the interview. The interviews were recorded, transcribed, and translated into English language for further discussion. The privacy of the school and the research participants is maintained in the paper to avoid ethical issues.

Findings and Discussion

The finding of the discussion is based on the three broad research questions: What are the perceptions of the teachers towards EMI? What are the major challenges (and their possible causes) in implementation of EMI policy in public schools? What can be the ways to minimize the challenges for better implementation of EMI in the Nepalese context? To answer these questions, six interview questions were asked to the participants. This section discusses the major findings obtained from the interview of the research. The findings are mainly discussed under four categories: Teacher's opinions towards EMI, the present situation of schools, challenges in implementing EMI and ways to minimize for better implementation of EMI.

Teachers' Opinions toward EMI

The first question of my study was related to the attitude or perception of teachers towards EMI. While talking about their attitudes toward EMI, two teachers show a positive attitude towards it. They agreed that EMI is necessary in present day world because it enhances the ability of students and helps them to assimilate in this globalized era. Participants from SSS responded as:

English medium instruction is the requirement of the current world. In fact, EMI prepares the present generation to assimilate in this era of globalization. As English language is being recognized as lingua franca everywhere, English medium instruction can't be undermining.

Similarly, participant from GSS said that:

For me it is necessity of present time. Yes, it is important because it enhances the ability of students and connects with the world.

The responses of both participants show that they have a positive attitude towards EMI and they also agree that English language is necessary as a medium of

instruction in their context. This perception towards EMI is also similar to the perception of English language teachers explained by Khatri (2019), Ojha (2018), and Sah and Li (2018) in their research.

However, participants from DSS accepted the importance of EMI but shows negative attitude towards EMI at the elementary level.

Although EMI is liked by some students and parents for it paves the way to high paid jobs, I think it is not good for the children studying at elementary level because they feel difficulty in expressing their ideas. Moreover, it works as the gatekeeper to the language minorities and stops them from entering the world of higher studies.

From the above response we can say that he accepted the demand of EMI in present world, but he rejected the appropriateness of EMI at elementary levels. He argues that EMI creates loss of minorities' languages and learners feel uncomfortable while expressing their feelings in English language.

Present Situation of EMI in Schools

Regarding the present situation of EMI in their school, all the participants agreed that EMI is not that much successful in their school due to the lack of proficient teacher (i.e., old teacher not being competent) and students' adaptability to this language is at a poor level. They said that EMI was adopted to make student proficient, however, instead of progressing, they are falling behind. Participants from DSS responded:

My current school is adopting EMI from junior classes to higher level. However, I don't see must of the students being proficient at gaining English language skills up to the mark. Various basics might be the reason behind low level of student's adaptation to this language and teacher's competency.

It is clear from his expression that even though the school is adopting EMI, it does not seem to be beneficial for students due to lack of teacher's proficiency as well as learner's level. In similar vein, teacher from SSS responded:

The school management community had decided to implement EMI some 5 years back with the dream of improving the academic status of the students. However, instead of improving their level, they are lagging behind. It is because many old teachers are not competent in English. So, I think, EMI is not successful in our school.

This response shows that EMI is unsuccessful in their school. The school adopted EMI for betterment of students; however, they are unable to raise the level of students due to lack of competency of old teachers who are working from years. Furthermore, participant from GSS added that:

EMI is not that much successful in our school. EMI was adopted to make the students as capable as the private school but due to lack of competent teacher in all the subjects that is not possible.

The participant from GSS school also agreed that EMI was not successful in their school due to lack of expert teachers and were unable to make students proficient as students of private school.

The responses of all the teachers reflect that EMI is not that much successful in their school due to lack of competent teacher and language adaptation of students (Sah & Li, 2018). Even though EMI was adopted to make the student proficient and competitive in the present world, they were unable to do that. They were supposed to make the students as competent as the student from private schools, but they are not successful in effective implementation of EMI in government schools.

Challenges in Implementing EMI

EMI is very much important to make the students competitive in this era. However, teachers have to face different sorts of challenges while implementing EMI in public schools. In respond to the question what the major challenges are your schools is facing in running EMI successfully, the participants' from DSS responded as:

The main challenge is lack of teaching authentic resources. The other problems are lack of competent teachers, lack of teacher training, instructional materials and human resources. Complex students tend to ignore the fundamentals of English language they rather employ exam passing techniques. Teachers' role and responsibility is also another challenge.

This statement denotes that the school is having problem in implementation of EMI due to lack of qualified teachers, instructional material, training, resources, role and responsibility of teacher and student's carelessness towards learning. Similarly, the participants' teacher from GSS responded:

The challenges while implementing EMI are lack of competent teachers, lack of teacher training, lack of human resource. There is also another issue i.e., communicative issue.

This response reveals that communication problem, insufficient qualified teachers, inadequate training for teachers, and a lack of human resources are obstacles to implement EMI successfully. Furthermore, participants' teacher from SSS responded as:

The students tend to ignore the fundamentals of English language they rather employ exam passing techniques. Teachers' role create problem. The challenges of implementation of EMI are lack of teaching resources, lack competent teachers in subject matter, lack of training, Communication issues between teachers and students, and complex and tricky grammar of the language itself.

This statement illustrates that problems arise from teacher's role to student's exam-oriented learning. Lack of teaching resources, a shortage of experts and training, communication problems between teachers and students, and the language's complicated and difficult syntax are the hurdles associated with implementing EMI.

While talking about the challenges, the participants reflected that they are facing several challenges in implementing EMI successfully. All the participants believed that the persistence challenges occur due to a lack of pedagogically competent teachers (Sah & Li 2018; Dearden, 2014) or lack of language proficiency (Sah & Karki 2020; Giri 2011) lack of training, lack of instructional materials, lack of appropriate methodology (Sah & Karki, 2020), communication issues between student and teacher (Poudel, 2010), lack of teaching resources, teachers role and responsibility (Dearden, 2014), and lack of students awareness about the use of language and the complexity of language itself.

Ways to Minimize the Challenges for Better Implementation of EMI

It is crucial to minimize the challenges for better implementation of EMI. Regarding the question, what can be the solutions to minimize the challenges for better implementation of EMI in your school, participant from SSS responded like this:

The school administration should provide pedagogical training to the teachers regarding EMI. There should be strong infrastructures and teachers should take their responsibility and teach in better way. They should be autonomous self-learners to improve their English.

The participant explicates that teachers should receive EMI pedagogical training from the school administration with well-equipped infrastructures. Similarly, teacher should accept their responsibility as well as the student's needs to be self-learners too. Similarly, a teacher from DSS reflects that:

Students should be taught in English medium from the basic level by trained professionals. There should be regular inspection of EMI by concerned authorities. Resources and instructional materials should be in easy access of learners and instructors. Induction to novice teachers, trainings, workshops etc. should be adequately organized and main thing teacher should be more concerned about the methodology.

This statement shows that both students and teachers should have easy access to resources and teaching materials. Teacher should get training regularly and they should be observed by the concerned authority. Students (including elementary level) should be instructed by a qualified teacher with an appropriate methodology, teaching materials to minimize the challenges at implementation level. Furthermore, participants from GSS said that,

There should be the proper management of human resources and proper supervision of government and stakeholders. The teacher should be known own self of their role and responsibility provide training and creative and motivating instructional methodology.

This response explains that the teacher himself/herself should be aware of their role and responsibility and the concerned authority should supervise and manage the resources that are needed at the school. Similarly, innovative and inspiring teaching strategies should be used in the classroom for better implementation.

These perceptions of the participants show that all the teachers have similar types of solution for better implementation of EMI in their schools. They reflect that the school administration should provide pedagogical training to the teachers regarding EMI (Khatri, 2019). That is to say, induction to novice teachers and old teachers, training, workshops etc. should be adequately organized. They further argue that teachers should take responsibility (Ghimire, 2019) and use a creative and motivating instructional methodology for betterment. They observed that students should be taught in English medium from the basic level by trained professionals and resources and instructional materials (Khatri, 2019) should be easy access for learners and instructors. It means there should be strong infrastructure. Furthermore, they argued that there should be proper management of human resources and regular inspection of EMI by concerned authorities (i.e., government and stakeholders). Similarly, Ojha (2018) also agrees that policymakers and regulatory agencies should also keep an eye on how schools are doing both before and after EMI is adopted so that the program can start and run successfully. They also focus on autonomous self-learner because without learner's autonomy we can't imagine the learning.

Conclusion

This study reveals that even though teachers have positive attitude towards EMI, the status in implementation level was not good. They were found to be enthusiastic about using EMI in their regular teaching and learning activities. Similarly, the teachers stated that they would prefer to use EMI in their instructional activities than teaching in the learners' native language. However, it can be concluded that due to obstacles and challenges such as lack of competent teachers,

role and responsibility of teachers, lack of teacher training or workshop, lack of authentic resources and instructional materials, lack of infrastructure, the complex and tricky grammar of the language itself, language not being used for primary communicative purpose in the school premises, students' motivation towards learning and uneducated parents, public school instructors are unable to implement EMI effectively and efficiently in their regular classes. The finding shows that such problems occur due to a lack of Government's and stakeholders' proper plans and policies, lack of supervision, awareness, training and responsibility from teacher's side. Based on these findings, it is suggested that public schools should create a friendly and welcoming environment for teachers to encourage them to use EMI in the classroom. School should be made more resourceful and equipped with technology. Furthermore, teachers should be pedagogically and professionally sound. The school administration or the concerned authority should provide pedagogical training, workshops and seminar to the teachers.

Despite the new insights gained from this research, there are a few limitations that must be addressed. This is a small study including only three English teachers who are teaching at EMI adopted school. Thus, the results may not be generalizable. In the future, it might be done on a greater scale and might help the researcher in their study of EMI related problems. Furthermore, this might be helpful for the concerned authorities who want to make improvements in EMI programmes. It can be significant for language planners and policymakers who need updated information about the issues raised in policy for further research and improvements of EMI.

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Being Old in Dalit Community: A Study from Bajhang Nepal

Dirgha Raj Pandit

Jaya Prithvi Multiple Campus, Bajhang, Far Western University, Nepal

Hom Nath Chalise (PhD)

Central Department of Population Studies, Tribhuvan University, Nepal

Corresponding Author: *Hom Nath Chalise*, Email: chalisehkpp@gmail.com

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Abstract

Dalit is a name for people belonging to the lowest stratum castes in Nepal and India, previously characterized as untouchable but now this discrimination is illegal. This study examines the socio-economic and health status of older Dalits living in the Jaya Prithvi Municipality of Bajhang district, Nepal. The source of data for this study is based on the 381 primary data collected from the face-to-face field survey carried out in 2021. This study found more than half of respondents were residing with their son/daughter-in-law (53.2%). Elderly living with a spouse only was quite high (37.4%) than in other studies from Nepal. It shows the emerging trend of living arrangements slightly different than previous other studies of the Nepalese elderly. Out of the total respondents, nearly 95 percent have at least one health problem. More than 90 percent of respondents have feelings of loneliness (92.1%) and depression (94.7%). Further, more than half of the respondents (59.4%) feel that they are not cared for by their family members and nearly two-thirds (65.7%) have feelings of insecurity. Local governments and stakeholders, including public health officials, should start health promotion programmes and awareness activities focusing on Dalits older people so that older people can live dignified lives in their later years.

Keywords: Dalit elderly, social security, living arrangements, health of elderly, loneliness of elderly

Introduction

Aging is a lifelong biological and sociological process that begins at conception and ends with death. Aging is related to growing up and growing old. So,

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we are all aging from the time of birth. Aging is usually concerned with the declining functional capacity of different organs of the body and fatigue due to physiological transformation (Chalise, 2019).

Population aging is quite an emerging issue in Nepalese societies (Chalise & Brightman, 2006). Due to increasing life expectancy, we are all aging day by day. The issues raised by population aging need to understand in the proper demographic, social, and national context. A small increase in the size of older people poses a serious problem in a country like Nepal which is characterized by poverty, overly used land resources, poor economy, high illiteracy, poor health status, many caste/ethnic groups, and greater spatial inequalities (Subedi, 1999).

The older population is difficult to define theoretically but chronologically age sixty or sixty-five is usually considered the dividing line between middle age and old age (Chalise, 2019). All persons aged 60 and above were taken as the elderly in the World Assembly on Ageing held in Vienna (Austria) in 1982. Similarly, in the United Nations International Conferences on Ageing and Urbanization in 1991, the term elderly is defined as the population aged 60 years and above (WHO, 2015). Western countries use 65 years and older and developing countries use 60 years and older to define older populations for practical purposes. But because of better living conditions and better health care, most people today do not show signs of aging until the mid-sixties or even the early seventies. In the case of Nepal, legally the person aged 60 years and above are placed under elderly or old person (Elderly Act, 2063, Jestha Nagarik Ain, 2063).

In Nepal, the number of older people aged 60 years and over has increased from 5.2% in 1961, 6.5% in 2001 to 8.1% in 2011 (CBS, 2014), and the 65 + population is expected to reach around 13% by 2050 (Chalise, 2018). Between 2001- 2011, the elderly population increased by 3.15 percent per annum compared to a 1.35 percent growth rate of the total population. The growth rate of the elderly population was faster than the growth rate of the total population in Nepal (Chalise, 2020). This indicates that the number of elderly populations will double in the coming 22 years (Chalise, 2021). Increasing life expectancy or increasing the older population can be seen as a success story for public health policies and socioeconomic development, but on the other hand, it also challenges society to provide the necessary care and maintain an optimal quality of life for an increasing number of the older population (Chalise & Rosenberg, 2019).

Dalit is a name for people belonging to the lowest stratum castes in Nepal. Dalits are those communities, who by atrocities of caste-based discrimination and untouchability, are most backward in social, economic, educational, political, and

religious fields and are deprived of human dignity and social justice (National Dalit Commission-2002). Previously characterized as “untouchable” the Nepali act has now removed this discrimination and it is also seen in behavior. Dalits comprised 13.2 percent of the total population of Nepal in 2011 (CBS, 2014). There are 26 castes under Dalit including 7 Hill castes and 19 Tarai/Madhesi Dalit castes (NDC, 2014). Hill Dalits include Gandarbha (Gaine), Pariyar (Damai, Darjee, Suchikar, Nagarchee, Dhole, Hudke), Badi, Bishowkarma (Kami, Lohar, Sunar, Od, Chunara, Parki, Tamata), Mijar (Sarki, Charmakar, Bhool), Pode (Deula, Pujari, Jalari) and Chyame (Kuchikar, Chyamkhale). Similarly, Tarai Dalits: Kalar, Kalkahia, Kori, Khatik, Khatwe (Mandal, Khang) Chamar (Ram, Mochi, Harijan, Ravidas), Chidimar, Dom (Marik), Tamta (Tandi, Das), Dushadh (Paswan, Hajara), Dhobi (Rajak, Hindu), Pasi, Bantat, Musahar, Mestar (Halkhor) Sarbhang (Sarbariya), Natuwa, Dhandi and Dharikar/Dhankar.

Aging research in Nepal is still in its infancy (Chalise & Brightman, 2006; Chalise, 2021). Elderly people are the nation's property and dignity. The Elderly spends their whole life contributing to family, society, and nation. They have rich experience that can be very useful to learn and adopt. Most of the research carried out on older people is focused on other caste and ethnic groups. The situation of Dalit older people is not well known. Further, the social security of older people is always an important topic to be considered while policy formulation. But we do not have sufficient research in this field and do not know about the Dalit older people of Nepal.

Further, there are very few studies carried out in Sudur Paschim Provinces (Joshi et al, 2018; Joshi & Chalise, 2021). No research has been conducted about the social and health care status of elderly people in Jaya Prithvi Municipality Bajhang district yet. So far, this may be the first study about the Dalit elderly. The present study attempts to analyze the social and healthcare status of elderly people in Jaya Prithvi Municipality of Bajhang district in Nepal.

Literature Review

Till now there is no official national survey carried out on the issues of older people in Nepal. Small research carried out either for academic purposes (thesis) or others are the major sources of information on the situation of older people. Different studies show older persons have low immune systems and are vulnerable to different types of diseases (Chalise, 2012; Chalise & Rosenberg, 2020; Mishra & Chalise, 2019a; Mishra & Chalise, 2019b). A study from rural Kathmandu shows 76.5% of the respondents had physical health problems. Similarly, 52.6% reported a mental health problem. The most commonly mentioned physical health problems

were physical pain (60.4%), respiratory problems (38.4%), gastritis (34.4%), eye problems (29.4%), blood pressure (21.8%), and dental problems (20.4%). About one in 10 (13.7%) reported some type of dementia that had not yet been clinically diagnosed. Less than 10% mentioned other health problems (Chalise & Rosenberg, 2020). Another study from the Urban area of Kathmandu shows three-fifths (60 %) of older people suffering from at least one chronic disease (Chalise, 2012). The major diseases of older people were high blood pressure, diabetes, respiratory disease, arthritis, and back pain.

This study further revealed that 17 percent of older people suffered from more than one chronic disease. Further studies show that depression is quite high among Nepalese older people (Chalise, 2014; Manandhar et al., 2019; Sharma et al., 2018). A study in a Rai elderly in Kathmandu found depression in community-dwelling older persons was 29.7% (Chalise & Rai, 2013). But, Manandhar et al. (2019) found it was nearly 50% and Sharma et al. (2018) found it was as high as 65%. Similarly, studies of the elderly living in Briddashram show depression ranged from 47.33% to 57.8% (Ranjan et al., 2014; Chalise, 2014). Further breakdown of depression shows 46.7% had mild, 8.9% had moderate and 2.2% had severe depression (Chalise, 2014).

The majority (more than 80%) of Nepali live with family members (Chalise & Shrestha, 2005; Chaudhury, 2004; CBS, 2014). But studies show two-thirds of Nepalese suffer from loneliness (Chalise, 2010; Chalise et al., 2007a). It shows that living with their children is not related to lowering loneliness. Loneliness might be due to the feeling of being neglected and very little communication with family members (Chalise et al., 2007b). Loneliness is thought to be the result of many factors, including health, social and psychological conditions (Chalise, 2021). These studies show a big societal burden of addressing the needs of the elderly who are suffering from loneliness.

Taking care of older people is considered the responsibility of children in Nepal (Chalise et al, 2022; Malakar & Chalise, 2019). *Matridevo Bhava* and *Pitridevo Bhava* were traditional norms and values systems prevailing in Nepali society (Chalise, 2006, Chalise, 2021, Chalise et al., 2022). A majority of older people in Nepal tend to work in informal sectors. They lack the provision of regular income after retirement. A study shows less than 7% of older people receive a pension (Chalise & Brightman, 2006). The Nepal government provides old age allowances under the social security scheme. Till last year, senior citizens above 70 years were entitled to receive Rs 4,000 in monthly social security allowance. But from this fiscal year elderly above 68 years and above; those aged 60 and above from the Karnali region and Dalit communities, helpless widows and single women,

people with disabilities, people from endangered communities and children from some specific regions and communities are entitled to social security allowances (Chalise et al, 2022).

Methods and Procedures

This study was carried out in Jaya Prithivi Municipality of Bajhang district in 2021. Jaya Prithivi Municipality is the headquarters of Bajhang district. This study area has been chosen because of the familiar community to the author. This is one of the remote areas of Nepal as well. It is also an inhabited area by numerous Dalits community. There are 11 wards. According to the preliminary census report in 2078, the total population of the municipality was 21,973 among them 11,413 female, and 10,560 male. Similarly, 4088 households are in the study area, and the annual population growth is about -0.13 percent (Preliminary census report, 2078). According to the Jaya Prithivi Municipality office record of Paush, 2078 BS, the number of population of elderly Dalits of Jaya Prithivi municipality was 383. Among them, 50 percent i.e., 190 elderly Dalits (100 females and 90 males) were selected purposively for the study for easy collection of data in the study area. Among five clusters in Jaya Prithivi Municipality, 45 Dalits elderly from Kailash and Hemanta Bada, 40 from Luyata, 43 from Subeda 18 from Rithapata, and 58 from Chainpur were selected. The face-to-face interview method was used for data collection.

Results

Demographic and Socio-economic Characteristics of the Study Population

Out of the total 190 respondents, the highest proportion of respondents was in the age groups 60-69 percentage of 50.4 and followed by the age group 70-79 which was 31.7 percent, and 18.9 percent of respondents in the age group 75-79 respectively (Table 1). In all age groups, female respondents are in a higher percentage than males. The above table shows that males and females are 38.8 percent and 53 percent in the age group 60-69, respectively. Males are 25.2 percent and females are 28 percent in the age group 70-79.

Among the total population, 68.4 percent elderly were currently married followed by 30.5 percent of widows/widowers. The percentage of widowed elderly was nearly half of that of currently married elderly people. Similarly, in the study area, only two respondents were found separated. Out of the total respondents, nearly 95 percent of respondents followed the Hindu religion, 3.1 percent of respondents followed the Christian religion, and 2.1 percent of respondents were following the Buddhist religion. Further, more than 68.4 percent of respondents were

illiterate and the rest i.e.31.6 percent were literate including 26.0 percent having informal education, and the remaining others 5.3 percent having primary level (1-5) education only.

Table 1

General Characteristics of the Respondents

Variables		Number	Percentage
Age	60-69	96	50.4
	70-79	56	31.7
	80+	38	18.9
Sex	Male	90	47.4
	Female	100	52.6
Marital Status	Currently Married	130	68.4
	Widow/ Widower	58	30.5
	Separated	2	1.1
Religion	Hindu	180	94.8
	Buddhist	4	2.1
	Christian	6	3.1
Education	Illiterate	130	68.4
	Informal Education	50	26.3
	Primary (1 to 5)	10	5.3
Living arrangements	Nuclear	88	46.3
	Joint	97	51.0
	Living alone	5	2.7

Category of the Dalit Castes

This study is completely based on the Dalit community of the Jaya Prithivi area of the Bajhang district. Dalit caste includes so many other sub-caste groups such as B.K. (Bishowkarma), Sunar, Kami, Luhar, Agri, Auji as one Dalit caste group Pariyar, Darji, Nepali, Damai, etc., another group Sharki, Chadara, Od, Okheda, Rashaili, Mijar, etc. In this study area, researcher categories include five sub-groups of Dalit community. The majority of the respondents (37.8 %) reported they are Sarki, 33.8 percent are B.K, Sunar, Luhar, Kami, Agri, Mijar sub-caste groups, 21.5 percent respondents reported that they are Pariyar and Darji and Nepali, 6.9 percent respondents' caste remaining others Chadara, Tiruwa, Rashaili, Auji etc.

Table 2*Percentage Distribution of Respondents by Category of the Sub-caste Group of Dalit*

Category of Dalit	Respondents	
	Number	Percent
Sarki, Bhul Auji, etc.	72	37.8
B.K., Sunar, Subarnakar, Luhar, Mijaretc	64	33.8
Nepali, Damai, Darjee, etc.	41	21.5
Chadara, Tiruwa, Rasaili, Snehi, Od, Okheda, etc	13	6.9
Total	190	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021

Living Arrangements

Living arrangement refers to the structure and composition of household members of one's household as well as their relationship with each other. The living arrangement information of the respondents was obtained by asking the question to whom they were residing. Table 3 shows the distribution of respondents by living arrangements. The highest proportion (53.6%) of respondents reported that they were residing with their son/daughter, nearly about 37.4 percent spouse only them, living alone (5.3%), with a daughter/son-in-law (3.7%) and 0.5 were living with their other relatives.

Table 3*Percentage Distribution of Respondents by Living Arrangement*

Living arrangement	Total	
	Number	Percent
Spouse only	71	37.4
Son/daughter in law	101	53.2
Daughter/son in law	7	3.7
Alone	10	5.3
Others Relatives*	1	0.5
Total	190	100.0

*Other relatives include Nephew/nice-in-law and brother-in-law/sister-in-law.

Feeling of not Taking Care of the Elderly by Family

The information about the feeling of not taking care of the elderly by the family was obtained by asking an opinion type of question (i.e., how do you feel about not taking care of yourself by family and society?). The information was obtained based on his/her responses. Most of the respondents (36.8%) reported that they feel very much about not taking their care of by family members, followed by 25.2 percent who did not feel taking care of them by family members, 22.6 percent respondents reported that they feel somewhat about it and 15.4 percent said that don't have an idea about it (table 4).

Table 4

Percentage Distribution of Respondents by the Feeling of not Caring by Family

The feeling of not taking care by the family	Number	Percent
Very much	70	36.8
Somewhat	43	22.6
No such feeling	48	25.2
Don't know	29	15.4
Total	190	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021

Health Status of the Elderly

Mental Health Problem

Table 5 shows the distribution of respondents who have mental health problems. Respondents reported that they were feeling different types of mental health problems.

The majority of the respondents (94.7 %) suffered from depression. Depression is a major psychological and mental problem for elderly people of the nation because of the flow of foreign migration, urbanization, and the nuclear family system which support the fragmentation of the family. Similarly, 92.1 percent of respondents feel loneliness/ anxiety, 65.7 percent suffered from insecurity/boredom, nearly 17 percent suffered from loss of memory power and around 12 percent of respondents had suffered from mental disorder (Table 5).

Table 5*Percentage Distribution of Respondents by a Mental Health Problem*

Feel Mental health problem	Number	Percent
Insecurity/boredom	125	65.7
Mental disorder	23	12.1
Depression	180	94.7
Loneliness/ Anxiety	175	92.1
Loss of memory power	31	16.3

Suffering from Major Physical Health Problems

The information about the physical health condition of the respondents was collected by asking a closed-ended question about a physical health condition, i.e., how is his/her health condition? The information was reported based on his/her responses as he or she feels about his/her physical health condition.

Table 6*Percentage Distribution of Respondents by Major Health Problems*

Major health problems	Yes	
	Number	Percent
Any Health problem	180	94.7
Physical pain (joints, knee, back, stomach, etc.)	70	36.8
Physical pain-Diagnosed	53	75.7
Respiratory-Problem	64	35.5
Respiratory-Diagnosed	48	75.0
Blood pressure-Problem	92	51.1
Blood pressure-Diagnosed	79	85.9
Sugar (Diabetes) Problem	4	2.2
Sugar (Diabetes) Diagnosed	4	100.0
Gastric-Problem	150	83.3
Gastric-Diagnosed	98	65.3
Asthma-Problem	91	50.5
Asthma-Diagnosed	52	57.1
Heart disease-Problem	38	21.1
Heart disease-Diagnosed	22	57.9
Teeth Problem	162	90.0
Kidney/urinary-	35	19.4
Uric acid	18	10.0

Cancer	6	3.3
Other diseases	7	3.8

Source: Field Survey, 2021

Out of the respondents, 94.7 percent have any health problems and 5.3 percent don't have any problems. Table 6 shows the percentage distribution of respondents by major health problems. One-third of the total (36.8) respondents reported that they have physical pain (joints, knee, back, stomach, etc.) and among them, 75.7 percent of respondents also diagnosed such types of problems. About 72 percent of respondents have gastric problems and among these suffering from gastric problems, 83.3 percent of respondents had also been diagnosed with it. Respiratory disease (35.5.0 %) and blood pressure (51.1%) are also among the diseases suffered by the respondents.

Similarly, 50.5 percent of respondents reported that they suffered from asthma and among them, 57.1 percent of respondents had also been diagnosed with the disease. About 90 percent were suffering from teeth problems, 19.4 percent from kidney/urinary problems, uric acid 10 percent, cancer 3.3 percent, and the remaining others. About 4 percent reported suffering from other diseases which include skin disease, ulcers, cough, leg swelling, headache, jaundice, stone, hernia, tuberculosis, polio, thyroids, deafness, bone decay, and uterus-related problems (Table 6).

Discussion

In Nepal, older populations are increasing rapidly (Chalise, 2020; Chalise & Brightman, 2006) and show a tendency that will further increase in the coming days as well (Chalise, 2018). Studies show older persons have a low immune system and are vulnerable to different types of diseases with increasing age (Chalise & Rosenberg, 2020). In the Nepali culture, children are considered insurance for old age, and norms of filial responsibility are an important factor behind inter generational relationships (Chalise et al., 2007; Chalise, 2010, Chalise, 2021, Chalise et al, 2022). This is a descriptive but first study that focuses on social and health issues of the Dalit elderly in Nepal.

This study found the majority of elderly living with their children. 53.2% were living with their son/daughter-in-law and 3.7% were living with their daughter/son-in-law. The elderly living with spouses only was 37.4%. Further, the number of elderly living alone was 5.3%. It shows the emerging trend of living arrangements slightly different from previous other studies in another caste/ethnic group population of Nepalese elderly (Singh et al., 2022). Singh et al. found 81.3% of the elderly were living with family members, 11.6 percent living with a spouse, and 6.2 percent

living alone. Another community study shows 83.7% living with children, 8.9% living alone, 5.7% spouse, and 1.6% with others (Chalise & Shrestha, 2005). Another study from Kathmandu shows 87.1 living with family members, 6.1% with spouses, 2.9% alone, and 3.7% with others (Chalise, 2012). A study of Rai ethnicity shows 73.3% living with children, 14.5% with a spouse, and 12.1% with others (Chalise & Rai, 2013). Similarly, another study from Kailali shows 88.9% living with family members, 7.9% spouses, and 2.7% alone (Joshi et al., 2018). But this study shows living with spouses only is quite high in this study. It shows the changing pattern of the traditional system of living arrangements with time (Chalise, 2021).

Culturally living with family members during the stage of old age is considered a Nepali tradition (Chalise, 2021). But, due to the migration of young children from remote areas to terai areas and urban areas older people are left behind. This study shows more than 37 percent elderly are living with their spouse. National and international literature has reported that older adults who live with their partners have better levels of physical and mental health (Kim & Fredriksen-Goldsen, 2016; Henning-Smith, 2016). It may be due to the spouse also experiencing the aging process, and having more empathy with their partner. It creates bonds of mutual support in daily life, overcoming the limitations imposed by old age. Social interaction in the home environment between the elderly can also avoid social isolation, as well as provide effective and material support and can favour better quality of life scores, due to the mediating roles (Bolina, et al, 2021; Chalise et al, 2007a).

This study shows quite a high (93%) of the elderly suffering from at least one health problem. This data is quite high when compared with other studies carried out in different parts of Nepal (Chalise & Shrestha, 2005; Bhatta, 2009; Chalise & Basnet, 2017). A community study from Kathmandu shows over three-quarters (76.5%) of the elderly with some physical health problem, over half (52.6%) with some mental health problem, and 14.6% with some physical disability (Chalise & Rosenberg, 2019).

This study shows the majority of the respondents (94.7%) suffered from depression and 92.1 percent respondents feel loneliness/anxiety. Around 66 percent of respondents reported that they felt insecurity and boredom. These data are also quite high compared to other studies from Nepal (Chalise, 2010; Chalise et al., 2007b). Having health problems both physical and mental health may have an impact on the quality of life of older people (Joshi & Chalise, 2021). It may also increase the care giving burden on the care providers (Khanal & Chalise, 2020; Chalise & Khanal, 2021). Local government should promote different types active for the better mental health of the elderly.

This study has also raised the issue of social security in old age as more than half of the respondents expressed the view that they have a feeling of not caring by their family members. Similarly, nearly two-thirds have feelings of insecurity in old age. This shows the traditional value system that children will care for their parents when they become old is deteriorating in Nepal (Chalise, 2021, Chalise et al, 2022). The actual reason why the elderly felt they are not cared for by their children needs to be further explored. It may be due to our migration of children, modernization, and cultural diffusion.

Conclusion

The study revealed that the social and health care status of elderly people is quite poor in Dalit elderly. The majority of the elderly feel they are not cared for by their children. The poor economic condition may be the main barrier to the healthcare status of the elderly. So, this study suggests to have more in-depth studies and to have more attention from policy makers on the social and health care and social security status of the Dalit elderly.

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Sexual Behaviours of Sexual Minorities in Surkhet of Nepal: Risk and Safety

Belpatra Nath Yogi

Surkhet Multiple Campus, Birendranagar, Surkhet

Tribhuvan University, Nepal

Corresponding Author: *Belpatra Nath Yogi*; Email: bnyogiskt@gmail.com

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Abstract

The article analyzes sexual behaviours at risk and safety against the risk among the sexual minorities in Surkhet district of Nepal. It is a cross-sectional descriptive study based on quantitative data. One hundred thirteen sexual minorities selected through snowball sampling were interviewed. The data were analyzed using simple statistical tools such as number, percent and mean - nearly two-thirds of sexual minorities were involved in sexual activity before their maturation at the age below 20. Most (84.1%) of them had multiple sexual partners, and all had an active sex life preferring anal and oral sex the most. Many have put their sexual behaviours at risk through their sexual involvement with drug users and commercial motives in sex. However, they have adopted a few measures of safety to prevent them from sexually transmitted infections and other worsening health conditions. Above three-quarters of them used condoms while indulging in anal sex and vaginal sex with their sex partners. One-fifth of them visited health institutions for general health check up, and nearly half of them tested for HIV and STDs. Despite their efforts to adopt health safety by many of them, a large proportion of the sexual minorities have been exposed to risky sexual behaviours, making them more vulnerable to diseases and poor health. So, a joint effort from governmental, non-governmental, and public sectors is urgently required to minimize the risks from their sexual behaviours and accelerate the safety against the risks.

Keywords: Sexual behaviours at risk, safety against the risk, sexual initiation, multiple sexual partners, condom use

Introduction

Sexual minorities are a group whose sexual identity, orientation or practices differ from majority of the surrounding society. The term “sexual minorities” refers

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to individuals whose sexual orientation is outside the heterosexual mainstream (Crehan & McCleary-Sills, 2015). Usually, sexual minorities comprise of lesbian, gay, bisexual and transsexual/transgender (LGBT) individuals. LGBT is the standard term the United Nations uses to refer to people with non-traditional sexual orientations and gender identities (UNDP/USAID, 2014).

Sexual behaviours undergo at risk when there is sex with multiple partners, sex without using condom and sex later regretted due to alcohol use (Agius et al., 2013). Risky sexual behaviour is defined as any behaviour that increases the negative consequences or risks of sexually transmitted infections and unintended pregnancies which include early sexual activity, having multiple sex partners, having sex while using alcohol or drugs, and unprotected sexual behaviours (Cooper, 2002; Eaton et al., 2010). Many studies have pinpointed that sexual behaviours of sexual minorities are at a greater risk in comparison to other heterosexual people (Nappa et al., 2022).

LGBT people all over the world continue to face challenges. There are 83 countries and territories in the world that criminalize LGBT activities and relationships and seven countries institute the death penalty for same-sex relationships (Itaborahy & Zhu, 2014). Nepal is a largely patriarchal society and does not easily accept people of diverse sexual orientations (Greene et al., 2012). So, in Nepal, many people seek to hide same sexual desire and relationships or gender-variant practices (Coyle & Boyce, 2015). Sexual minorities face myriad obstacles like discrimination and mistreatment by security forces, sexual assault, harassment, physical violence, physical and psychological threats to emotional trauma, such as exclusion from their families and society (National Human Rights Commission of Nepal, 2013). They are sexually harassed and discriminated while in the process of recruitment and employment (UNDP/ USAID, 2014). They are not even safe within their families too. These minority people have become the victims of human rights violations and thus represent as a vulnerable group (National Human Rights Commission of Nepal, 2013) in Nepal.

The Yogyakarta Principles on human rights concerning sexual orientation and gender identity (Amnesty International, 2014) enshrine the idea that gender recognition should be based on self-identification of the people instead of the decisions by courts or medical professionals (Young, 2016). But the self-identification with homosexuality is very difficult due to pressures from the family members and traditional norms of the society, which can lead to forced marriages with the partner of the opposite sex (Khadka, 2017), and thus hide their gender identity and sexual orientation (National Human Rights Commission of Nepal, 2013). In such a situation, identifying the sexual minorities in a community is a challenge.

LGBT populations have not been considered as priority research populations in Nepal (Regmi & Teijlingen, 2015). The data on Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transsexual individuals in Nepal is low (Khadka, 2017). It shows the inadequacy of research in the field of sexual minorities which is more apparent in the remote areas and outside the Kathmandu valley because most of these studies are focused within Kathmandu valley (Boyce & Pant, 2001; Greene, 2015; Sharma, 2016). The studies are mainly focused on the LGBT rights and movement in Nepal (Blue Diamond Society/Heartland Alliance, 2013; Knight, 2015; Khadka, 2017; Young, 2016), knowledge on sexual and reproductive health including HIV/AIDS (UNDP/Williams Institute, 2014; Sharma, 2016), and the social and economic issues (Boyce & Coyle, 2013; Coyle & Boyce, 2015; Blue Diamond Society, 2018) of the sexual minorities; but a little work is done in the behavioural aspect of the sexual minorities. There is lack of adequate research on LGBT lives and history in Surkhet and more specifically the risk and safety towards sexual behaviours of the sexual minorities. So, this study focuses to analyze the sexual behaviours at risk and the safety against the risk among the sexual minorities in Surkhet district of Nepal.

Methods and Procedures

This is a cross-sectional descriptive study based on quantitative data. The snowball sampling was used to identify all 113 possible sexual minorities who were living in Surkhet district for the last six months. First nine cases were identified with the help of an organization working in the area of LGBT. And then, they were interviewed face to face using an interview schedule during the months of March and April in the year of 2022. Before collecting the data, they were assured of their privacy and confidentiality. The data were analyzed manually to extract the sampled respondents' numbers, percentages, and means for their personal and socio-economic characteristics, risks on the sexual behaviours, and safety measures adopted against the risky sexual behaviours.

Results

Personal and Socio-economic Characteristics of Sexual Minorities

The personal and socio-economic characteristics of the sexual minorities consist of sexual identity, age, biological sex, religion, caste/ethnicity, education, occupation, and income (Table 1). The multiple responses of the 113 sexual minorities revealed that the majority (59.3%) claimed to be the transgender as their sexual identity, the following higher proportion (43.4%) as bisexual, and each 15.9% of them as lesbian and gay. Their sexual identity was decided on their claim and self-identification. The age composition showed that nearly three-fourths of them (73.4%) were between the ages of 20 to 40 years, 14.2% of them from 40 to 60 years, and 12.4% were at the age below 20 years.

Of the total 113 sexual minorities, most of them (80.5%) were biologically male and the remaining 19.5% of them were female. There was no intersex cases found at all. Nearly two-thirds of them (62.8%) were Brahmin/Chhetri, one-fifth (20.4%) of them were Janajati, and 16.8% of them were Dalits. Half of the respondents (50.4%) had secondary level education, 33.6% of them had higher education, and only 15.9% had elementary level education. The religious status of the sexual minorities demonstrated that three-quarter (76.1%) of them were Hindu, 17.7% of them were Christian, and only 6.2% of them were Buddhists.

Table 1

Personal and Socio-economic Characteristics of the Sexual Minorities

Personal and socio-economic variables	Number of sexual minorities (N=37)	%
Sexual identity*		
Lesbian	18	15.9
Gay	18	15.9
Bisexual	49	43.4
Transgender	67	59.3
Age group		
Below 20 yr	14	12.4
20-40 yr	83	73.4
40-60 yr	16	14.2
Biological sex		
Male	91	80.5
Female	22	19.5
Caste/ethnicity		
Brahmin-Chhetri	71	62.8
Janajati	23	20.4
Dalit	19	16.8
Educational level		
Elementary	18	15.9
Secondary	57	50.4
Higher	38	33.6
Religion		
Hindu	86	76.1

Buddhist	7	6.2
Christian	20	17.7
Individual income (per month)		
Below Rs 10,000	50	44.2
Rs 10,000 and more	63	55.8

Note. *Multiple responses

The data on the monthly income of the sexual minorities was collected on the individual basis which extracted that majority (55.8%) of them had the monthly income of Rs 10,000 and more, and the remaining 44.2% of them had their individual income below Rs 10,000 per month.

Sexual Behaviours at Risk

The activities and behaviours of sexual minorities such as first experience of sex, number of sex partners, types of sex, place for sex, money for sex, drug users as sex partners and use of alcohol during sex were used to measure their sexual behaviours at risk (Table 2).

Table 2

Sexual Behaviors at Risk among the Sexual Minorities

Variables related to sexual behaviors	No of sexual minorities (N=113)	%
Age at first sexual experience		
Below 10 yr	6	5.3
10 to19 yr	65	57.5
20 yr and above	42	37.2
Number of sex partners		
Single	18	15.9
2 to 3	20	17.7
4 to 5	17	15.1
6 and above	58	51.3
Type of sex*		
Anal Sex	95	84.1
Oral Sex	98	86.7
Vaginal sex	19	16.8
Other way	18	15.9
Preference to sex		
Anal Sex	64	56.6
Oral Sex	49	43.4

Common place for sex

Own Home	8	7.1
Rent House	86	76.1
Hotel	11	9.7
Others	8	7.1

Money for sex

Yes	21	18.6
No	92	81.4

Drug users as sex partners

Yes	12	10.6
No	74	65.5
Unknown	27	23.9

Condition of alcohol use while sex

Regularly	10	8.9
Occasionally	44	38.9
Never	59	52.2

Note. *Multiple responses

Age at first sexual experience indicated that majority (57.5%) of the sexual minorities had first sex at the age of 10 to 19, 37.2% of them had the experience at the age of 20 and above, and 5.3% of them had the experience at the age below 10. The data on the number of sex partners (mean = 7.1) demonstrated that the majority (51.3%) of them had six or more sex partners, and only 15.9% had a single sex partner. Similarly, 17.7 and 15.1 percentages of them had 2 to 3 and 4 to 5 number of sexual partners respectively. The multiple responses of the data on the types of sex revealed that most of the sexual minorities indulged in oral (86.7%) and anal (84.1%) sexes with their sex partners, and 16.8% of them had vaginal sex too. But the least proportion (15.9%) of them responded to indulge in other way in which a number of sexual activities such as rubbing vulva, masturbation, and kissing involved. At the same time, the data on their first preference to sex with their sex partners revealed that majority (56.6%) of the sexual minorities preferred anal sex most and the remaining next (43.4%) preferred type was oral sex.

The most common place for sex was rent house for the most of the respondents (76.1%), and 7.1 and 9.7 percentages of them selected their own homes and hotels respectively as common places for sex. But the next 7.1% of them used other places like jungle, playground, etc. for sex with their sex partners. Meanwhile, most of them (81.4%) had never taken money for sex with their sex partners, but the remaining 18.6% responded that they received money for having sex with their sex partners.

The data on the drug users as sex partners revealed that about two-thirds of them (65.5%) had no partner who used drugs and 23.9% of them were unknown about the habit of using drugs of their partners. But 10.6% of them reported that they had the sex partners who used drugs. The study also indicated that majority of the sexual minorities (52.2%) had never used alcohol while having sex but the remaining others were found using alcohol with 38.9% as occasional users and 8.9% as regular users while indulging in sex with their partners.

Safety against the Risk

The safety measures adopted by the sexual minorities to prevent and control their health from possible consequences due to their sexual behaviors are analyzed based on their involvement in three major activities – use of condom while indulging in sex, general health examination, and specific test for HIV and AIDs (Table 3).

Table 3

Safety Measures Adopted against the Risks from Sexual Behaviors

Safety measures against the risk	No of sexual minorities (N=113)	%
Use of Condom (N=95)		
Always	75	78.9
Sometimes	20	21.1
Health Examination		
After getting sick	70	61.9
Regularly	5	4.4
Sometimes	21	18.6
Never	17	15.1
Test for HIV and STDs		
Yes	54	47.8
No	59	52.2

Of the total 95 sexual minorities (excluding lesbians), most (78.9%) reported that they always used condom during sexual contact with their sex partners, but 21.1% of them reported using it sometimes only. Out of 113 sexual minorities, nearly one-quarter (23.0%) of them reported that they examined their health for general health checkup although they were not sick among which 4.4% did it regularly in every six months and 18.6% sometimes whereas nearly two-thirds (61.9%) of them responded that they checked up their health only when they were sick. But 15.1% replied that they never checked up their health with any medical person. The study further revealed that nearly half (47.8%) had ever tested for HIV and STDs, whereas the majority (52.2%) had never tested for it.

Discussion

The findings from personal and socio-economic situation, sexual behaviours at risk, and safety against the risk among the sexual minorities are discussed here.

Personal and Socio-economic Characteristics of Sexual Minorities

The multiple responses of the sexual minorities reveal that their sexual identities are diverse and overlapped to each other though the transgender population has the dominant volume (59.3%) over others which is supported by the studies of Cresswell (2007) and Jagose (1996) that all sexual categories are open, fluid, and non-fixed. They are mostly from 20 to 40 years age-group (73.4%) and are biologically male (80.5%). Brahmin and Chhetri are the dominant castes which together comprise of 62.8% of the total sexual minorities. Above three-quarter of them are Hindus. All of them are literate and about one-thirds (33.6%) possess higher education which shows the better educational status of the respondents in comparison to a study of 1200 sexual and gender minorities in Nepal that revealed only 18 % of them with higher education and 80 % of them could just read and write (UNDP/ Williams Institute, 2014). But they do not have better income as many do not even meet the national per capita income of Rs 835.1\$ (World Bank, 2018).

Sexual Behaviours at Risk among the Sexual Minorities

The sexual minorities are most likely to have the first sexual experience before their maturity as 62.8% of them have the experience at the age below 20. This sort of sexual initiation in earlier ages before maturation is associated with risky sexual behaviors and other health and social problems (Cunha, 2022; Franca & Frio, 2018). The data on the sexual relationship of the respondents with their sexual partners reveals that most of them (84.1%) have multiple sexual partners, and the majority (51.3%) has six or more sexual partners. A report by ICF International indicated that 4.1% of adolescent men in Nepal had multiple sexual partners (Kothari et al., 2012) and a school-based survey in U. S. revealed that 42% of adolescents had multiple sexual partners (Scott et al., 2011). It shows that the number of sexual partners among the sexual minorities in the present study is incomparably higher than the general adolescent people in Nepal and U. S. The first sexual contact before their maturation and having many sexual partners brings their sexual behaviors at greater risk that may result a number of sexual and reproductive health problems as a previous study showed that violence against transgender people was widespread and 35% of 5 to 18 years olds experienced physical violence and 12% were victims of sexual violence (Winter et al., 2016). Despite a greater risk of sexual violence to these sexual minorities, all of them have involvement in sex with their sexual partners showing their active sexual life. They indulge most in oral sex (86.7%)

and anal sex (84.1%) than vaginal and other types of sexes which is very consistent with a study that demonstrated 84.9% performing oral sex in the top first position among the sexual practices of both heterosexual and bisexual men aged 18-57 years (Morell-Mengual et al., 2022). Their multiple sexual practices show their multiple, overlapped and complex roles which reveal the multiple identities and complexities in sexual orientation and behaviours of the sexual minorities (Galupo et al., 2015). Such complexities in sexual roles and sex activities expose them more towards sexual and reproductive health problems (Nappa et al., 2022). A study further supports that transgender people are 49 times more likely to live with HIV than the general population (UNAIDS, 2016).

The anal sex is the most preferred type of sexes (56.6%) and the next is oral sex (43.4%) among all the sexual minorities that are very consistent with a study among heterosexual women and men in U.S. (Habel et al., 2018). The interesting fact here is that, practically, their involvement in oral sex is slightly higher than anal sex while indulging in sex with their sex partners. It shows a slight difference in the choice of sex and its practice. Their perception towards oral sex to be safer than anal sex and their casual experience of painful anal intercourse may be the possible reasons of making this difference.

They commonly use rent house (76.1%) for sexual activity. It may be the reason that their homosexual relations and extramarital affairs are not accepted by their family and society (Khadka, 2017; National Human Rights Commission of Nepal, 2013). So, they are satisfying their sexual desire secretly hiding their identity and reality from the public.

Although most (81.4%) of the sexual minorities do not have commercial motive in sex but nearly one-fifth of them indulge in sex for money that establish them as professional sex workers in life dragging them towards risk of sexually transmitted infections as a study in U. S. revealed that involving in sexual activity for money had significant association with HIV infection (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2019). Furthermore, one-thirds (34.5%) of them have whether drug users as their sex partners or are unknown about the drugs' life of their sex partners that makes them vulnerable to sexually transmitted infections including HIV/AIDs and other health and social problems as studies showed that drug users have higher chances of undergoing risky sexual behavior and suffering from HIV/AIDs and STDs (Bonar, 2014; Franca & Frio, 2018). Many studies revealed that use of alcohol before having sex is associated with negative health and social consequences including increased risky sexual behaviors (Bryan, 2007; Cooper, 2002; Eaton et al., 2015; Franca & Frio, 2018) and sexually transmitted infections (Kalichman, 2003). But

nearly half (47.8%) of the sexual minorities drink alcohol regularly or occasionally while indulging in sex that exposes them to health and social problems.

Safety against the Risk from the Sexual Behaviours

The sexual minorities adopt different safety measures to prevent or minimize the risk of their sexual behaviors. Above three-quarter of them use condom while having anal and vaginal intercourses with their sex partners; the use of condom is higher than a study that showed 64.9% of the men using condom during vaginal intercourse and 63.6% during anal intercourse (Morell-Mengual et al., 2022). But still over one-fifth (21.1%) of the sexual minorities in the study area are at the risk of sexually transmitted diseases and infections. Nearly half of the sexual minorities test for HIV and STDs that does not only help them to diagnose their health condition but also to take precaution in their future sex life. This practice of testing for HIV and STDs is slightly better than the similar practices among the young adult population in Mexico that showed 61.7% of them not screening for STDs (Ibarrola-Peña et al., 2022); and the practice is heavily lower than the test of male sex workers in three major cities of Australia that demonstrated 88.6% of them tested for HIV (Minichiello, 2002). Nearly one-quarter (23.0%) of the sexual minorities visits health institutions for general health checkup that shows their consciousness towards their health safety. Despite a higher risk of sexually transmitted infections, a large proportion of them do not have the practice of visiting health institutions for regular health checkup which is far behind from the practices of men who have sex with men of U. S. among which 86% visited a health care provider in the last 12 months of the interview (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2019).

Conclusion

Sexual minorities are a group whose sexual identity, orientation or practices differ from majority of the surrounding society, including lesbian, gay, bisexual and transsexual/transgender individuals. Sexual behaviors of the people are at greater risk when such behaviors increase the risk of contracting sexually transmitted infections and experiencing other health problems. Sexual minorities are from different socio-economic backgrounds and identities. They are primarily from the age-group of 20 to 40 and are Hindus. Transgender people have the dominant figure over gays and lesbians. All of them are literate but are not sound economically.

Majority of the sexual minorities involve in sexual activity before their maturation at the age below 20. They have multiple sexual partners and have active sex life preferring anal and oral sex the most, so their sexual behaviors are at risk. They have put their sexual behaviors at greater risk by their sexual involvement with drug users and commercial motive in sex, making them more vulnerable to diseases

and poor health. Despite a greater risk towards their health and life due to their diverse and unsafe sexual behaviors, they have tried to adopt a few safety measures to prevent them from adverse health consequences such as using condom, examining general health and testing for HIV and AIDs. But these efforts are not adequate as majority of them do not still adopt these measures. This scenario in the risk and safety on the sexual behaviors of the sexual minorities calls for a joint effort to bring a positive change towards safer and healthy sexual behaviors and activities. There are multiple sexual orientations and identities among them, so complexities in understanding their sexual behaviours which demands both extensive and in-depth study in this issue.

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Exploring the History of Tourism in Ancient and Medieval Nepal: A Study of Visitors and their Activities

Dol Raj Kafle, PhD

Associate Professor, Ratna Rajyalaxmi Campus, Kathmandu

Tribhuvan University, Nepal

Corresponding Author: *Dol Raj Kafle*; Email: kafledol@gmail.com

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Abstract

Nepal is the place of tourist attraction and destination since the ancient time. Taking this into consideration using historical design of qualitative research, this study examines the visitors who came to the country during the ancient and medieval periods from the perspective of tourism in Nepal. The study explores the reasons for travel to Nepal, such as for pilgrimages, diplomatic missions, as refugees, and discusses the activities that these visitors were involved in during their time in the country. The study used secondary sources, including travelogues and historical memoirs, to draw conclusions about the development of tourism in Nepal during this time period. The findings suggest that visitors to Nepal during this time can be considered tourists, and their activities were similar to those of modern tourism.

Keywords: Historical, travel, pilgrimage, foreigners, entertainment

Introduction

Tourism is the act of travelling for leisure, recreation and enjoyment, often involving the use of commercial services. In other words, tourism is the act of spending time away from home in pursuit of pleasure and relaxation. This can include activities such as sightseeing, adventure sports, cultural experiences, and more. Tourism can be both domestic, involving travel within one's own country, and international, involving travel across national borders (Walton, 2022). International tourism, in particular, has seen significant growth in recent years, with the number

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of international tourists reaching 1.4 billion in 2018 (World Tourism Organization, 2018). However, tourism also has the potential to have economic, social, and cultural impacts on destinations, and it is important for these impacts to be managed and balanced.

The word “tourism” originated from the Greek word “tornos,” meaning a tool used for describing a circle. This reflects the idea of people travelling in a circular itinerary, returning to their point of origin after visiting different places for leisure or pleasure. The first recorded use of the word “tourism” was in 1811 (Leiper, 1983). Today, tourism is an important part of many economies, bringing in income and promoting cultural exchange (Bhatia, 1996). Nepal has long been a destination for travellers and tourists from around the world and it has a long history of welcoming visitors from abroad, and this tradition continues today. Its rich culture, stunning landscapes, and fascinating history have made it a popular destination for those seeking adventure and new experiences. External tourism is an important source of income for Nepal, providing employment and economic opportunities for many people in the country. It not only brings in much-needed income but also helps to promote the country’s rich culture and heritage to the world.

The word ‘tourism’ gradually came to refer to people who travelled to other places, and later it was recognized all over the world and associated with travelers. Today, a person who travels is known as a tourist, and their activities are referred to as tourism. In the beginning, travelling was not called tourism. However, with the development of the concept of the round tour or package tour, the word “tourism” came to be associated with various forms of travel (McIntyre et al., 1993). People who have visited Nepal since ancient times can therefore be considered tourists in this sense, and their activities can be described as tourism. Overall, the concept of tourism has evolved over time to include a wide range of activities and purposes.

From the beginning of evolution, it is the nature of human to travel to new and unknown places. Men started their early life inform from the nomadic age. However, the wandering activities of the people of that period were considered aimless or meaningless. Roaming the forests in search for food and hunting became a culture of the people before the civilization. Human nature is a lover of change. Gradually those nomadic people left the stone and hunting age and entered the age of agriculture and animal husbandry (Pande & Regmi, 2005). Agriculture forced people to settle down permanently. In that agricultural age, people drew attention to things like religion, sin, virtue, heaven, hell, etc. Due to these actions, people’s needs were also increased day by day. The development of religious sentiment motivated people to search for places of pilgrimage and increase the need to produce and transact goods. In the beginning, pilgrimage and trade were two reasons that motivated

people to travel and leave their permanent residence. In search of religious places, people reached many different places of the world to fulfill their purpose of salvation. Similarly, to meet the needs for food and other goods, they traveled all over the world and started conducting business. During the expansion of trade, people also started to study and observe various new places to enhance their business.

For the time being people also started searching for new suitable places for settlements. Such activities helped people to develop the habit of travelling from place to place (Bhatia, 1994). Tourism has been established as a powerful industry in the world today due to the continued movement of people. In the beginning, people who traveled around the world for business and religious purposes, after starting the industrial revolution in the 18th century, started to travel for entertainment along with the business. While traveling in this way, people who visit places within the borders of their own country are called internal tourists, and people who travel outside the borders of their country are called external tourists.

The concept of international tourism is considered to be much earlier than the concept of domestic tourism in the world. Phoenicians were the first people to travel the world for business and commercial purposes (Satyal, 1984). The Sumerians started the practice of currency around 4000 BC. After practising the currency, the journey of travellers travelling for business or other purposes started to become easy, accessible, and natural. By the middle age in Europe, due to events such as the Renaissance, the Reformation Movement, and the Industrial Revolution, the means of transportation in those countries had developed widely (Toynbee, 1961). Because of the rapidly growing vehicles for transportation, as the business sector also developed vis-a-vis, there was a revolutionary change in people's income. Cities like New York, London, Paris, Tokyo, etc. were developing in the world. Gradually, the living standards of the people dweller that area also increased. People working in factories were also given monthly and annual paid holidays (Lean, 2009). The pace of construction of flying and rolling means of transport was gaining momentum.

People who are tired of working in the noisy urban environment for hours, started feel that their workload and fatigue were reduced when they could stay and visit the natural beautiful places with a peaceful environment. They started feel that their body has been rejuvenated and the energy to work has increased. After that, gradually people started spending their free time to travelling around in new places to get entertainment or to fulfill their other desire. For this reason, a new concept was developed in the field of tourism (Owens, 2020). The culture of traveling made a significant contribution to the historical development of tourism in the world. Since the ancient period in Nepal, the movement of foreigners has been happening gradually. Although the purpose of such a visit was not tourism but the

visit was similar to the activities of tourists. Their objectives were also evangelism or pilgrimage. They also entered Nepal in search of new places. Another purpose of their visit to Nepal was research. Currently, tourism also has similar objectives. In that sense, the visits of foreigners in ancient and medieval Nepal are similar to tourism activities. This study focuses on identifying the ancient and medieval visitors as tourists who were largely considered pilgrims and for other purposes. By applying the heuristic approach, this study discusses various perspectives to the tourism industry of modern hours. The purpose of this study is to highlight the people who visited Nepal in the ancient and medieval period as foreign tourists and their travelling activities as tourism.

Settlement and movement of foreigners in Nepal have been growing since the ancient period. While these movements may have been viewed from a migration or other perspective, they were not necessarily viewed from a touristic point of view. The purpose of this study is to examine the people who visited Nepal in the ancient and medieval periods from a touristic perspective. At the same time, it is useful to identify the indicators of tourism activities in the present situation in order to more easily describe the situation. Comparing ancient and medieval traveling activities to modern tourism is the research gap of this study and it is clear that the concept of tourism has evolved over time. In the past, travel may have been more closely tied to religious pilgrimages or other specific purposes, whereas today tourism encompasses a wider range of activities and motivations.

Literature Review

Although there are a lot of books and other documents available about tourism in the present, there is a lack of sources that study the people who visited Nepal in ancient, and medieval periods as a touristic point of view. Different scholars have given different definitions of tourism. Tourism is currently a phenomenon that has developed as a powerful smokeless industry in the world. This industry has managed to provide employment to 10 percent of the total employed people in the world and has managed to generate 7 percent of the total wealth of the world. The sources taken in this study are the sources used in writing the history of Nepal. Among them, some of the sources have been reviewed that have given the definition of tourism and some of the sources that discussed the people who visited Nepal.

Tourism is related to travelling activities which intertwined with entertainment. Bhatia (1996) has expressed the opinion that business, meetings, festivals, cultural studies are also considered to be included in tourism at the present movement. Although he analyzed the tourism issue perfectly, he did not mention about the tourists who visited Nepal in ancient and medieval period. In the study

of the history of Nepal, the title ‘Hamro Samaj Yak Addhyan’, written by Janaklal Sharma (2001) although it is written about the visits of foreigners to Nepal at different times, they are not mentioned as tourists. Similarly, Balchandra Sharma has discussed in his book ‘Nepalko Aaitahasik Ruprekha’ (1976) that people came to Nepal in ancient and medieval period. But he also did not discuss those visitors from a touristic point of view. Yajn Raj Satyal (2000) in his book ‘Tourism in Nepal’ has discussed the development of Tourism in Nepal. But he did not include the visitors in the development of Nepalese tourism who travelled in ancient and medieval period in Nepal. In this book, while mentioning the history of tourism in Nepal, he has discussed some missionaries who visited Nepal during the time. Even he has not been able to mention clearly of this subject matter of study area. Similarly, in the book titled ‘Jayaprakash Malla: The Brave King of Kantipur’ written by Tulsiram Vaidya (2018), mentioned the arrival and travelling activities of Christian missionaries to Nepal, but they were also not called tourists. Although the book is helpful in studying the subject of Christian missionaries, it is not so useful when analyzing them as tourists. In this way, an attempt has been made to clarify the topic of ancient and medieval visitors as tourists in this research, which has not reached the interest of other scholars.

It has been found that most of the above mentioned literatures emphasis the people who came from India, China and Europe for various purposes in Nepal in ancient and medieval period. It seems that most of such people are proselytizing and entering as refugees. Especially Hindu, Buddhist and Christian missionaries came to Nepal to preach religion but Muslims for business. Some of them stayed in Nepal and some went back, so overall they have been studied as tourists. It is concluded that the use of the above literature has helped to analyze movement, migration and travellers as a touristic point of view.

Methods and Procedures

This study is based on the historical design of qualitative research method. In this study framework, the event is viewed from a historical perspective, and the perspectives and feelings of the people involved have been explored. The study has analyzed the facts of the scope and area of research. It is based on abstract concepts and definitions, and has analyzed the social, cultural, and structural context, as well as the experiences and perceptions of those involved. The presented qualitative research deals with the relevant nature of human activities. The qualitative research framework used in this study is always focused on the study of motivation, encouraging self-discovery, and using an exploratory and flexible method. Books, journals, articles, websites, and other sources have been used in the research. The

study area and the delimitation of the study focus on the people who visited Nepal from different places around the world for various purposes in ancient and medieval times, compared to modern tourism. Mostly secondary sources have been used in this study, and descriptive and analytical methods have been adopted during the writing process.

Results and Discussion

Visitors in Ancient Nepal

Even before the beginning of the historical period, the movement of people from the Sino-Tibet area in the north and the Gangetic plains of India in the south began to move in the area within the borders of present-day Nepal (Pande & Regmi, 2005). Historical period is called the time after the development of writing craft. In Nepal, the period after the discovery of written sources is considered as the historical period. The time before that is considered pre-historic period. It is said that there was a movement of people in Nepal even before the historical period. There are ample evidences of people living in Nepal at that time. People at that time were nomadic. That was the hunting age. Various weapons and other tools used by the people of that period have been found in different places of Nepal including Dang, Bardia, Nawalparasi, Kathmandu, etc. (Pande & Regmi, 1997). Neolithic tools that have been found in Nepal, the style of making those tools are similar to the stone weapons found in the 'Gobi Desert' of China and southern Mongolia and various plains of India. On the base of those available stone weapons and other evidences, it seems that there is movement of people from China-Tibet and India to Nepal during the pre-historical period. In this way, the fact of the arrival of people can be considered as the basis of tourism or travel. The Animal husbandry period also started during the Neolithic era. There has been a trend of studying the Stone Age by dividing it into three stages paleolithic, mesolithic, and neolithic (Kapali, 1998). At that time, there are reports of shepherds entering Nepal from both the north, and south parts of Nepal with herds of cows, buffaloes, yak, sheep, etc. in search of pasture land (Sharma, 2001). Based on the remains of Ramapithecus, which is believed to be the ancestor of human beings found in Nepal, this place seems to have been developed as a human settlement thousands and millions of years ago. In addition to this, Nepal is considered to have a suitable environment for settlement, movement, and wandering (Kayastha, 2016). Due to Nepal's climate and favorable environment, the practice of people coming here from far away and staying has been maintained since the ancient period.

There was a huge lake in Kathmandu Valley in the ancient period. According to chronicles and other sources, it is said that Manjushree Bodhisattva, who came

to Nepal from great China in the ancient period. He cut a place by his sword and drained the water from Chaubhar (Katuwal) in the south of Kathmandu valley. Only then the Kathmandu Valley become habitable (Satyal, 2000). Later than Manjushri Bodhisattva returned back to great China, it is mentioned that other Buddhas like Vipashvi, Krakuchhanda, etc. also came to Nepal. In the Shaiva puran, it is mentioned that Lord Krishna came to Kathmandu valley from Mathura with herdsmen and defeated the demon named Danasura in a battle and settled in the valley (Regmi, 1978). After that, the cowherder Gopals began to rule in Nepal. As the first dynasty of Nepal, the Gopals, who came to the valley with lord Krishna, were ruled by them. After Gopal, Ahirs or Abhirs, Kirants and Lichchhavis also came from outside and took over the governance system of Nepal. Lichchhavis entered Nepal after losing their kingdom in Vaishali, India. Even during Lichchhavi era, Indian traders used to come to Kathmandu valley to buy Nepalese clothes called radi, pakhi made in Nepal and sell their goods (Regmi, 1978). Thus, due to the expansion of trade, the movement of foreign traders increased in ancient Nepal. During the reign of the Mauryan Dynasty in India, the trade was expanded with Nepal (Gairola, 2000). Many traders from the Magadha region of India also used to come to buy wool and Nepalese clothes (Radi-Pakhi) made in Nepal.

Even before the time of Buddha (563 BC), Nepali goods were being bought and sold in the big cities of India. Traders from Kashi, Koshal, Patna, Sravasti, Kapilvastu, etc. used to come to Nepal to sell their goods and buy goods manufactured in Nepal (Nepal, 1998). Then, during the reign of the Indian Mauryan Emperor Ashoka (250 BC), the development of religious tourism began with the movement of Buddhists to Lumbini in the Terai region of Nepal. Since Buddha's time, his disciples used to come to Kathmandu valley to preach the religion. In the chronicle, it is mentioned that Lord Buddha himself also came to Kathmandu Valley and settled in Puchchagra Chaitya and made 1350 disciples in Nepal (Sharma, 1976). The famous Acharya Bhadrabahu of Jainism also died in 260 BC while he was living in Nepal for penance. Sthulbhadra, a disciple of Jain religious guru Sambhutvijaya, also came to Nepal from Pataliputra India. In ancient period, common people, religious persons, scholars and monks used to come to Nepal when there was a severe famine in India or when other religious disputes increased or even for the purpose of preaching religion. The famous disciple of Buddha, Saint Ananda, also came to Nepal along with Moudralayan the other disciple of Lord Buddha (Sharma, 1976). In the ancient period, many religious leaders visited Nepal from India to promote Hinduism and Buddhism in Nepal.

The name of Indian Maurya emperor Ashoka is very famous in the history of travel to ancient Nepal. The fact that Emperor Ashoka visited various regions

of Nepal including Lumbini and Kapilvastu in the 3rd century BC is proved by his pillar records in Lumbini as well as Niglihawa in Kapilvastu. During his journey, he also visited Gotihawa, the Parinirvana place of Krakuchhanda Buddha in Kapilvastu. In addition, the birthplace of Kanakamuni Buddha Niglihwa with Gotihawa also visited and had a stone pillar built there as well by Emperor Ashoka (Bidari, 2003). Many foreign travelers visited the Lumbini and surrounding places even after Emperor Ashoka. Then Emperor Ashoka came to Kathmandu Valley. He built five Buddhist stupas in the Patan area of Kathmandu valley. His daughter Charumati also came to Nepal with him (Sharma, 1968). Charumati was married to Devpal, a prince of Nepal. The inscription written by Emperor Ashoka on a pillar at Lumbini is strong evidence for the birthplace of Lord Buddha. After Emperor Ashoka, many Buddhist pilgrims and scholars traveled to Lumbini and Kapilvastu regions. Among those pilgrims, the names of some Chinese pilgrims are particularly noteworthy. According to the information received from the source after the beginning of AD, Sui-Ching was the first person who visited the Kapilbastu region of Nepal from China (Bidari, 2003). After Sui-Ching, Fahyan visited Kapilvastu in around 403 AD in that region (Pradhan, 1975). About 227 years later, another Chinese traveler Yuan-Chang also visited Kapilavastu in 25 December 636 (Cunningham, 2015). In this way, the Chinese travelers who visited Lumbini and Kapilvastu areas in the ancient period were the way to visit India as an ambassador. After Fahyan and Yuan-chang-hiuen-chiu, Taou-hi, Wang-hiuen-tse, Tech-hong, I-tsing, Wu-kung, Fang-chih, Li-yi-pio visited Kapilvastu and Lumbini region of Nepal along with different parts of India (Bidari, 2003). Thus, many Chinese travelers visited Nepal as a religious place in ancient Nepal.

Between Nepal and Tibet during the Lichchhavi period, mutual travel between Nepal and Tibet increased after the marital relationship of Princess Bhrikuti of Nepal was established with the Tibetan kingdom. A trade route was also built between Nepal and Tibet during the reign of Anshuvarma. Some famous Buddhist missionaries visited Nepal during Lichchhavi period. Shantarakshit (742), Padma Sambar (747), Kamalsheel (760) etc. were prominent among such preachers (Pradhan, 1988). In this way, it seems that in ancient period, foreigners came to visit Nepal mainly in the form of pilgrims, missionaries and traders. At that time, the number of people traveling in Nepal increased as the people traveling India and Tibet as a ambassadors also used Nepal's route.

Visitors in Medieval Nepal

It is believed that the medieval period began in the history of Nepal from 879 and end in 1768 AD. Since the beginning of the Medieval period, because the rulers of Nepal were weak, a person named Nagaraj came from the Khari Province in

the southwest of Tibet (whose capital was at Taklakhar) and established a new state by making the capital at Senja (Sinja) of Jumla in western Nepal in twelfth century (Yogi, 1956). Nagaraja was a man of Khas origin (Adhikari, 1996). The Bhote caste people living in places like Humla, Mugu, Darchula in the Himalayan region of the present Karnali Province also came from Tibet (Subedi, 1997). From the eighth to the twelfth century AD, the clan of Budha, Roka, Mahat, Mahtara, Chalaune, Aaidi, Khadka, Saud, Bogti, Bohora, Thapa, Budhathoki, Karki etc. the ancestral khas came from the North-western part and settled in Karnali region of Nepal. Long before the Khases who came as rulers, people with different surnames like Malla, Shahi, Pal, Bam, Chand, Singh had also settled in the Karnali region. Later, they gradually established independent states and ruled in Karnali and Gandaki region (Subedi, 1997). In this way, the ex-rulers (Rajputs) of different places were entered Nepal at different times and established kingdoms, so many kingdoms were established in Nepal during the medieval period.

Just like the people came from different places to establish a state in Western Nepal in the early Medieval period, a person named Nanyadev came from south India to the eastern Terai of Nepal, the present Bara district in 1097 AD, and established a new state by making then Simrabangarh, the capital. That kingdom was also called Tirhut or Doy kingdom. Later, that state became very powerful and attacked several times the Nepalmandal state of Kathmandu valley (Upadhyaya, 2008). Thus, since the beginning of the Medieval period of Nepalese history, the arrival of foreigners in Nepal has been increasing rapidly. Like other dynasties of Nepal, the Sen dynasty rulers who ruled in Palpa and eastern Terai kingdoms of Makwanpur, Chaudandi, and Vijaypur are also believed to be from India's Chittor of Sisodia dynasty. In 1303, the Sens entered Nepal after the Sultan of Delhi attacked their kingdom Prayag during the reign of Tulasen. After coming to Nepal, they started to rule by establishing a new state by making a place called Rajpur in the Champaran or Butwal area of present-day western Nepal. That kingdom extended up to Ribdikot in the hills. Later that kingdom came to be known as the Palpa kingdom (Ghimire, 1999). In this way, in different times of the medieval period, people from outside were coming, travelling and living in Nepal.

Historians have divided the medieval history of Nepal into the pre-medieval and post-medieval periods. The period from 879 to 1380 is known as the pre-Medieval Period and beyond that to 1768 as the post-Medieval Period. The order of coming to Nepal for the propagation of Buddhism was the same even in the pre-medieval period. At the same time, Atisha Dipankar (1040), Miloreppa (1090), etc. visited to Nepal. Tibetan Buddhist monk Dharmaswami also visited to Nepal during the time and propagated Buddhist education (Jest, 1981). The propagation

of Lama Buddhism in Nepal was done by Tibetan tourists or missionaries. After Geluppa (yellow hat) suppressed the Nyingmapa (red hat) Buddhist sect in Tibet, the Tibetan Lamas of the suffering sect took refuge in the northern region of Nepal and propagated their religion (Kunwar, 2000). Aadi Shankaracharya also arrived in Nepal to protect the Sanatan Dharma when the deep influence of this religion was growing due to the frequent movement of the preachers of Buddhism since the ancient period. Shankaracharya (788-820), born in the village of Kaladi in Kerala, South India, came to Nepal to reduce the influence of the growing Buddhism. He returned the Nepalese people who were gradually becoming Buddhists in Nepal to the Hindu Sanatan religion. He also improved the worship of Pashupatinath and established the tradition of worshipping in the Vedic way (Sanadhya, 1997). The Sanatan Praying founded by Shankaracharya is still found in the Pashupatinath praying system today. In this way, in the Medieval period, there was a continuous movement of followers of both religions for the promotion and protection of Hinduism and Buddhism.

The arrival of Europeans in India beginning with the Medieval period. After that, people from third countries started gradually moving in Nepal. From the beginning, the purpose of Europeans' arrival in Nepal was to spread Christianity. In this context, the first European citizen to visit Nepal was Joao-Cabral. The Portuguese citizen Cabrell entered the Kathmandu Valley from Bhutan by way of Nepal in January 1628. After that, European citizens started visiting Nepal gradually (Shrestha, 2002). During the reign of King Pratap Malla in 1662 AD, Father John Grueber and Albert D'Orville visited to Nepal from China via Lhasa in Tibet on their way to Patna, India. Grueber met the then King Pratap Malla of Kantipur and King Srinivasa Malla of Lalitpur. Those Christian missionaries came to Kathmandu Valley to preach the religion at the invitation of Pratap Malla. Grueber also gifted a telescope to Pratap Malla. In return, Pratap Malla also committed to helping them in evangelizing (Vaidya, 2018). Thus the then contemporary Malla kings encouraged Christian priests to travel, live and preach in the Kathmandu Valley, the number of Christian priests were increased day by day. The Christian priests were allowed to stay in Kathmandu valley by the reign of Bhaskar Malla, another Malla king of Kantipur but that missionary went to Bhaktapur in 1722 because an epidemic spread in Kathmandu at that time (Sharma, 1976). Missionaries were able to avoid the epidemic due to the lack of human settlements in some rural areas of Bhaktapur.

When Christian priests started coming to Kathmandu valley without taking permission in the Malla period, Francis Horace Da Penna Billi had to be imprisoned. He arrived in Kantipur on the way to Lhasa in 1732. He was released after five months from jail. When he pleaded for the preaching of Christianity in Kantipur, he got approval, but he could not stay in Kathmandu valley for a long time due to

financial problems. He left Kathmandu valley in December 1734 and reached Patna in India in January 1735. Likewise, Joachim and Father Vitus of Recanati arrived in Bhaktapur on March 13, 1737, at the invitation of King Jayaprakash Malla of Kantipur. After knowing this, King Jayaprakash Malla of Kantipur called to Kantipur and allowed them to eat, live and open a library (Landon, 1987). During his stay in Kantipur, Recanati learned the Newari language and got ten young people to join the church (Vaidya, 2018). Similarly, in the year 1740, Father Francis Horace of Della Panna arrived in Bhaktapur on the way to Tibet. At that time, Della Panna published the Bible in the Newari language and gave it as a gift to King Jayaprakash Malla of Kantipur and King Ranjit Malla of Bhaktapur (Vaidya, 2018). Jayaprakash Malla had provided land for Christian priests to build a church and a house in Wontu Tol in the center part of Kathmandu valley. This is mentioned in a copper plate of Jayaprakash Malla like “Jaya Prakash Malla Deva, prince of Nepal, gives for the Establishment and worship of the Capuchin Fathers a beauteous Site situated in Talasithali of Wontutol in an unoccupied place and also a two storied open quadrangular house” (Vaidya, 2018). In this way, the Christian missionaries evangelist were motivated to promote Christianity in Kathmandu Valley.

Among the last Christian missionaries who came to Kathmandu Valley in the Medieval period were Anselm of Ragusa, Joseph of Rovato and John Gaulbert of Massa. At the same time, after Michael Angelo went back on March 4, 1764, two other priests John Gaulbert of Massa and Seraphin of Como were arrived in Kathmandu valley. When the king of Gorkha Prithvi Narayan Shah won victory over Kantipur on 25 September 1768, those missionaries were also in Kathmandu. Prithvi Narayan Shah’s brother Surpratap Shah sent four Brahmins to the church to protect the Christian missionaries (Vaidya, 2018). In the medieval period, after the European Christian priests visited the valley with the help of the rulers of Kantipur, Patan and Bhadgaun in the Kathmandu valley, the Europeans got a lot of information about Nepal. Among those priests, Joseph of Rovato published many articles as well as books under the name of Father Giuseppe. As a result, the Europeans got the opportunity to study and discover about Nepal, and also increased the desire to visit Nepal, which has been able to have a positive impact on the tourism development of Nepal. The name of Nepal became known all over the world due to such actions of priests. Later, due to disagreements with Prithvi Narayan Shah, those priests had to leave the valley.

Conclusion

Even in the Stone Age or after the development of civilization, people from different countries of the world came to Nepal for different purposes. Those people entered Nepal for several reasons, including pilgrimage, business or as refugees after

losing their state. Among such travelers, who came from Tibet and China mostly visited to the Buddhist pilgrimage sites of Lumbini and Kapilvastu, while the Rajputs who ruled in ancient and medieval India and after losing their kingdoms took refuge in Nepal and later came to take over the governance system as they influenced local people. For that reason, more than fifty kingdoms were established within the geography of present-day Nepal in Medieval Period. Nepalese history had witnessed immigrants entry with various purposes that enlarged multiple touristic destinations, such as findings of Ramgram, Taulihwa and Niglihawa. Their purpose was not only limited to exploration and exhumation of new places, rather their aim too was expand religious activities. For instance, Christian missionries came to publicize their religion, and Kashmiri Muslims came to sell their cosmetic products. Since ancient period, Nepal has been known as a country where people travel a lot. In ancient and medieval period, because the settlements in Nepal were not dense, the movement of people could not make a significant difference in the various areas of the country. But when studying the history of that journey in its current form, it can be seen in connection with pilgrims or tourists. Although the purpose of that type of travel is not tourism, it can be studied as some form of tourism of that time. The travel details of that time have a special importance in the history of tourism in Nepal. There is a great deal to be explored from the accounts of foreign tourists who visited Nepal during the medieval period. The travelogues of foreign visitors to Nepal could serve as a strong foundation based on which we could trace the historical development of tourism in Nepal.

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Detection of Antibiotic Residues in Broiler Meat by Thin Layer Chromatography

Santosh Thapa¹, Dev Raj Acharya², Bibek Dahal³, Bishnu Bahadur Khatri⁴ and Yadav KC^{1,2*}

¹Department of Food Technology, Central Campus of Technology, Dharan, Tribhuvan University, Nepal

²Central Department of Food Technology, Tribhuvan University, Nepal

³Department of Pharmacy, Sunsari Technical College, Dharan, Nepal

⁴Central Department of Rural Development, Tribhuvan University, Nepal

Corresponding Author: Yadav KC; E-mail: ykcdng504@gmail.com

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Abstract

Antibiotic usage has played a significant role in the growth of poultry industry all across the globe. But because of indiscriminate use of antibiotics, several incidences related to occurrence of antibiotic residues in broiler meat have been reported. In the context of Nepal, only limited studies have been attempted to assess the presence of antibiotic residues in poultry meat and thus this study aims to determine the same in Dharan. A questionnaire survey was conducted among poultry farmers and veterinary shops in Dharan where 44% of respondents had training on poultry farming but only 4 % had knowledge on antimicrobial resistance in microorganism. The survey report showed maximum usage of doxycycline and tetracycline in poultry farms. Four types of broiler meat, namely, liver, breast muscle, kidney and gizzard were collected and screening of antibiotic residues (ciprofloxacin, doxycycline, enrofloxacin, gentamycin and tetracycline) in them was performed by thin layer chromatography. On thin layer chromatography, 9%, 17%, 8%, 3% and 21% of samples were detected with ciprofloxacin, doxycycline, enrofloxacin, gentamycin and tetracycline residues respectively. Highest occurrence of ciprofloxacin, doxycycline, enrofloxacin and tetracycline residues were found in kidney (16%), gizzard (32%), liver (12%) and kidney (36%) samples respectively.

Keywords: Antimicrobial agents, tetracycline, doxycycline, ciprofloxacin, enrofloxacin, gentamycin, meat safety

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Introduction

With the growing population, income and urbanization, the demand for animal derived foods is estimated to grow by 70% between 2005 and 2050 (Alexandratos & Bruinsma, 2012). Among such foods, demand for poultry meat is expected to increase at the highest rate, by 121% (Mottet & Tempio, 2017). To meet this growing demand, poultry industry is also growing rapidly throughout the world. The situation is no different in Nepal and it is growing at a rapid rate of around 17-18% (FAO, 2014). Nepal is one of the best places for poultry rearing due to its rich biodiversity (Dhakal et al., 2019). Nepal lies at the 112th position for chicken meat production of the world (FAO, 2014). In Nepal, production of chicken has been found to be increased from 16,662 metric tons to 60,122 metric tons within a decade from fiscal year 2008/09 to fiscal year 2017/18 (MOALD, 2022). Poultry industry has become a major attraction to Nepalese farmers. It may be because of a higher success rate and better profitability than other sectors. More than 75% of the poultry farms in Nepal are in profit (CBS, 2015). For this tremendous growth of poultry industry, use of antibiotics has played a significant role (FAO, 2014).

In commercial poultry industry, antibiotics are used not only for therapeutic purposes but also as feed additives to promote growth, improve feed efficiency, and breeding performance, and enhance feed acceptability (Chowdhury et al., 2009). However, severe problems may arise if the farmers fail to follow the guidelines related to withdrawal times, dosage level, etc. for the antibiotics (Ezenduka, 2019). It may lead to occurrence of antibiotic residues in meat produced (Beyene, 2016) and occurrence of antibiotic resistance in poultry pathogens (Grane, 2000) and consumption of such contaminated meat can affect the consumers by causing imbalance in intestinal microflora, antibiotic resistance in human gut bacteria, immunological effects, and also many allergic reactions (Shareef et al., 2009). In Nepal, most of the farmers have been using common antibiotics based on their individual judgment and analysis of disease and flock condition rather than consulting with veterinary doctors (Osti et al., 2017). Such carelessness has led to occurrence of antibiotic residues in poultry meat sold in markets all over the nation (Gwachha, 2017; Maharjan et al., 2020; Pandey et al., 2009; Prajapati et al., 2018; Raut et al., 2017; Rawal & Manandhar, n.d.; Sapkota et al., 2019; Shrestha, 2017). Some workers have even reported residue levels to be above the MRLs (Maharjan et al., 2020; Raut et al., 2017). This study is thus aimed at assessing the antimicrobial usage habit of local farmers of Dharan and also to determine the prevalence of antibiotic residues in poultry meat samples collected from the retail outlets within the city.

Methods and Procedures

Research Design

This study used the survey design of quantitative research method. A total of 25 poultry farms situated in Dharan were surveyed to collect information regarding their education level, training level, antibiotics used in the farm, knowledge regarding occurrence of drug residues, maximum residue limits, withdrawal periods and antibiotic resistance. Similarly, 10 veterinary doctors working within Dharan Sub-Metropolitan city were surveyed to find out the common diseases in poultry in Dharan.

Sample Collection

A total of 100 samples (25 samples of each tissue variety) were randomly collected from broiler meat shops of Dharan. The tissue samples (liver, breast muscle, kidney and gizzard) were collected from randomly selected poultry meat shops within Dharan Sub-Metropolitan city. Each sample was kept separately in sterile plastic bag with proper labeling and transported to the Research Laboratory of Central Campus of Technology, Hattisar, Dharan in an ice box. These samples were stored in refrigerator at -20°C until further analysis (Sarker et al., 2018).

Antibiotic Standard Preparation

In brief, 0.05 g of ciprofloxacin, doxycycline, enrofloxacin, gentamycin and tetracycline were dissolved in 5 ml of dilute acetic acid, methanol, dilute acetic acid, distilled water and methanol respectively (Hossain, 2010). Working concentration for each antibiotic was determined by experiments such that a discrete spot without any tailing was obtained after chromatography.

Selection of Suitable Solvent System

A variety of solvent systems and TLC plate pretreatments were tested which are shown in Table 1 and the most suitable solvent system was selected among them which were ultimately used during TLC analysis of the meat samples.

Table 1

List of Preliminary Trials for Thin Layer Chromatography

Trial	TLC plate predevelopment	Mobile phase	Reference
A	No	Methanol: acetone (1:1)	(Sarker et al., 2018)
B	No	Water: methanol: dichloromethane (6:35:59)	(Bečić et al., 2018)

C	No	n-butanol: oxalic acid: water (100ml: 5g: 100ml)	(Kapadia & Rao, 1964)
D	No	Methanol: acetone: 1% aq. ammonia (4:4:1)	-
E	No	Water: methanol: dichloromethane: 1% ammonia (6:35:59:5)	-
F	No	Chloroform: methanol: conc. NH ₄ OH: H ₂ O (1:4:2:1)	(Claes & Vanderhaeghe, 1982)
G	Pretreatment by saturated EDTA solution	Chloroform: methanol: 5% aq. Na ₂ EDTA (65:20:5), lower layer	(Oka et al., 1983)
H	Pretreatment by saturated EDTA solution	Chloroform: methanol: acetone: 1% aq. NH ₄ OH (10:22:50:18)	(Xie et al., 1997)
I	Predevelopment in aq. Na ₂ EDTA solution (100g/l conc. and pH 8) and dried at 120°C/1 hr	Methanol: acetone (1:1)	-
J	Predevelopment in aq. Na ₂ EDTA solution (100g/l conc. and pH 8) and dried at 120°C/1 hr	Water: methanol: dichloromethane (6:35:59)	-
K	Plates washed with methanol and predevelopment in aq. Na ₂ EDTA solution (100g/l conc. and pH 8) and dried at 120°C/1 hr	Chloroform: methanol: 25% NH ₄ OH (60:35:5)	(Chen & Schwack, 2013)

Sample Preparation

Extraction of antibiotics from samples was done by using phosphate buffer followed by protein precipitation and defatation (Tazrin, 2014) with slight modifications. Briefly, samples were grinded separately in mortar pestle. Then, 10g of sample was taken in a centrifuge tube and 7 mL phosphate buffer (pH 6.5) was added to it. Then 3 mL aq. EDTA solution (0.1 mol/L and pH 8.0) was added to it (Chen & Schwack, 2013). They were mixed well using vortex mixture followed by the addition of 2 mL 30% trichloroacetic acid for protein precipitation. The mixture was centrifuged at 7000 rpm for 15 min. The supernatant was filtered and defatted

with equal volume of diethyl ether. The upper oily layer was discarded and defatation of bottom layer was further done twice with equal volumes of diethyl ether. It has been found that concentrating the extract made detection easier while performing TLC (Tajick & Shohreh, 2006). So the defatted extract was then concentrated to about 2 mL in a rotary vacuum evaporator at a temp of 50 °C. The concentrate was collected in screw capped tubes and stored in refrigerator until TLC analysis.

Pointing, Running and Detection

A straight line was drawn on EDTA treated TLC plates using a pencil 1.5 cm above the lower end of TLC plate. The line was sufficiently high up the plate so that when it was placed in the solvent, the spotted samples remained above the level of solvent. Then each antibiotic standard solutions and concentrated sample extracts were spotted on the line 1 cm apart by using a micropipette. Proper care was taken to ensure that the spot was as small as possible as and not greater than 2-3 mm in diameter. After spotting, the spots were left to dry properly (Tazrin, 2014). Before placing the spotted TLC plates in TLC tank, 200 mL of mobile phase was poured into TLC tank lined with blotting paper and left for saturation for about an hour. The plates were then immersed carefully in the TLC tank. Before the mobile phase exceeds the upper end of TLC plate, the plates were taken out and solvent front was marked with a pencil. The plates were then left to dry for 30 min at room temperature. The TLC plates were observed under UV light 254 nm in a UV chamber (Ramatla et al., 2017). Dark or blue fluorescent spots seen against the green fluorescent background were circled and retention factor (Rf) values for the spots were calculated (Table 2).

Table 2

R_f Value of Spots Seen on Performing Thin Layer Chromatography of Positive Samples

Sample		Retention factors			
		First run			
Ciprofloxacin				0.36	
Doxycycline		0.17			
Enrofloxacin					0.50
Gentamycin				0.42	
Tetracycline			0.24		
L1	0.06			0.31	
K1		0.09	0.24	0.31	
G1		0.09	0.24	0.31	0.51
L2		0.09		0.31	0.50

M2		0.09		0.24		0.50
K2		0.10		0.24	0.31	0.50
G2		0.09		0.24		0.50
L3	0.06	0.10			0.31	0.51
M3		0.10		0.24		
G4		0.09			0.31	
L5		0.09			0.31	
M5		0.09		0.23		0.50
K5		0.09		0.23	0.31	
G22		0.09	0.17		0.31	

Second run

Ciprofloxacin						0.54
Doxycycline			0.22			
Enrofloxacin						0.62
Gentamycin					0.49	
Tetracycline				0.29		
L6	0.04	0.08	0.22	0.28	0.49	
L7	0.05		0.10	0.22	0.34	
G7			0.10		0.28	
L8			0.11			0.54
K8				0.28		
G8			0.11	0.22		
M9			0.11			
K9			0.12		0.29	
G9			0.11	0.22	0.34	
L10		0.08				
M10		0.08	0.11	0.23	0.35	
G10			0.11	0.22		

Third run

Ciprofloxacin						0.47
Doxycycline		0.16				
Enrofloxacin						0.51
Gentamycin					0.41	
Tetracycline		0.20				
L11	0.07		0.27			
M11	0.07	0.20				
K11	0.07	0.17	0.27	0.41		
L12	0.07	0.20	0.28			
K12	0.07	0.17	0.28			
G12	0.08		0.27			

L13	0.08	0.17	0.28		
K13	0.07	0.20	0.28		0.48
L14	0.07	0.20	0.28		
K14	0.08	0.20			
G14	0.08	0.21			
K15		0.21			0.49
G15	0.08	0.21			
Fourth run					
Ciprofloxacin				0.50	
Doxycycline	0.22				
Enrofloxacin					0.57
Gentamycin				0.45	
Tetracycline		0.26			
L16			0.30		
K16	0.22			0.33	0.50
G16	0.23		0.31		0.50
G17	0.23				
L18				0.34	
K18	0.23			0.34	
G18	0.23		0.30	0.45	0.50
K19					0.50
L20				0.34	0.50
K20	0.23			0.33	0.50
G20	0.23		0.30		0.50
L21			0.31		
K21		0.25		0.33	0.50
L22					0.58

*L, M, K and G represent liver, muscle, kidney and gizzard sample respectively and numbers following the alphabets represent the sample position.

Statistical Analysis

Experimental data were introduced and well tabulated in Microsoft Excel 2016. Results were analyzed statistically for the test of significance using IBM SPSS Statistics 20 (IBM Corp. Released 2011, IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows, Version 20, Armonk, New York USA: IBM Corp). Tests were performed for descriptive statistics using Chi-Square test at 5% level of significance.

Results and Discussion

Education Level of Poultry Farm Owners

Education level of poultry farm owners was found satisfactory. Significantly high ($p < 0.05$) percentage of poultry farm owners reported to have obtained an education up to school level (76%) while 16%, and 8% of farmers had higher level education up to college level, and bachelors level respectively while none have graduated and masters level. According to a report by Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS), Nepal, 84.7%, 10.4%, 3.5% and 1.4% of poultry farmers in Sunsari district had an education level up to school level, certificate level, bachelors level and masters level respectively (CBS, 2015). It was found that there's been a slight increase in level of education of owners. Further survey information on knowledge related to poultry farming and use of antibiotics are shown in Table 3. Central Bureau of Statistics, Nepal has reported that 23% of poultry farm owners in Sunsari district are trained (CBS, 2015). The present study revealed higher percentages of poultry farm owners to have received such trainings at least once. Almost half of the respondents have a general concept regarding withdrawal period and reported to have stopped providing antibiotics to the birds for prophylactic purpose after they were above 30 days old. Almost none of the respondents have knowledge regarding antimicrobial resistance development in microorganisms.

Table 3

Knowledge Levels of Poultry Farm Owners on Several Aspects Related to Poultry Farming and Antibiotic Usage

S.N.	Particulars	Number of respondents (Percentages)
1.	Acquirement of trainings on poultry farming	11 (44)
2.	Knowledge regarding occurrence of antibiotic residues in meat	9 (36)
3.	Knowledge on withdrawal period of antibiotics	13 (52)
4.	Knowledge on maximum residue limit of antibiotics in meat	5 (20)
5.	Knowledge on antimicrobial resistance in microorganisms	1 (4)

Antibiotics Usage in Poultry Farms

The percentage of poultry farms that reported the use of different antibiotics is shown in Table 4. It was found that the most common groups of antibiotics

to be used are tetracyclines (doxycycline, tetracycline), followed by quinolones (ciprofloxacin, enrofloxacin, levofloxacin), β -Lactams (amoxicillin), sulfonamides (sulfamethoxazole), aminoglycosides (neomycin) and macrolides (tylosin).

Table 4

Antibiotics Usage in Poultry Farms

Antibiotics	% of poultry farms	Antibiotics	% of poultry farms
Ciprofloxacin	16	Tylosin	24
Doxycycline	60	Sulphamethoxazole	16
Enrofloxacin	28	Trimethoprim	16
Levofloxacin	36	Colistin	20
Tetracycline	44	Neomycin	36
Amoxicillin	36		

Poultry Diseases

According to veterinary doctors working in Dharan, the common poultry diseases in Dharan are chronic respiratory disease (CRD), E. coli infections, coccidiosis and fowlpox. They also mentioned that enrofloxacin, ciprofloxacin, levofloxacin and tylosin are prescribed in case of CRD, tetracycline groups such as chlortetracycline against fowlpox, amoxicillin, levofloxacin and colistin against E. coli infections and amoxicillin against coccidiosis. A report back in 2015 mentioned colibacillosis, CRD and coccidiosis as some major poultry diseases diagnosed at Regional Veterinary Laboratory, Biratnagar and Regional Veterinary Laboratory, Janakpur (GARP-Nepal, 2015).

Suitable Solvent System for TLC

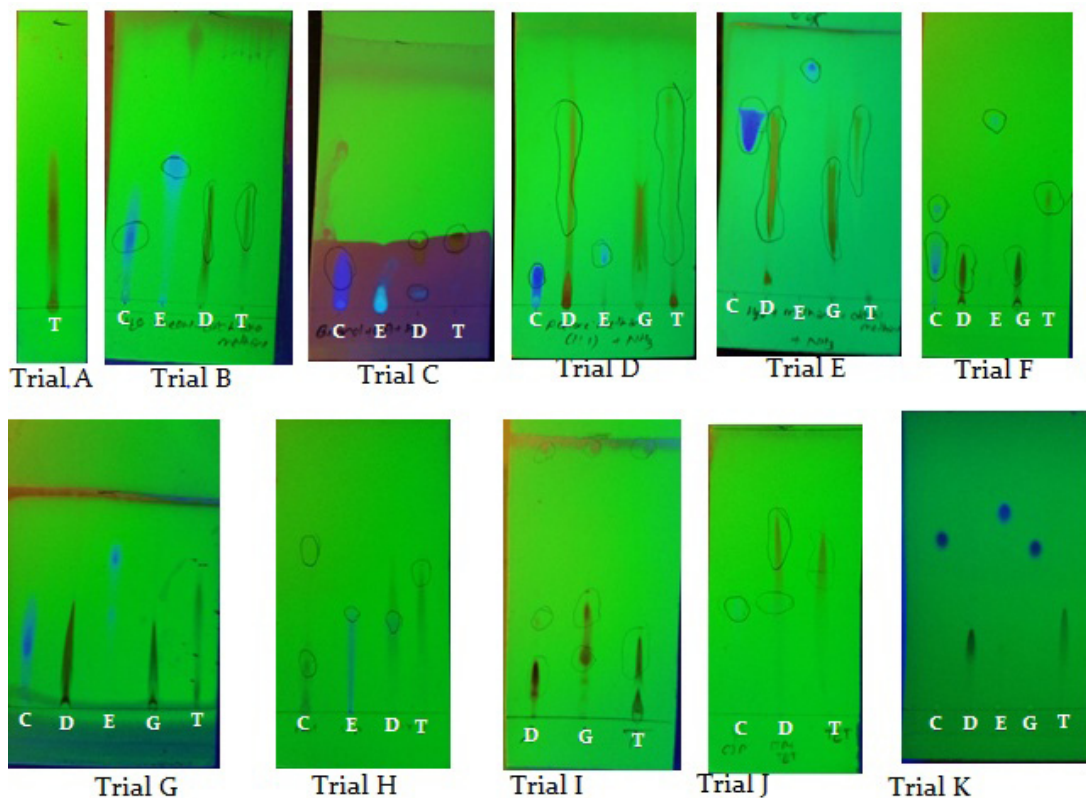
Almost all of the works regarding detection of antibiotic residues in meat tissues using TLC have been performed using acetone: methanol (1:1) as the mobile phase (Ramatla et al., 2017; Sarker et al., 2018). But it couldn't be implied in this study due to very unsatisfactory results and thus a number of solvent systems were tested to determine the best one. Among different types of solvent systems and TLC plate pretreatments used (Table 1), trial K was found to be the optimum solvent system for TLC analysis of the test antibiotics, (Fig. 1) in this study. One of the major problems encountered during TLC was excessive tailing of doxycycline and tetracycline antibiotics even though very small concentration of these antibiotic standards (as small as 0.1mg/ml) was spotted on the plates. Such tailing was

observed in trials A and B for all of the antibiotics tested. In order to minimize the problem, mobile phases added with a few amount of liquid ammonia were tried as in trials D, E and F. But no any significant improvement was observed. Oka et al.(1983) described n-butanol as a suitable developing solvent for TLC of tetracycline and thus trial C containing greater fractions of n-butanol was tested. But very unsatisfactory results were obtained that covered the entire TLC plate with a dark patch when visualized under UV light. The reason for this couldn't be explained. The possibility is that some form of interaction might have taken place between the fluorescent material of the TLC plate and the component of solvent system used.

Chen and Schwack (2013) reported that the analytes (especially tetracyclines) displayed a strong tendency to form chelate complexes with alkaline earth and transition metal ions present in the silica plate, leading to serious tailing effects. So trials G, H, I and J were conducted which involved predevelopment of TLC plates in saturated Na_2EDTA solution prior to running the antibiotic standards. This technique was found to improve the results to some extent but still the results were not satisfactory as the antibiotic standards incurred similar retention factors. Finally, trial K was found to be the most satisfactory one with better resolution of the spots as well as minimum occurrence of tailing effect. Another major problem encountered during TLC analysis was the occurrence of a dark band on the TLC plate just below the solvent front after the solvent was run through the plate. It was initially suspected to be because of the impurities that may have been present in the solvent. But even on running distilled water through the plate, the dark band was formed. It indicated that the band might have been formed due to impurities in the TLC plate itself. So to avoid the band, the plates were first pre-developed in methanol. So, predevelopment of silica plates in aq. Na_2EDTA solution (100 g/L conc. and pH 8) and drying the plates at $120^\circ\text{C}/1\text{ hr}$ followed by the use of Chloroform: methanol: 25% NH_4OH (60:35:5) as mobile phase was finally found to alleviate the problem.

Figure 1

TLC plates for different mobile phases with antibiotics (Preliminary trials for selecting mobile phase: The denotations C, D, E, G and T represent spotted points for ciprofloxacin, doxycycline, enrofloxacin, gentamycin and tetracycline respectively)



Detection of Antibiotic Residues

On TLC of meat samples, 9%, 17%, 8%, 3% and 21% of samples were detected with ciprofloxacin, doxycycline, enrofloxacin, gentamycin and tetracycline residues respectively. Prevalence of different antibiotics in the meat samples was found to differ significantly ($p < 0.05$). Tetracycline and doxycycline were found to be the most common antibiotics detected followed by ciprofloxacin and enrofloxacin. The results obtained are also justified by the survey report in which tetracycline and doxycycline are found to be the most commonly used antibiotics. Such a high incidence of tetracycline and doxycycline residues in meat can also be attributed to their usage in poultry feed. Previous study has shown doxycycline, chlortetracycline and tetracycline as the major antibiotics added to the feed and they are each added at the rate of 500g to 1kg per ton of feed during feed preparation (Ramdam, 2015).

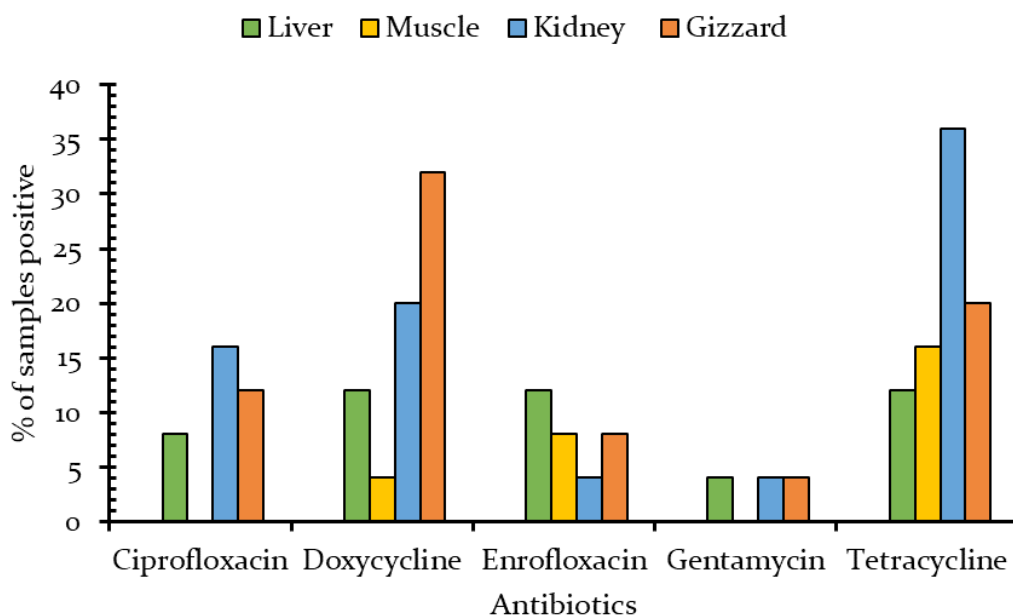
Ciprofloxacin Residues

According to our findings, ciprofloxacin was detected in 9% of the samples. A study back in 2018 found higher occurrence of ciprofloxacin residues (15.21%) in broiler meat from Kathmandu, Kaski and Chitwan (Prajapati et al., 2018). Similarly, residues of ciprofloxacin have been detected in varying percentage of chicken meat

samples, 44.37% of samples in Bangladesh (Sarker et al., 2018), 40.7% of samples in Bangladesh (Sattar et al., 2014), 21.4% of samples in South Africa (Ramatla et al., 2017) and 3% of samples collected from Bangladesh (Tazrin, 2014). Although no significant difference ($p>0.05$) in occurrence of ciprofloxacin among different tissues was observed, highest incidence was found in kidneys (16%) followed by gizzard (12%), liver (8%) and nil in breast muscles (Figure 2). Analogous results have been reported in Bangladesh where maximum occurrence of ciprofloxacin was found in broiler kidneys (48.57%) followed by liver (42.85%) and breast muscles (31.42%) (Sattar et al., 2014). Similarly, another study from Bangladesh also reported 52% liver samples and 39% breast meat samples to contain ciprofloxacin residues (Sarker et al., 2018). Kidney is the most important organ for excretion of antibiotics (Ezenduka, 2019), due to which it has relatively higher prevalence of ciprofloxacin residues.

Figure 2

Prevalence of Antibiotics in Different Tissues on TLC Analysis



Doxycycline Residues

Residues of doxycycline were detected in 17% of the samples inspected. Prevalence of doxycycline as high as 32.3% was reported in chicken meat of Bangladesh (Sarker et al., 2018).

Occurrence of doxycycline residues in gizzard and breast muscles was found to differ significantly ($p < 0.05$). In contrast to other antibiotics, doxycycline was found to be the most prevalent in gizzard samples (32%) followed by kidney (20%), liver (12%) and breast muscles (4%) which is presented in Fig. 2. In a study regarding tissue depletion of doxycycline administered orally at high dosage to broiler chickens via drinking water, it was found that doxycycline concentrations are higher in gizzard followed by kidney, liver and breast muscles after the third day of administration. But on the fifth day, the concentrations in gizzard depleted at a higher rate than in kidney and liver (Hsiao et al., 2016). It may be because of 5 to 10 times higher lipophilicity of doxycycline, resulting in higher tissue penetration, larger volume of distribution and longer elimination times (Papich & Riviere, 2017). Our results suggest that doxycycline in fed to the birds even till the day of selling the birds and no withdrawal times are followed.

Residues of Enrofloxacin

Residues of enrofloxacin were found in 8% of the collected broiler meat samples. Our findings were much smaller than the findings in Bangladesh where 26.8% (Sarker et al., 2018), and 27.85% (Sattar et al., 2014) of the samples were detected with enrofloxacin residues. Similarly, enrofloxacin residues have been detected in 2.5% samples collected from Bangladesh (Tazrin, 2014). Occurrence of enrofloxacin among different tissues was not found to differ significantly ($p > 0.05$). Highest occurrence of enrofloxacin was found in liver (12%) followed by breast muscles (8%), gizzard (8%) and 4% in kidney (Figure 2). Highest occurrence of enrofloxacin in liver among liver, kidney and breast muscle samples have also been reported in samples collected from Bangladesh (Sattar et al., 2014). Similar values of enrofloxacin residues in breast muscles (8.7%) was found in samples collected from Kathmandu, Kaski and Chitwan (Prajapati et al., 2018). In contrast to other antibiotics, least number of kidney samples were detected with enrofloxacin residues. Higher prevalence of enrofloxacin residues in chicken liver than in kidney samples was also reported in another study from Bangladesh (Islam et al., 2016).

Residues of Gentamycin

Gentamycin residues were detected in the least number of samples (3%). None of the chicken meat samples collected from Iraq were found to contain gentamycin residues (Shareef et al., 2009). Occurrence of gentamycin residues in different tissues was not found to differ significantly ($p > 0.05$). 4% of each of liver, kidney and gizzard samples was found to contain gentamycin residues whereas no residues of gentamycin were detected in breast meat samples (Figure 2).

Residues of Tetracycline

Tetracycline was found to be the most prevalent antibiotic in poultry meat of Dharan and was found in 21% of the meat samples. Other studies have also shown occurrence of tetracycline in 30% samples (Sattar et al., 2014) and 11.83% samples (Hossain, 2010) from Bangladesh and in 14.6% samples from South Africa (Ramatla et al., 2017). Using rapid test kits, tetracycline residues were detected in 33.33% samples collected from Kathmandu valley (Prajapati et al., 2018) and in 29.09% of chicken meat samples from Kavre and Kailali (Raut et al., 2017). Among different tissues, tetracycline residues were the most prevalent in kidney samples (36%), followed by gizzard (20%), breast muscles (16%) and 12 % in liver (Fig. 2). Occurrence of tetracycline residues between liver and kidney was found to differ significantly ($p < 0.05$). Tetracycline residues were detected in 48% livers, 24% kidneys and 24% breast muscles collected from Bangladesh (Sattar et al., 2014). Using rapid test kit, tetracycline residues were detected in 40% liver and 10.66% muscle samples from Kathmandu valley (Maharjan et al., 2020). Kidney is the most important organ for excretion of antibiotics (Ezenduka, 2019) which may be the reason for higher prevalence of tetracyclines in kidneys.

Conclusion

This study aimed at assessing the prevalence of antibiotic residues in poultry meat sold in Dharan. Although the education level of farmers was satisfactory, knowledge regarding safety aspects of antibiotic usage such as prevalence of drug residues in meat and occurrence of antimicrobial resistance in microorganisms was found to be still insufficient. Tetracycline and quinolones group of antibiotics were the most commonly used ones. On TLC analysis, tetracycline and doxycycline were the highest detected antibiotics. Almost all of the samples were found to contain multiple drug residues. The highest prevalence of tetracycline and ciprofloxacin was detected in kidneys whereas highest number of gizzard samples contained doxycycline residues. Occurrence of antibiotic residues in such a large number of samples indicates that farmers are not using these antibiotics sedulously. Such malpractice may not only affect the birds but also affect the consumers as it enters the food chain. Antibiotics have become an inevitable part of modern poultry farming and the only way out is to use them wisely. Concerned authorities should also encourage farmers to lessen the use of such antibiotics and should routinely monitor the meat sold in market to ensure consumer safety.

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Exploring Mentoring Practice for In-service Teachers' Professional Development

Gyanu Dahal

Department of Applied Linguistics, The University of Warwick, UK

Corresponding Author: Gyanu Dahal; Email: Gyanu.Dahal@warwick.ac.uk
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Abstract

This study explores how untrained and trained mentors practise mentoring with their mentees and how trained mentors make mentoring practice effective. This study also exhibits the value of teachers' professional development (TPD) to update teachers' knowledge and skills. Mentoring is one of the key components of TPD that helps teachers continuously update and upgrade their performance. However, in the Nepalese context, mentoring is taken as an evaluation or judgement. A review of the literature examines mentoring practice by a trained mentor useful for teachers in their professional development. It enables mentee teachers to reflect on their practice. The mentee teacher receives support and feedback from their mentor that helps them to develop meaningful learning experiences. I used a qualitative case study design to study the impact of mentoring practice by trained mentors on the professional development of English language teachers in Nepal. The data drawn from teachers' reflective journals, semi-structured interviews and mentoring sessions' notes were collected data and triangulated to produce fair results. The results indicated that for effective mentoring practice, mentors should be trained before practising mentoring for teachers' professional development.

Keywords: Teacher education, mentoring, training, reflection, feedback

Introduction

Teachers are required to continuously upgrade their knowledge, skills and attitudes to address 21st-century learners' needs. Professional development is an integral component for upgrading and updating their knowledge, skills and attitudes.

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It is considered an essential element because it enhances teaching and upgrades students' learning experiences and outcomes (Al Asmari, 2016). It can occur in formal or informal settings (Postholm, 2012). Continuous professional development can take various forms: reflective practice, peer coaching, cooperative development and mentoring. This article discusses mentoring practice as an important strategy for teachers' continuous professional development. Mentoring practice is applicable and beneficial to all teachers at any stage of their teaching careers who are determined and committed to their professional development.

Mentoring is a “well-established concept” and a “common practice in education systems across the world” (Smith, 2021, p.3). However, it is still a new concept for ELT practitioners in Nepal (Baral, 2015; Yadav, 2017). They comprehend mentoring as a process in which an experienced teacher guides a less experienced teacher. It has not yet been practised formally. Therefore, some experienced teachers and principals become mentors in some schools and support novice teachers (Yadav, 2017; Bhattarai, 2012) without attending mentoring training. They are not well-trained mentors even though they observe teachers' classes and provide feedback (Yadav, 2017). Mentors are “mainly secondary school teachers” with some teacher training experience in Nepal (Smith, 2021, p.4). It is difficult to find qualified and experienced mentors who can successfully guide teachers (Yadav, 2017). So, they seem unskillful and face many challenges while mentoring teachers.

Despite many advantages of mentoring practice for the professional development of the mentor and mentees (Smith & Lewis, 2017), mentors are thrown into mentoring practice with little or no preparation (Ducharme & Ducharme, 1996; Murray & Male, 2005, as cited in Gakonga & Mann, 2022). So in many contexts, mentoring practices became a failure because untrained mentors cannot establish good and trustworthy relationships with mentees. That arises many issues such as judgementing (Hobson & Malderez, 2013) and mentoring practices lead to frustration for both mentors and mentees (Gakonga & Mann, 2022). The purpose of this study is to explore how untrained and trained mentors practise mentoring with their mentee teachers. The research questions of this study were as follows:

1. How does a trained mentor make mentoring practice effective for teachers' professional development (TPD)?
2. What differences did the mentor experience before and after being a trained mentor for effective mentoring practice?

Literature Review

Teaching is a challenging job for teachers in their early careers. They face many challenges during this time. They need to cope with the new environment of the schools and also deal with new students and their parents (Yadav, 2017). They need an experienced teacher as a mentor who can guide them to adjust to that new environment and duties. The mentor is the more experienced or knowledgeable professional in the field who can provide the support needed to cope with the environment (Panday, 2014; Gakonga, 2019).

However, teaching is challenging for in-service teachers too (Smith & Lewis, 2017). They become dissatisfied after working for some years. They think they are overloaded so they hardly prepare a lesson plan and design any materials. They simply go to the classroom, deliver content, give assignments and check them. They do not reflect on what they did well and what they did not. In this situation, a mentor plays the role of an observer and makes them reflect on their behaviour (Yadav, 2017). Then, the mentees can reflect on their classroom issues to the mentor without hesitation. Although, mentoring is a reciprocal process, it was traditionally conducted as a top-down approach (Orland-Barak, 2012, as cited in Gakonga, 2019). Therefore, mentoring can be a better option for the professional development of teachers in Nepal if the mentors are trained before practising mentoring.

Defining Mentoring and Mentor's Roles and Traits

Mentoring is “a one-to-one relationship” between a less experienced and an experienced teacher aiming to support the less experienced one in their professional growth and development (Hobson, 2016, p.4). In this relationship, the more skilled and experienced teacher demonstrates, acts as a sponsor, inspires, and gives pieces of advice to the less skilled and less experienced teacher. The overall purpose of this relationship is to focus on a developmental activity in which mentors may adopt different supportive roles to empower mentees and support their professional learning and well-being (Hobson & Malderez, 2013).

A mentor plays an active and effective role in the development of a mentee. For the growth and development of the mentee, the mentor plays the role of a model, acculturator, sponsor, supporter, and educator (Malderez & Bodoczky, 1999), advisor, coach, and supervisor (Smith & Lewis, 2017), an agent or a force for change (Gakonga & Mann, 2022). The mentor inspires and demonstrates his/her pedagogical knowledge and skill to the mentees. The mentor also provides a clear understanding of the education system by introducing the mentee to the right people. He/She uses his/her power and expertise to open the doors for the mentee's professional practice. The mentor also creates appropriate opportunities for the mentee to achieve

professional learning objectives providing a safe environment to release their mentees' emotions.

A mentor should be equipped with some positive personality traits to perform the above-mentioned roles. Long (1997) suggests that the mentor needs to develop certain personality traits and skills like communication, reflection, observation, feedback, conflict resolution, team leadership, and evaluation. Other researchers list some personal qualities of the mentor such as the mentor should be friendly, enthusiastic, trustworthy, open, patient, understanding, approachable, encouraging, and supportive (e.g. Hobson & Malderez, 2013).

Mentoring Issues in Nepal

The first challenge is the newness of the concept of mentoring in Nepal (Yadav, 2017). Mentoring has not received appropriate attention from stakeholders even though they have acknowledged its importance in teacher education and development (Pahadi, 2016). It is still a fuzzy concept to ELT practitioners and consequently, mentors are unaware of their identity and roles.

The second challenge is the over-dependence of mentee teachers on mentors for solutions to all their classroom teaching problems (Panday, 2014). They believe mentors are there to solve their issues both within and outside the classroom (Baral, 2015). They expect mentors to provide them with teaching tips to make their lesson plan effective and successful (Gakonga, 2019). They expect prompt answers from mentors rather than reflecting on their practices during the mentoring process and coming up with effective solutions.

The third challenge to mentoring is mentors received no preparation for their role (Okan & Yıldırım, 2004). There is no formal mentoring programme or course to prepare mentors for their roles (Baral, 2015; Pahadi, 2016; Panday, 2014). Informally experienced teachers or principals themselves become mentors for novice teachers. Therefore, they assume this responsibility without mastering the qualities and attitudes that go with effective mentoring. While observing mentees' classes, they as Hobson and Malderez point out "reveal too readily and/ or too often their planning and/or teaching" (2013, p.95). They sometimes lack empathy and become more evaluative which is termed judgementing (ibid.).

The fourth challenge to mentoring is mentors play a supervisory role which creates a hierarchy and a power relationship between mentees and mentors in Nepal (Bhattra, 2012). In that case, mentors try to act informally to create a comfortable environment. They seem more powerful because of their greater experience and administrative role (Gakonga, 2019). This is also because of the lack of a clear concept of mentoring (Pahadi, 2016).

The fifth challenge to mentoring is since it is still not formally practised in Nepal, ELT practitioners misapprehend supervisors or observers as mentors. Usually, in post-observation feedback, people who act as mentors bring a long list of negative feedback and the feedback session is dominated or led by them (Yadav, 2017). They observe classes for evaluation or grade so they do not give enough time for mentees' reflection.

The sixth challenge to mentoring is mentees sometimes have a negative attitude towards mentors and mentoring process (Smith & Lewis, 2017) so they become reluctant to change and learn. Some of the reasons behind mentees' negative attitudes toward mentoring are that mentee teachers feel like they acquired enough knowledge and skills needed for teaching while pursuing their degrees. They are busy and have heavy workloads so they do not want any disruption of their work by anyone. They seem highly confident in their abilities even though they are lacking skills in their performance. In the same way, they also feel mentoring is an unnecessary extra burden to them (Smith & Lewis, 2017) which demotivates them to be mentored.

Theoretical Framework

Mentoring practices are grounded in Vygotskian sociocultural theory (Vygotsky, 1978) which argues that human learning is embedded in social interaction. According to the Vygotskian approach, learning is a socially constructed and socially mediated process that develops through interaction (2012). Like the Vygotskian perspective, in mentoring practice, mentors and mentees interact and learn from each-others. They develop their understanding and skills through interaction in mentoring sessions. In these interactive sessions, Langdon and Ward (2014) advocate that “mentors and mentees should have a reciprocal relationship and both should get benefited from the exchange of ideas” (p.39).

Methods and Procedures

This research study is envisaged within a qualitative research method to allow researchers to understand the effectiveness of mentoring practice for TPD from the perceptions of the participants (Lankshear & Knobel, 2004). After reviewing the related literature and considering the purpose of this study, I found a qualitative case study design appropriate as it enables a researcher to explore or describe a phenomenon in context using a variety of data sources. A case study is an in-depth exploration from multiple perspectives of the complexity and uniqueness of a project in a real-life context and it is an evidence-led research method (Simons, 2014).

As a trained and experienced mentor, I intended to explore more about the effectiveness of mentoring practice by a trained mentor. I selected three teachers as research participants who were interested to take part in this small-scale study. They gave their consent to participate in three months long programme and got ready to engage. The teachers were from the same school so they could visit each other's classes and spend time in reflection and mentoring sessions. I, as a researcher, worked online with them so sometimes they recorded their mentoring sessions and sent me to watch and sometimes I attended them virtually.

Through this study, I planned to explore participants' thoughts, perceptions and feeling about mentoring practice for TPD before and after attending mentoring training. This study focused on conversation and participants' reflections on mentoring practice so the study was qualitative as qualitative methods are selected to deeply understand what participant considers about the topic. Richards (2003) states that a qualitative study narrows down the circumstances and concludes with clarification. I focused on the detailed exploration of the experiences and perspectives of the participant mentor on the effectiveness of mentoring practice for professional development before and after being trained mentor so this study is a qualitative case study.

I planned to collect data from two different perspectives. According to the plan at first, a teacher (a mentor) was selected to mentor a teacher (a mentee) without any preparation and training. The mentor teacher mentored the mentee teacher three times and the researcher collected their perception and experience of mentoring practice through their mentoring session, reflective journal and semi-structured interview. After a few week intervals, the same mentor teacher was trained to be a mentor. He was trained for five days informally. The topic discussed in the training sessions were:

Session 1: Teacher education, mentoring concept, discussion on reflection and giving feedback

Session 2: Mentoring skill development activities (e.g. I am the person who...., Mirrors....)

Session 3: Dealing with challenge activities (e.g. Butterflies...., We listen to.....)

Session 4: Developing empathy activity (e.g. I statement..., Paraphrasing.....)

Session 5: Assessing teaching not being a judge or evaluator, negotiating evaluation
(Adapted from Malderez & Bodoczky, 1999)

After attending five days of mentoring training, the mentor mentored another mentee teacher three times. After that again I collected data from their mentoring sessions, reflective journal and semi-structured interview.

In this article, I wished to compare the effectiveness of mentoring practices with an untrained mentor and mentee and a trained mentor and mentee with the help of those teacher participants. That's why I used the content analysis method to analyse the mentoring sessions before and after mentoring training. The content analysis method, as Babbie (2001) highlights, helps to develop codes by looking at the data recorded in human communication and drawing conclusions looking at the codes. Ryan and Bernard (2000) claim that coding is the heart and soul of text analysis which forces the researchers to evaluate the coded block to develop themes. I used thematic analysis to analyze the meaning of codes. Boyatzis (1998) defines thematic analysis, as a way of seeing and making sense of the collected data. It helps the researcher to identify and analyze the meaning of the data. The goal of thematic analysis is to develop a story from the codes.

Results

The primary purpose of this research was to find out the effectiveness of mentoring practice with a trained mentor. This study also focused on how the trained mentor can make the mentoring practice more effective. This study also investigated the factors the trained mentor considers during mentoring sessions. The researcher collected the mentoring session notes, participants' reflective journals and interview notes as research data. The data collected from the mentor and mentees were analyzed and interpreted to explore the differences the mentor experienced before and after being a trained mentor for effective mentoring practice for in-service teachers' professional development. I grouped the data into the thematic ground and analysed and interpreted in detail to meet the purpose of the study close to my research questions.

Mentoring Experience of the Mentor before Training

As mentioned in the interview, the mentor's experience with mentoring practice was similar to that of other mentors in Nepal who teach secondary-level students and have some years of teaching and teacher training experience (Smith, 2021). After he was assigned as a mentor, he observed mentees' classes and provided some feedback after observation. However, he was not trained on how to provide oral or written feedback. There were no pre-mentoring discussions or pre-observation discussions between the mentor and mentees. He observed classes, pointed out mistakes, and told the mentee how to improve. He thought he should be critical and

straightforward by pointing out the mentee's mistakes because, in his opinion, that was the ideal way to improve. He had a judgmental attitude (Gakonga, 2019) looking for weaknesses in the mentee's performance so that he could make suggestions on how to improve them. He mainly focused on what the mentee did wrong than what the mentee did well. Here are some extracts from the mentoring sessions.

The mentor observed the mentee's class the second time when he found a similar mistake the mentee had performed he got rude to him. He thought he had commented on those things to improve in the previous mentoring session.

Extract 1

Mentor: I found that you don't listen to me. You are doing the same mistakes. Still, I could find the same issues there. Didn't you notice that when you used the same sentence?

In this extract, when the mentor found the mentee had used long sentences in his presentation, the mentor pointed out that very straightforward and proposed to the mentee not to repeat it in the coming days. He sounded rude to the mentee while asking questions. When the mentor was justifying the reason the mentor intervened in the middle and started blaming the mentee "you didn't listen to my suggestions" which was face-threatening to the mentee (Hobson & Malderez, 2013). The mentor seemed ignorant about the negative impact on the mentee's well-being by his face-threatening comment. The conversation was led by the mentor and he was focused on providing direct suggestions for the mentee's improvement. The mentor was not considerate of his act which may lead the mentee to feel unsafe, distrustful, and reluctant to be open with him about the mentee's professional learning and development needs. The mentor was not aware of the fact that such utterance may damage the mentee's self-esteem which may cause anxiety and stress for him (Maguire, 2001, as cited in Hobson & Malderez, 2013).

Likewise, during the mentoring session, the mentor started lecturing the mentee on ideas to overcome the mentee's issues. The mentee has just opened up about the classroom issue he was facing, the mentor started sharing his experience and told the mentee to follow his ideas.

Extract 2

Mentor: By listening to you I came to know that you will try to encourage the students to speak about the topic you assigned, but they do not keep on talking or speaking. Yeah. So, by looking at the situation I would like to give you my example of whatever I used to do or whatever I do in that situation like in the classroom forty-five or fifty students will be there in my class. So,

every day in every class, I separate five to ten minutes for speaking. Okay, they speak for five to 10 minutes, whether it is for discussion or conversation or while the topic of the discussion may be textbook or based on out-of-text topics any way every day, okay, it's not for one day, two days within classes every day. As there I try to integrate all the skills in the same classroom like listening, speaking, reading, writing and grammar sometimes so while integrating all this five to 10 minutes for speaking. Okay. So in this way, I do and then I roam around the class and try to see everyone every individual student whether they are talking or not. Why don't you try this idea? Can't it be done in your class?

Mentee: Yeah, it can be done.

In extract 2, the mentor led the conversation by giving direct suggestions. When I analyzed their conversation (Copland, 2012), I realised that instead of listening to the ideas of the mentee, the mentor was occupying most of the space of the conversation for giving advice for improvement. The mentor presented himself in that way because of our culture and belief system. He mentioned in his reflective journal that he believed giving direct suggestions to the mentee was not bad. In this extract, the mentee was asking the mentor 'what can I do when my students do not participate in speaking activity actively' then instead of scaffolding answers from the mentee, the mentor started giving directions on things to do (Van de Pol et al., 2010). He dominated the conversation and did not listen to the ideas of the mentee carefully (Gakonga & Mann, 2022).

In addition, the mentoring session mostly seemed rushed. The mentor directly started giving feedback instead of making the mentee feel relaxed and reflective before the mentoring session.

Extract 3

Mentor: Last time in our discussion we were talking about putting pictures on each slide to attract the attention of participants and you agreed about that but today still I could see no pictures, and then you were breathlessly you were speaking right. For the participants, it was very hard to understand what you were saying and what you were focusing on I found that right. So what is your plan that from next time? What do you do? You will have the same problem?

In extract 3, the mentor seemed unnecessarily directive to provide feedback to the mentee (Hobson & Malderez, 2013). It might be because the mentor had a lack of time and resources as he had to teach four or five classes a day and he couldn't spend

much time with the mentee. He seemed unaware of the fact that providing effective and genuine emotional support is time-consuming and mentoring cannot be done in a short period (Malderez & Bodoczky, 1999). He was not giving sufficient time and autonomy for the mentee to think and rethink his action.

The mentor mentioned in his reflective journal that due to the heavy workload, he got fewer opportunities to practise mentoring. He became directive in mentoring sessions because he thought if he talked all the time during the mentoring session, then he would finish the session in a short time. Although he was interested in mentoring, he perceived it as an additional duty as there was no extra remuneration for mentoring teachers (Walkington, 2005).

Mentoring Experience of the Mentor after Attending Training

The training session was one to one informal session between the researcher and the mentor. During the training sessions, the mentor was trained about some important topics related to mentoring practice. The mentor in his reflective journal mentioned that the training session positively impacted his belief and understanding of mentoring. He learned mentoring should be non-judgmental, non-directive, developmental and growth-oriented. As Hobson (2016) highlights, mentoring should be offline, non-hierarchical, non-evaluative, supportive, individualized, developmental and empowering. Here are some extracts from the mentor's current mentoring experience.

The mentor reported in his journal that as a mentor he discovered himself transformed in his roles and attributes. He started mentoring sessions focusing on his mentees' development and growth. He seemed a good listener, enthusiastic, patient, encouraging, and supportive (e.g. Hobson & Malderez, 2013) during mentoring sessions. For example, in the mentoring session below, the mentor was highlighting the positive things about the mentee's presentation which made the mentee enthusiastic and empowered.

Extract 4

Mentor: So I observed your class yesterday. It was so wonderful. I found that it was very nice, you could manage your time. The first and foremost thing I'd like to highlight here is you could manage time within that 15 minutes you could be able to share so many things in an effective way and then I felt so proud by looking at you and it's a kind of sense of achievement for me.

In extract 4, after watching the mentee's class presentation the mentor provided feedback with some praiseworthy notes. The mentor appeared in such a way that he wanted the mentee to be motivated towards further improvement in his performance.

The mentor expressed his happiness in the interview stating “how happy I was when I saw my mentee improving in a short time”. The mentee teacher in his reflective journal mentioned that “whenever I listen to my mentor and his supportive and caring words I feel very motivated and encouraged.” It showed the mentor could be able to create safe, trustworthy relationships with the mentee.

During the mentoring session, the mentor seemed to make the mentee feel happy and relaxed by providing emotional support (Gakonga, 2019). He started giving enough time to the mentee to share and reflect on anything the mentee wished.

Extract 5

Mentee: (laughing)

Mentor: So, what do you think about that, how you planned and then it went well, from your perspective?

Mentee: Oh, yeah. First of all, thanks for your kind appreciation of my presentation. And the credit goes to you honestly speaking, uh because you have supported me in many ways either in mentoring. We discussed looking for the free template in google and I did it and found those effective templates which made my presentation slides interesting. Now, I am very happy as I was not thinking my presentation would be that effective as when I asked the students about the presentation they told me that it was really good and they were happy reading the slides and learning the information.

In extract 5, the mentor tried to provide enough space for the mentee to share his reflection about his classroom experience so he shared everything in detail. By listening to the mentee actively, the mentor presented himself as supportive to him which seemed to encourage the mentee’s autonomy and motivation, as Gakonga (2019) mentions, mentors provide emotional support, technical support, and support with reflection to the mentees. The mentor presented himself as a co-thinker (Feiman-Nemser, 2001, as cited in Gakonga, 2019), a friend and provides space for reflective practice. The mentor mentioned in his reflective journal that he realized using a dialogic approach (Gakonga & Mann, 2022) to provide feedback can encourage and deepen the mentee’s reflective practice.

The mentor seemed to focus on dialogic mentoring sessions as he stated in the interview that dialogic mentoring session support mentees’ reflective practice (Mann & Walsh, 2015) that will encourage them to find their areas for improvement.

Extract 6

Mentee: Oh! Yeah (laughing)

Mentor: And the most important thing, which, which is most impressive I have found is the examples.

Mentee: Yeah!

Mentor: The thing which you have done, you have presented, so it was really nice.

Mentee: Yeah, they were relevant. Yeah. And I think they were much supportive to prove that, yes, I had some other examples too.

The mentor perceived classroom observation as a way of supporting the mentees' continuous professional development by appreciating and highlighting their achievements. For that, he mentioned that he developed the skill of encouraging the mentee to reflect more during mentoring sessions. As he has reported in his reflective journal, he improved his developmental and growth-oriented attitude (Hobson, 2016). Therefore, during a mentoring session, he seemed to encourage the mentee to reflect and come up with ideas to address the things he needed to improve.

The mentor mentioned in the interview that he learned negative feedback demotivates the mentees and suppresses their creativity and ideas (Gakonga, 2019). The mentee also stated in the interview that "if I am suppressed or dominated by my mentor, I would not digest that. I think I will quit I will not think of doing that again." It demonstrates that the mentor should be careful during mentoring practice. To enable the mentee to reflect constructively, the mentor should start providing feedback positively using encouraging words.

Discussion

From the finding, I discovered that the teaching job is equally stressful for in-service teachers. Therefore, a trained mentor should be provided to the teachers for their emotional support, technical support and support with reflection (Gakonga, 2019). I also found the participants agreed with Gakonga (2019) and stated mentors should be trained and skilful to conduct effective mentoring sessions. It seemed that mentors should have positive personality traits like friendliness, enthusiasm, trustworthiness, openness, patience, encouragement and support (Hobson & Malderez, 2013; Long 1997). The participants asserted that these qualities can be developed by mentoring training. According to them, trained mentors can make mentoring practice more effective because the training helps the mentors to develop their mentoring roles, skills and attitudes. As has been mentioned in the analysis part, training enhances the mentor's qualities and skills which improve the mentee teachers' attitudes, values and skills. Such improved attitudes, values and skills help

the mentees to feel refreshed and motivated and planned for better performance (Tinoco-Giraldo et al., 2020).

The data contribute to a clear understanding that in the Nepalese context, mentoring is one of the best tools for teachers' professional and personal development (Bhattra, 2012; Panday, 2014; Yadav, 2017). Mentoring develops educators together as they share what they notice, think, experience, and their expertise in related topics therefore mentoring is beneficial for all who involve in this relationship (Smith & Lewis, 2017). For mentees, it provides an opportunity to improve classroom performance and develop learners' experience because mentees can perceive a clear picture of their classroom activities and behaviour through mentoring. It supports finding out their strength and weakness in ELT areas. Mentoring supports professional learning and development for mentees which enhances mentees' capabilities to manage classroom, time, and workload. It also improves self-reflection and problem-solving capacities which leads them to be confident and have job satisfaction (Hobson & Malderez, 2013).

Likewise, for mentors mentoring helps to identify their strengths and weaknesses while analyzing and listening to mentees. It benefits their professional development as ELT professionals (Smith, 2021). The mentor will get a new identity through mentoring. It assists in developing decision-making, problem-solving, and leadership skills for the mentor (Pandey, 2009, as cited in Bhattra, 2012). Moreover, mentoring helps to build strong relationships between teachers and their classroom goals. Mentoring supports teachers to deepen their pedagogical knowledge and extend their expertise in the ELT field. Mentoring provides depth insights into teaching staff and areas for their improvement (Smith, 2021). It assists to develop teachers' expertise which builds the reputation of the institution.

For the overall development of the ELT, mentors should be prepared. Before assigning any teachers or supervisors to be a mentor for novice teachers or in-service teachers' professional development, they should be prepared. Every experienced teacher may not perform the role of mentor as it demands (Gakonga, 2019). Mentors should be good at mentoring as mentors are often expected to master the mentoring process (Malderez & Bodoczky, 1999). Therefore, the preparation of competent mentors is an important aspect of running quality mentoring programs (Tang & Choi, 2005).

Based on my own experience and this research study, I would like to highlight some areas for mentor preparation. At first, mentor selection and training schemes should be proper and systematic (Hudson & Hudson, 2010). Secondly, mentors should be well-trained for giving oral or written feedback after classroom observation (Malderez & Bodoczky, 1999). Thirdly, mentors should develop sound

pedagogical knowledge and new trends of techniques, methods, and approaches to ELT. Overall, mentors' attitudes and personal attributes should be positive to build trust, enthusiasm, and confidence in mentees (Orsdemir, & Yildirim, 2020).

Conclusion

In Nepal mentoring is recognized by many ELT practitioners. However, it is not formally in practice in educational institutions. Educators highlight the value of mentoring practice stating mentoring is the best tool for teachers' personal and professional development. In some institutions, teachers become mentors without training so there occurs challenges in mentoring practice. As the data suggested if the mentors are trained to mentor teachers, the challenges can be reduced. Trained mentors highlight positive things in mentees' classroom practice that makes mentees motivated and encouraged. They build a trustworthy relationship with mentees by giving them enough time to reflect on their classroom practice. The trained mentors make the mentees reflect on their classroom practice which makes the mentees realize their strengths and weaknesses themselves. Mentoring practice helps teachers to transform into better professionals who can be eligible to solve their problems themselves. Therefore, mentoring should be introduced and practised formally in schools and institutions. In addition, it should be promoted widely by the ministry of education in Nepal. They should conduct seminars and workshops on mentoring and make it available for more ELT practitioners.

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Applying Context, Input, Process and Product (CIPP) Model for Course Evaluation

Rejina K.C.

PhD Scholar, School of Education, Kathmandu University, Nepal

Parmeshor Baral

Prithvi Narayan Campus, Pokhara, Tribhuvan University, Nepal

Corresponding Author: *Rejina K.C.*; Email: rejina_phele21@kusoed.edu.np
DOI: <https://doi.org/10.3126/kmcj.v5i1.52460>

Abstract

The main purpose of this study was to evaluate the course titled *ELT Pedagogy and Materials* from the M.Ed. III semester programme of education under Tribhuvan University by using context, input, process and product (CIPP) model. The evaluation process had gone through qualitative research method using purposively selected five M.Ed. graduates and a course teacher as research participants for data collection. The data was obtained through semi-structured interview and story of everyday class experience of research participants to have an in-depth understanding of their phenomenon. The result indicated that the course has sufficiently identified the needs of secondary level teachers but there seems a lack of coordination between theory and practice. Both students and teachers agreed that objectives of the course are very realistic. However, micro context could not be covered such as lack of focusing in rural context of English language teaching (ELT) and also teachers could not come out from stereotypical teaching pedagogy, brought a sort of disappointment regarding the course and its outcome. Hence, this study implies the worth of implication of CIPP model for programme evaluation and helps to mitigate its pedagogical challenges for better teaching and learning outcomes.

Keywords: Pedagogy, objectives, M.Ed., curriculum, semester

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Introduction

The Faculty of Education (FoE) of Tribhuvan University is running a two year programme at Master's of Education (M.Ed.) semester system of four semesters with courses of specialization, elective, teaching practice and thesis. Basically, the courses are designed to study innovative teaching methods and educational research, which is more focused on various dimensions of education including pedagogy, counseling, instruction and curriculum. This is based on the yearly system carrying out exams at the end of each academic year. During the whole semester of the programme, 66 credit hours are allocated for first to third semester and 18 credit hours for fourth semester which is envisioned to develop professionally trained, competent teachers and trainers who can really make a difference in the teaching learning system so that the programme can produce a high level skilled academic personality like educators, teachers, planners and policy makers in education and administrators, system analysts and also the experts in education. So, the programme includes many areas of professional/pedagogy courses and specialization courses.

The courses such as Curriculum and Assessment, Educational Planning and Management, English Education, Nepali Education, Science Education, Mathematics Education, Health Education, Physical Education, Economics Education, Geography Education, History Education, and Political Education are available for teacher education. M.Ed. was officially introduced in 1976, later it was modified and effectively applied in the education programme in 2009 with the aim of producing competent teacher educators (TU Curriculum, 2009). Therefore, offered courses are very professional and highly academic for making competent teachers and other educational experts to develop educational leadership which aims to bring a transformative progress in the educational system of the country.

There is always a dearth of improvement in the courses to ensure the quality education and the aim of the course can also be achieved as envisioned. So, evaluation is the only process through which we can help quality control, quality monitoring, assurance of quality and quality development (Aziz et al., 2018). Evaluation is always connected with improvements of the system that can assure quality outcomes (Lamichhane, 2017). According to Warju (2016), evaluation can be conducted for having more ideas on programme objectives and the goal of any institution. We can find many evaluation models and designs that are used in evaluating the education programme. CIPP is one of the models, which is envisioned by Stufflebeam (1985) for evaluating curriculum of programmes.

The model is Context, Input, Process and Product with its acronym for C- Context, I- Input, P- Process and P- Product (CIPP). The model has been used

in many programme evaluations to ensure the quality of education at school and colleges. We can take it as a decision-oriented model which can help to collect information about a programme so that we can identify the merits and demerits, and strengths and limitations of the programme. According to Stufflebeam (1969), the CIPP model is a useful and simple tool for evaluators to produce questions in the evaluation process. He further defines that context evaluation is the overall environment readiness of the school. It helps to examine whether the proposed objectives are adequately addressed in implementing and assessing the programme needs. Input evaluation helps to identify the needs and answers on what should be done. Process monitors the course implementation process to assess on the quality of teaching and its potentials that helps to benefit society (Stufflebeam, 2003).

Product evaluation measures, interprets and judges the quality of students' learning outcomes by assessing their merits, worth, significance, and probity (Stufflebeam, 2002). Hence, it reviews the extent to which the programme provides services to the target audience. So, it is an impactful evaluation as it establishes the impact of the programme in the teaching learning system. This study aims to evaluate four semesters M. Ed. program of English language education with CIPP model as Stufflebeam argues that CIPP is based on providing information for decision-making in program evaluation. To get the admission in this program one must have Bachelor's in Arts, education or equivalent to bachelor in major English in BA or B.Ed. from Tribhuvan University (TU) or University recognized by TU. The course that we have tried to make an attempt to evaluate is currently running at the third semester of M. Ed. The course title is *English Language Teaching (ELT) Pedagogy and Materials 535* and it is a theoretical course. The course intends to build a strong capacity and practice of English language teaching for students that enables them to develop teaching materials in their teaching and education. The course consists of five units which are as follows:

Unit One: English Language Teaching Context

Unit Two: Methodology of English Language Teaching

Unit Three: Teaching Language Aspects and Skills

Unit Four: Planning and Assessing Learning

Unit Five: Critical Pedagogy

The first unit enables students to be familiar with the broader and specific contexts of language teaching particularly in English. Similarly, the second unit sheds light on the overview of the ELT methodology and the third unit deals with the techniques and activities of teaching English language aspects and skills. Similarly,

the fourth unit is about the planning and assessment in ELT while the fifth unit presents the critical perspectives of language education and its pedagogy.

Basically, the course objectives are divided into two parts: general and specific objectives. The general objectives are as follows:

- To familiarize students with macro and micro context of English language teaching
- To produce teachers capable in teaching at primary and secondary level
- To produce teachers who are capable to teach the differently abled students
- To enable students to function as a course designer, education officer, planner, etc.
- To enable students to acquire critical perspectives in English language teaching and practices

Likewise, the specific objectives are based on the contents of the course. The chapters explain the contexts of language teaching with sociolinguistic and political context and the course also presents the history of language teaching. Moreover, the course discusses on the framework of language teaching to implement the principles of learner autonomy in the class that encompass language learning approaches to contextualize communicative and task-based language teaching. So, one can have better understanding to identify various learning strategies by using different techniques of language teaching in the class. The course is envisioned to develop the skills of language from pedagogical perspectives so that one can teach vocabulary and grammar and it is helpful to identify learner's challenges in the course. The contents also describe second language education from multiple perspectives and help to explore the issues in second language education where the course emphasizes critical review on the teachers' role.

Evaluation is something for appraising and featuring some quality of an educational process (Stufflebeam, 2003). Evaluation should be a continuous process, which involves judgments to ensure quality of education, which should be addressed through assessment for quality of education. It is found that a smaller number of stakeholders are satisfied with given skills through the course (Warju, 2016) where evaluation becomes useful for sustainable education and also acceptable for the people. Many authors discuss the worth and significance of the need and merits of systematic course evaluation (Aziz et al., 2018). Education itself is responsible to reengineer the future of every individual and society so that the quality education

can be assured. Whenever we talk about quality in education in the Nepalese context, we hardly find the proper evaluation according to time and need. Many researchers have identified that quality education has become a serious issue across the globe that should be gone under research to bring a contextual education to empower teacher students with competent knowledge and training (Aziz et al., 2018; Stufflebeam, 2003; Warju, 2016). Therefore, it seems that judging is not just for having the degree of acceptability but also for bringing improvement in any programme and the courses. The course we are evaluating here is not being evaluated so far and there seems a dearth of such evaluation in the Nepalese context for bringing an impactful change in our teaching learning system. So, this study is particularly focused on the course evaluation of M.Ed. third semester of English language education at Prithvi Narayan Campus, Pokhara.

The main purpose of the study was to review and assess a single course of M.Ed. third semester English in education implemented at Prithvi Narayan Campus by using CIPP model for quality assurance and its evaluation. The following research question helped us to conduct this course evaluation: How does the CIPP model help to reengineer the course for quality teacher education?

CIPP Evaluation Model

There are various models and designs for evaluating the schools, courses, programme or projects but CIPP model is considered a profound evaluation model for evaluating educational curriculum designed by Stufflebeam (1983) which consists of elements such as C- Context, I- Input, P- Process and P- Product. It is an elaborative guideline for formative and summative evaluation of any educational programme, projects, institution and schools' system (Stufflebeam, 2003) and further claims that the model has been used to investigate short-term and long-term evaluation of any courses from USA to around the world in small and large scale of research. Zhang et al. (2011) also claimed that the CIPP evaluation model helps to understand the context evaluation and its components. These components provide us an ease to identify the needs of learners and also institutions, so that we can bring the changes which can monitor the overall system for the betterment of the institution and eventually that benefits society (Stufflebeam, 2003). Many writers and scholar believe that CIPP model is a decision-oriented model that systematically collects information about a programme or a school for evaluation to identify strengths and the need of change (Sarah, 2012). The need for evaluation is always demanding because it can assure the quality education which enhances effective job performance

and also working culture in the academic institution.

Figure 1

The CIPP Model of Evaluation



Source: <https://www.psychsoma.co.za/learning>

The concept of programme evaluation for the courses based on Stufflebeam's concept of CIPP model is also the process of outlining, acquiring, supplying and employing descriptive data which deals with strength and weakness of the course objective.

Evaluation

Evaluation is the process of collection of data which refers to the worth of study and when it is used for the course or any program it is used to measure the significance of the course and its outcomes (Asadi et al., 2016; Gay, 1985; Warju, 2016). Thapa (2017) also emphasizes on course evaluation to make teaching relevant. He further states that use of reflective questioning methods in teaching can enhance the course relevancy. So, evaluation plays a vital role to bring a transformation whether in the discourse of quality education or for the effective teaching learning

environment at institutions (Aziz et al., 2018). Quality evaluation always denotes the assessment of every aspect of learning which is not only to assess students' achievement but also to bring better pedagogy in teaching. Significantly, there are two common processes of knowledge evaluation which include: formative and summative and these two processes get active whenever the evaluation is conducted.

Formative is a learning evaluation that consists of both engagements from teacher and student and also ensures the success of the assignment with rigorous process of feedback and discussion (Ebel & Frisbie, 1991, as cited in Aziz, 2018). A teacher should always be ready to share feedback on the emerging work so that students can improve their learning capacity as per the need. The latter is summative, where students face contrast assessment rather than formative. This evaluation can summarize the students' performance at the end of the session at a particular time frame. Basically, this type of assessment is quite common in the Nepalese context where only final examination determines the students' performance. So, we can understand in such a way that a mid-term exam is formative while final class examination is summative evaluation.

There are some studies regarding course evaluation through CIPP model. Study by Aziz et al. (2018) reported that the CIPP model helps to implement quality education and works as a major evaluation tool checklist to measure quality education which is very essential in recent days for evaluating any courses. Sankaran (2022) conducted a programme evaluation using the CIPP model for bachelor's course evaluation that helped to offer quality programmes and enhanced teacher performance at the same time. Lamichhane (2017) elucidated a process of course appraisal on the basis of its strength and weakness which is significantly focusing on the courses like literature and literary theories. So, evaluation is a continuous process, which involves a sort of judgment to ensure quality education.

Likewise, many scholars and researchers have reported CIPP as a pertinent model to evaluate the programme (Ulu, 2016; Warju, 2016) and also studied the worth of evaluation in English language programmes at high school by using the CIPP model. They found self-contentment with given skills through the course evaluation and Galmarini (2020) claimed that evaluation is an essential component for sustainable education, which should be acceptable for all the people. In his work, it is well described as a judging tool for having a degree of acceptability. Whenever we talk about the quality of education in the Nepalese context, it is always a sort of challenge because we hardly find the proper course evaluation. So far, the programme evaluation has not been reported in Nepalese context and also not been evaluated for long particularly in M.Ed. programme. So, there seems to be a need

for exploration of the programme and its evaluation to comprehend the course's merit, demerit, and its worth and significance in today's education. Therefore, the main purpose of this study was to evaluate M.Ed. programme of English language education at Prithvi Narayan Campus, Pokhara because time has come to understand the worth of teachers' responsibility to structure and reshape the future of every individual in the society and also from the community. So, there is always a need for evaluation because it is not just a one-time process; it is a continuous ongoing process for better outcomes in the teaching and learning system.

Methods and Procedures

The CIPP model was not made for any specific evaluation; it is always known for its flexible strength and limitations so that we can use this model in multiple evaluation tasks and also this model has a long history of applicability (Stufflebeam, 1983) for needs assessment. We have used this model to evaluate a course that is run at M.Ed. third semester and CIPP model helps to conduct a comprehensive approach to evaluate course, programme outcomes and can also suggest future implication (Stufflebeam, 2003). The study was conducted to identify the quality evaluation of the course of M.Ed. third semester programme using CIPP model with a case of Prithvi Narayan Campus to explore the teacher and student lived experience for the effectiveness of the course and fulfillment of its core value by using students' frames of references through interview. The limitation of this study was the selection process of the research participants and using the CIPP model through interview, observation for needs assessment. Four M.Ed. graduates and one teacher were the research participants who were purposively selected for the study through convenient sources from the college.

Semi-structured interviews were used as data collection tools which were used to gather the information on selected topics. Interview, observation, study of curriculum objectives and document analysis were the major techniques for data generation. The participants were interviewed and examined the given context of the campus system while conducting the class and along with the sources like curriculum, syllabus, annual report and teacher students' interview were also studied to identify the course inputs. Researchers talked several times with the participants to understand the process and inputs of the course and its core value. Later, to assess the product value and to compare it with the inputs and process, and summarized the data with different themes to create the relationship between the selected theme from literature review and the theme from coding. Then we formulated the theme based on the review of previous studies (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Finally, we analyzed the data based on the coded themes. Based on the information obtained from interview, observation and documents, we analyzed context, input, process and product evaluation based on the data generation.

Results and Discussion

Evaluation is for the quality assurance that helps to enhance better performance of the teachers. To elucidate the findings of evaluation, we used four components of the CIPP model. Context helped to assess the environment of the class and its readiness. Input examined whether the prescribed course was helpful to attain the goal and objectives of the program. Process evaluation is attributed to acknowledge the potentiality of planning and its effective implication. Finally, the product evaluation measured the outcomes of the programme explicitly and implicitly.

Context

Context evaluation helps to assess needs and opportunities that are available in the schools' environment (Stufflebeam, 2003). The findings of the study are based on our teacher and student participants' reports. The aims and objectives are appropriate in the course but the theoretical and traditional way of teaching can't meet its objectives. Teacher participant reported, "The course itself has more sufficient contents and identifies the needs of secondary level teachers for their pedagogical practice." But there is still some lacking of coordination between theory and practices during class and also the student participant agreed with the worth of course objectives which is relatable with time and context but due to lack of resources for teaching practice and lack of access to rural context for quality education added even more challenge for making the course practical. Based on the study through interview, and participant's experience, we have understood that both students and teachers agreed on the worth of course objectives. They reported that the course is very realistic but yet the micro context of teaching secondary level students could not be covered in this course. The student participant further says, "teaching is a more focused theoretical aspect that has supported only to develop content friendly rather than communicative. Context evaluation helped to identify the goal of the course which seemed lacking the objectives of the course.

Inputs

The teacher participant reported that she did her level best to make students more competent through the course as envisioned in the curriculum. Thapa (2017) claimed the CIPP model is used to make teaching relevant by using reflective discussion and questioning methods in teaching and teacher participants used both lecture and reflective discussion during the class which helped students in learning through information. But the teacher failed to provide classes like seminars, conferences, and course related workshops relevant to the course. Student1 reports, "lack of reference materials, audio- video equipment, magazines, newspapers,

journals , teaching manuals’ ‘ made learning insufficient. A teacher should always be ready to explore the existing resources so that the teaching can be more contextual and effective. Stufflebeam (2002) claimed that input evaluation always emphasizes the available and existing resources to achieve the aim of the projects and needs. Student participant 2 also reported, “the dearth of seminar; workshop, project works, and other pedagogic activities led towards disappointment for almost all students.” If classes like course workshops could be incorporated during learning that could higher the course interest and also would help to plan a better career in the field of teaching. Regarding language learning, student3 reported that there is always a dearth of using modern techniques of language tools in the classroom. So, lack of resources brought a sort of dissatisfaction towards the classes.

Process

The process evaluation in curriculum is explicitly related with all the activities in the program (Aziz, 2018) and most significantly teaching learning process. Extracurricular activities and teaching practice which are related to teacher education should be well acknowledged. Teacher participants reported that there was always a lack of 100% attendance while checking the monthly attendance and also, the internal examination achievement was unsatisfactory for almost all students. Since, a student learning is always assessed through both formative and summative assessment to have a valid evaluation of students’ learning the number has been increased. But still the teacher found that there were some issues like students’ irregularity, lack of concentration on assigned task and low work enthusiasm which helped students to cope academic shortcomings The students 3 reported that “teachers are not using modern technology so that the learning has become very monotonous” and also the teachers found irregular in the job and due to this the course was incomplete and the aim of the syllabus is not fulfilled. This is of course a reciprocal relationship for making the teaching learning process smooth. Both teachers and students are equally responsible to function better. There was also a lack of communication between teacher students and also between administration personnel because of this the problem remained unsolved throughout the session that resulted in course incompleteness and unsatisfactory outcomes.

Product

The product evaluation in the CIPP model not only helps to track the system but it also focuses on the fulfillment of the course objectives (Stufflebeam, 2003). According to the PN exam unit, 2021, the pass rate of ELT students was 67% in the course ‘Theories and Methods’. Some of them are placed in a very good institution and started working as a teacher. According to students regarding the product

evaluation the results are quite unsatisfactory as per the need of market due to lack of students' irregularity, unpunctuality; less interaction in the class, and also exam-oriented teaching made students inactive throughout the year and according to the participants that should be discarded by implementing the formative assessment. Therefore, it is seen that the intended goals and achievement of the course objectives were only partially fulfilled. To meet the curriculum objectives and also to achieve goals and achievement, teachers should avoid lecture- based teaching instead they should always be ready to adopt new activities and pedagogy in teaching from the relevant example (Warju, 2016). Findings of this study show that there should be the use of multi- media so that the teaching learning process should be fun and accessible for each level of students. Learner friendly environment, well equipped classroom and effective interaction are the pivotal elements to enhance quality education where rigorous internal assessments and attendance should be well considered as an evaluation process and that can be well counted for final examination.

Conclusion

Implementing the CIPP model for evaluating course curriculum for quality education was the primary objective of this study. According to various research studies, the CIPP model is not only for tracking the system but also a process through which fulfillment of the objectives can be assured. It is an effective model for enhancing and assessing the quality of education from every aspect of teaching. It is generally found that the stereotypical method of lecture- based teaching has been still followed in many colleges. Now the time has come for all teachers to come out from the traditional mindset of teaching and learning. The teaching should be more focused on real life learning and that should come from the local context because this is the right time to think globally and act locally to thrive in the teaching profession. This paper particularly focuses on implementing a practical teaching learning process rather than rote learning from teachers' notes and also should avoid the stereotype method in the class.

Many researchers found the CIPP model very pertinent to measure the objectives, teaching resources, curriculum, teaching environment, teaching pedagogy, process and the students' outcomes. So, it is always needed to enhance and assess the quality of education for further improvement in the system. Use of different elements of the CIPP model helped to identify the issues and also paved the way to cater the needs of the students so that students become even more competent to face the challenges.

Keeping all these in understanding, some recommendations may also be taken which, of course, is going to be very useful for the concerned stakeholders, teachers and also students so that they can bring some changes in their pedagogy for the quality of education. This will help to meet the goals and objectives of the program in their teaching learning process as envisioned. The study also helps to acknowledge the need for assessment for the innovation in the job performance so that one can bring the change for better learning outcomes.

Here are some recommendations that can be taken into consideration for better programs and outcomes such as the examination questions should be practical rather than theoretical. So that students should be emancipated for learning by doing. Project based teaching and critical review writing should be incorporated in the syllabus and that syllabus should be reformed and redesigned from time to time as per the need. Teachers should provide real-life examples from Nepalese context. Students should not recite teacher's class notes, rather should be able to explain what they have experienced and that should be praised. Therefore, appreciation of each and every positive activity of students is very essential to enhance a comfortable atmosphere for learning. Every differentiated effort should be well acknowledged. Teachers should be able to facilitate the Audio-Visual aids teaching and also need to have close contact with students' parents and guardians too.

Examination questions should be implicational not theoretical in order to enhance the learning process more effectively where rote learning can be discouraged to ensure quality education. To enhance writing skills, mini-project and critical review paper writing should be incorporated in the syllabus. Finally, a friendly environment is always needed to create effective and interactive classes. So that students come out from their comfort zone and share their real classroom experiences and also share stories from local context and community.

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Property Analysis of the Drinking Water Supply in Baglung Bazaar

Narendra Pratapsingh Budhathoki¹, Hari Krishna Sapkota²

Department of Chemistry, Dhawalagiri Multiple Campus, Baglung

Tribhuvan University, Nepal

Corresponding Author: *Narendra Pratapsingh Budhathoki*; Email: narenbudhathoki@gmail.com

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Abstract

The study objective is to evaluate the current drinking water quality in Baglung Bazar. In this investigation, the physio-chemical characteristics of water samples were assessed using tried-and-true techniques. To gauge the degree of bacterial contamination, the total number of *coliforms* was measured using a conventional membrane filtering method. Random water samples were taken and examined from a number of locations close to Baglung Bazar. The mean water sample's temperature was 22.3°C. Maximum and minimum temperatures were reported in S₆ (24.7°C) and S₁₀, respectively (18.9°C). In filtered water samples, the pH was found to range from 7.29 to 8.1, which is within the acceptable range at the time of the study. The S₇, S₃, and S₈ taps' electrical conductivity measurements showed minimum and maximum values of 70 S/Cm and 145 S/Cm, respectively. All of the samples were within the 20 to 35 mg/L range for hardness. The iron readings typically recorded ranged from 0.10 to 0.35 mg/L. The S₂, S₄ and S₈ contained the highest concentrations (0.30 mg/L and 0.35 mg/L, respectively). It was found that none of the samples in the current investigation contained Arsenic. Out of 10 sources examined, six (60%) were *Coliform*-free, while 40 (40%) were determined to be contaminated with total *Coliform*. The results of the investigation back up the claim that the drinking water in Baglung Bazar is currently unsatisfactory and unsafe for direct consumption. To prevent the spread of waterborne diseases, drinking water must be frequently tested and cleansed before use.

Keywords: Water quality, physico-chemical parameters, total coliform, Baglung Municipality

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Introduction

For all types of life on earth, water is one of the most valuable natural resources. It is said to be crucial for all living things' survival and for carrying out their bodily tasks correctly. One of the key functional elements of the terrestrial ecosystem, water quality is crucial to the health and nourishment of the water system. However, it has been discovered that these water sources could be contaminated, which means that they might offer contaminated water that is unfit for use in homes and for drinking. These bodies of water have a wide range of characteristics based on their location and surrounding conditions. The chemical, physical, and biological content of water determines its quality, which varies with the season and geographic location. Water supplies have become contaminated by substances including bacteria, viruses, heavy metals, nitrates, and salt as a result of improper handling and disposal of human and animal waste, industrial discharges, and excessive use of the planet's finite water supplies. It is nevertheless possible for naturally occurring concentrations of metals and other chemicals to be hazardous to human health, even in the absence of sources of anthropogenic pollution. Freshwater contamination spreads over 80% of all infections in underdeveloped nations, and it is responsible for the daily deaths of 25,000 people. Estimates place the death toll from cholera, dysentery, and other water-borne illnesses at 2.2 million (UNESCO, 2007). Anthropogenic activities including inappropriate tire disposal, e-waste disposal, and other waste material disposal could worsen biochemical contamination in groundwater. The use of pesticides, fertilizers, and paints containing metal also has a substantial impact on the perspective of groundwater pollution. Even at low concentrations, several types of dyes from the textile, paper, food, and cosmetic sectors are posing a hazard to both aquatic and human life (Lima et al., 2007). So it has grown to be an important precedence to guard the surroundings that such shades be eliminated from water systems. In latest years, a range of techniques, such as adsorption, precipitation, air stripping, flocculation, reverse osmosis, and ultra-filtration, have been utilized to put off coloration from cloth effluent (Robinson et al., 2001). Due to their sufficient cost separation capabilities under visible light, silver-based compounds like AgI, AgBr, Ag_2CO_3 , Ag_3VO_4 , Ag_3PO_4 , etc. are frequently used in current semiconductor photo catalysis to eliminate natural effluents (Pant et al., 2016; Pourabbas et al.; 2008, Bai et al.; 2013; Liu et al., 2012). Semiconductor photo catalysts have gained attention recently as a cutting-edge technique for removing different dangerous organic contaminants from wastewater. Because of their exceptional qualities, including ease of availability, long-term chemical and thermal stability, non-toxicity, resource abundance, and cost effectiveness, a variety of semiconductors, including TiO_2 , CeO_2 , ZnO , CdS , Bi_2WO_6 , etc., have been widely used (Fujishima et al., 2006;

Pant et al., 2013; Lin et al., 2013; Pant et al., 2014). Using a one-pot hydrothermal process, a highly photo catalytic $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4/\text{MoS}_2$ composite was successfully created. The composite photo catalyst made of Ag_3PO_4 and MoS_2 demonstrated exceptional photo catalytic activity. This finding can be expanded upon in the future to create high-performance photo catalysts, which hold promise for applications in the reduction of environmental pollution and the production of energy Saud et al. (2017).

Water Quality Parametres

According to the needs of one or more biotic species and/or any human need or purpose, water quality is a measurement of the state of the water (Tchobanoglous et al., 1985).

Physico-chemical Parametres

Chemical parameters determine inorganic matter and soluble organic salts in water. The ability of drinking water contaminants to have negative health consequences over long periods of time is the main source of concern; contaminants with cumulative toxic properties, such as heavy metals and carcinogens, are of particular concern (WHO, 1994).

Temperature

Temperature is one of the critical parameters of water, and its effects on chemical and biological reactions in aquatic organisms are critical. It is critical in determining parameters such as pH, conductivity, gas saturation levels, alkalinity, and so on. A rise in water temperature causes chemical reactions to accelerate, microorganism growth to accelerate, gas solubility to decrease, and tastes and odors to intensify (Trivedy & Goel, 1986). In comparison to warm water, the temperature ranges between 7°C and 11°C have a nice taste (WHO, 1994). Temperature influences palatability, viscosity, solubility, odors, and chemical reactions (APHA Standard Methods for the Examination of Water and Wastewater 2005).

pH

The pH of drinking water from any source should be between 6.5 and 8.5 (Trivedy & Goel, 1986). A pH of less than 7 may cause corrosion and encrustation in the distribution system, whereas chlorine disinfection is less effective if the pH of the water exceeds 8.0 (WHO, 1993). The pH of water influences treatment processes such as coagulation and disinfection with chlorine-based chemicals. Changes in the pH of source water should be investigated because it is a relatively stable parameter in the short term and any unusual change may indicate a major event (Payment et al., 2003).

Electrical Conductivity

The electrical conductivity (EC) of water is a measure of a solution's ability to carry or conduct an electrical current (Tchobanoglous et al., 2003). The presence of inorganic dissolved solids such as chloride, nitrate, sulfate, and metal anion or cation influences water conductivity (Trivedy & Goel, 1986).

Water contamination may also increase the conductivity of the water, so a sudden change in conductivity is an indicator of water pollution. Because conductivity is strongly affected by temperature, it is normally reported at 25°C (Tchobanoglous et al., 2003).

Total Hardness

For consumer aesthetic acceptance as well as for practical, financial, and operational reasons, drinking water hardness is a crucial factor. In order to address these issues, many hard waters are softened utilizing a variety of appropriate technologies, which will have a substantial impact on the mineral makeup. Local factors (such as water quality problems, piping materials, and corrosion) will determine which conditioning system is most suitable (WHO 2010).

Iron

Although they have no physiological significance, iron promotes undesirable bacterial growth ("Iron bacteria") in the water and distribution system, resulting in the formation of a slimy coating on the pipes (Chatterjee, 2001). When drinking water is oxidized, the ferrous salt of iron precipitates as ferric hydroxide, whereas groundwater may contain iron (II) in various concentrations without turbidity, but when pumped directly from a well, turbidity and color may develop in the piped system at iron levels above 0.05 - 1 mg/l (WHO,1993).

Arsenic (As)

It enters the drinking water supply primarily through the dissolution of naturally occurring minerals and ores. Pesticides, chemical fertilizers, and industrial discharges are all anthropogenic sources of arsenic. Arsenic concentrations in the Terai region of Nepal have been found to be high. Digging tube wells is the most straightforward and immediately achievable option for water in Nepal's rural sector. Arsenic is most commonly found in shallow aquifers, those less than 150 meters deep. Even the symptoms/signs and other observable symptoms become visible only after several years of water consumption. Arsenic in drinking water can be a significant cause of health problems in some areas. The NDWQS, 2005 recommended a guideline value of 0.05 mg/l.

Microbiological Testing of Drinking Water

Organic matter has a direct relationship to *coliform* contamination in water. *Coliform* bacteria are regarded as an important indicator of human health water quality (Seo et al., 2019). *Escherichia coli* and/or thermo tolerant fecal *coliforms* are recommended by the WHO as indicator organisms for the potential presence of fecal contamination and water-borne pathogens. Fecal indicator organisms have primarily been used to measure drinking water quality as it is not practical to test water for all known water-borne pathogens to assess its safety (Tallon et al., 2005). The most frequent sign of fecal contamination is *coliphage*, particularly *E. coli*. These viruses meet the requirements for an ideal indicator of microorganisms, *E. coli* with an RNA genome or F⁺ RNA. The etiology of water-borne infections shows that viruses and parasite protozoa are more likely to be the common causative agents than bacteria (Jofre et al., 2016).

Literature Review

With the exception of conductivity (42.10%), turbidity (62.10%), and iron (82.10%), the majority of the samples' physicochemical characteristics were found to be within the WHO's permissible range, according to Shrestha 2002). In contrast, de Queiroz et al., discovered that familiarity with water source characteristics (taste, odor, and color) influences consumer preferences and risk perception, and Rupani et al., discovered that a change in water taste was associated with an increased risk of gastrointestinal symptoms (Queiroz et al., 2019, and Rupani et al., 2016). According to a study of Minnesotan households' perceptions of water by Ocher et al., higher manganese concentrations were linked to greater concern about the taste, odor, or color of the water, but 54% of respondents whose well water had Mn concentrations above 300 micrograms per liter (g/L) were not particularly concerned about those factors (Escheret et al., 2021). Jayana et al. (2009) assessed the status of drinking water quality of Madhyapur-Thimi. The Physicochemical analysis of 105 water samples comprising 50 (47.61%) wells, 45 (42.82%) tap water and 10 (9.52%) stone spouts showed that pH (1.9%), conductivity (34.28%) and Turbidity (16.19%) of water samples had crossed the permissible guideline values as prescribed by WHO and national standard. All samples contained nitrate values within the WHO permissible value as well as national standard but hardness (2%), chloride (2.85%), iron (26.66%), ammonia (11.42%), and arsenic content (1.90%) crossed the WHO guideline value but none of the water samples crossed the national standard for Arsenic.

Warner et al. (2008) collected water samples from over 100 different locations in Kathmandu and tested them for contamination from sewage, agriculture,

or industry. Total *coliform* and *Escherichia coli* bacteria were found in 94 and 72%, respectively, of all water samples. For the purpose of public health, the drinking water quality in the Kathmandu valley has always required to be investigated. To evaluate the quality of the valley's drinking water, a research was conducted. In the Kathmandu valley, 132 drinking water samples were randomly taken from 49 tube wells, 57 wells, 17 taps, and 9 stone spouts. The microbiological properties of the samples were identified. The WHO drinking water guideline value was surpassed in 82.6% and 92.4% of the drinking water samples, respectively, based on total plate count and *coliform* count. The 238 isolates of enteric bacteria discovered throughout the study included *Escherichia coli*, *Enterobacter* spp, *Citrobacter* spp, 6.3% *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, 5.4% *Klebsiella* spp, 4.0% *Shigella* spp, 3.0% *Salmonella typhi*, 3.0% *Proteus vulgaris*, 3.0% *Serratia* spp, and 1.0% *Vibrio cholera* (Prasai et al., 2007).

Bajracharya (2007) had reported the bacteriological evaluation of water samples, which was published the presence of complete *coliform* in 90.35% of complete samples (tube well- 97.37%, tap-73.68% and stone spout-100%). Ten exclusive sorts of enteric microorganism have been removed from the complete contaminated samples. Among the isolates, *Citrobacter* spp (26.22%) was once observed to be most observed by means of *Escherichia coli* (25%), *Enterobacter* spp (20.73%), *Shigella* spp (8.54%), *Proteus vulgaris* (7.93%), *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (3.66%), *Salmonella paratyphi* (3.05%), *Klebsiella* spp (2.44%), *Proteus mirabilis* (1.83%) and *Salmonella typhi* (0.61%).

Subedi (2021) had reported due to a lack of specific chemical substances and tremendous lab equipment, solely a small element of natural contaminants had been examined, whilst all microbiological species had been now not examined. Iron ranges in all of the samples had been greater than the WHO-permitted restriction for ingesting water (0.3 ppm), with bore nicely water having the best levels. This used to be due to the fact to corrosion of the iron tubing used in the bore properly station and the presence of iron-containing substances in the properly environment of water quality from Pokhara.

Pant et al. (2016) had observed that heterotrophic micro organism had been current in each and every single pattern of tap water and 87.5 % of the samples of bottled water. 55.3 % of the samples of faucet water examined high-quality for complete *coliforms*, in contrast to 25% of the exams of bottled water sample from Dharan water sample. Despite the fact that they had been identified in 21.1% and 14.5% of the samples of faucet water, respectively, fecal *coliforms* and fecal *streptococci* had no longer been found in any samples of bottled water. Each type of tap water (100%) and bottled water (54.2%) had pH levels that fell within an incredibly narrow range.

Thapa reported in Damak, one of the new issues with drinking water is the presence of arsenic, which can lead to cancer and skin diseases. Arsenic is primarily dissolved into drinking water sources by naturally occurring minerals and ores. The results of the current analysis indicated that not all of the samples had arsenic at detectable levels. 0.01 mg/l is the preliminary recommendation value (WHO Standard value). 0.05 mg/l was recommended as the recommendation amount by the NDWQS-2005.

Aryal et al. (2010) reported that a quantity of *coliform* existing in most of samples however there was once absence of *E. coli* from Myagdi district. While most of the tested waters have been discovered to be greater range of *coliform* organism especially in faucet water, which is not used to be now not secure for drinking.

Maharjan et al. (2018) reported that there was once a main microbiological difficulty with the dealt with water for the reason that the whole *coliform* reminiscence in 66% of the water samples used to be greater than the encouraged amount. More than 92% of water samples from jars, 77% of tanker samples, and 69% of samples of filtered water contained a complete variety of *coliforms* that had been as soon as massive as the NDWQS. *Coliform* microorganism has been additionally current in 20% of the bottled water. In 16% and 21%, respectively, of the whole examined water samples, iron and ammonia concentrations had been discovered to be above authorized limits. In the previous location, samples of tanker water had ammonia and iron instructing that had been extended in 35% and 15% of the samples, respectively, while samples of filtered water had the same parameters accelerated in 23% and 19% of the samples, respectively. The daily NDWQS suggestions were at odds with this.

Tonog and Poblete (2015) reported the bacteriological property all sampling are positive for fecal *coliforms* in drinking water supply in the Phillipines. This implied that all water sources are no longer impervious for drinking. This quit end result confirmed that the rationale of most loss of life in these three barangays was due to hazardous eating water.

Yuan et al. (2020) reported the frequent annual carcinogenic dangers for Cr in eating water have been estimated to be between 3.14×10^{-5} and 7.90×10^{-5} for adults and children, respectively. Similar to this, it used to be determined that the frequent

annual carcinogenic dangers for as in eating water for adults and children had been the difference of 4.43 E-07 and 1.11 E-06, respectively.

Battu and Reddy (2009) reported *Escherichia coli*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, and *Staphylococcus aureus* had been diagnosed as the microorganisms in drinking water from Jeedemetla, Hyderabad, India. Water samples from various sources had been analyzed bacteriologically, and the outcomes published that the faucet water from the municipal device used to be protected to drink whilst the water from cellular carriers and the area's groundwater have been not.

Berg et al. (2001) reported arsenic poisoning in Vietnam ground water because of the excessive stages of arsenic determined in the tubewells (48 percentage above 50 g/L and 20 percentage above one hundred fifty g/L), there may additionally be a large hazard of continual arsenic poisoning for a number of million human beings who drink untreated groundwater.

Barenboim and Kozlova (2018) reported pharmaceutical pollution in Moscow which furnishes one of a kind records on the infection of Moscow's water furnish with drug and medicinal agent metabolites. There is now a method for retrieving and figuring out substance hazard scores.

Fillimonova et al. (2022) reported that ailments of the digestive neurological circulatory pulmonary and skin and pores systems are treated using therapeutic Caucasian mineral waters.

Upadhyayula et al. (2009) reported that a point-of-use (POU) commonly mainly tremendously primarily based definitely absolutely remedy techniques the use of carbon nanotube (CNT) adsorption science may additionally facilitate the doing away with of bacterial pathogens, natural herbal be aware range extent (NOM), and cyanobacterial toxins from water systems.

Coleman et al. (2013) reported that the likelihood of infection with multi-class resistant *E. coli* (3 or greater classes) was once greater on residences with pigs or cattle (OR 5.5) than on these barring these animals, and it used to be additionally greater if the wells have been located on gravel or clay (OR 2.1) as adverse to loam in Canadian contaminated private drinking water.

The Guidelines set up numerical "guideline values" for water elements or extraordinarily perfect minimal necessities for existence like workout in order to

shield consumers' health. They may additionally set up "guideline values" for water Table 1 under lists the National Drinking Water Quality Standards (NDWQS)-2062 that have been posted by using the Government of Nepal (GoN).

Table 1

National Drinking Water Quality Standards 2062

S.N.	Parametre	Unit	Max.ConcnLimits
Physical			
1.	Turbidity	NTU	5(10)
2	pH		6.5-8.5
3.	Electrical conductivity (EC)	μS/cm	1500
4	TDS	Mg/L	1000
5	Taste and odour		No objectionable
6	Color	TCU	5(15)
Chemical			
7	Manganese	mg/L	0.2
8	Cadmium	mg/L	0.003
9	Free CO ₂	mg/L	-
10	Hardness	mg/L	500
11	Iron	mg/L	0.3
12	Ammonia	mg/L	1.5
13	Phosphate	mg/L	-
14	Nitrate	mg/L	50
15	Arsenic	mg/L	0.05
16	Chloride	Mg/L	250
17	Chromium	Mg/L	0.05
18	Cyanide	Mg/L	0.07

19	Fluoride	Mg/L	0.5-1.5
20	Lead	Mg/L	0.01
21	Sulphate	Mg/L	250
22	Copper	Mg/L	1
23	Total hardness	Mg/L as CaCO ₃	500
24	Calcium	Mg/L	200
25	Zinc	Mg/L	3
26	Mercury	Mg/L	0.001
27	Aluminum	Mg/L	0.2
28	Residual chloride	Mg/L	0.1-0.2
Microbiological			
29	Total <i>coliform</i>	MPN/100 mL	0(In 95% Samples)
30	<i>E-Coli</i>	MPN/100 mL	0
Sources: (NDWQS)-2062			

Table 2

WHO Guideline for Drinking Water Quality

S.N.	Parametres	Unit	Max Limit
1	PH		8.5
2	Turbidity	NTU	<1
3	Electrical conductivity	μS/cm	1500
4	Total hardness	Mg/L	500
5	Iron	Mg/L	0.01
6	Total <i>Coliform</i>	Cfu/100 ml	0(95% samples)
7	<i>E. coliform</i>	Cfu/100 ml	0(95% samples)

Sources: WHO guidelines for drinking water quality (4th edition)

Methods and Procedures

Study Area

The study region specifically covered four wards out of the Baglung Bazar area's total water supply network (ward numbers 1, 2, 3 & 4). The Kathekhola Rural Municipality, Lekhani, Resha and Vakunde are the three main sources of water supplies for the Bazaar. Additionally, there are more than 6635 houses with more than 25, 000 inhabitants in my study area. Water contamination has become a serious problem, especially in this city region of the Baglung municipality, which is why this study has chosen this location as a study area. Residents are totally reliant on the municipality's water supply. Therefore, it is essential to examine the quality parameters. Additionally, doing so would greatly assist the municipality as a whole in resolving the problems.

Figure 1

Study Area Highlighting Location of Sampling Sites (Sources: Google Earth map)

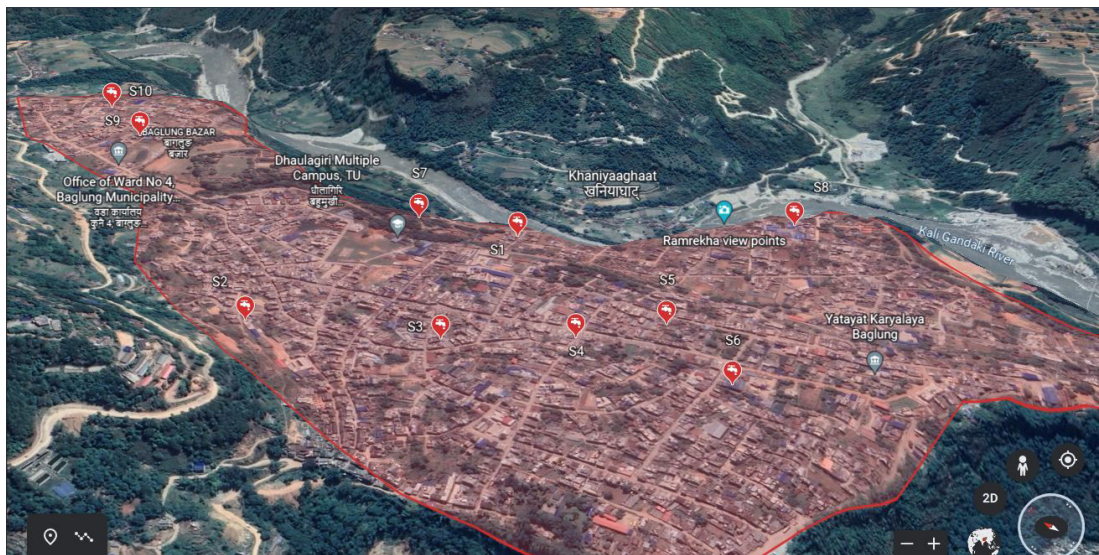


Table 3

Description of Sampling Sites

S.N.	Symbol in Map	Location
1	S ₁	Lamakheth
2	S ₂	Sibadhara
3	S ₃	Milanchowk

4	S ₄	Hallan Chowk
5	S ₅	Honkong Bajar
6	S ₆	Traffic Chowk
7	S ₇	DMC Hostel
8	S ₈	Ramrekha
9	S ₉	Upallachaur
10	S ₁₀	Upper Uppalachaur

Sample Collection, Preservation and Analysis

The analysis of water quality has used a variety of approaches that have been devised and implemented. Using appropriate indices is one of the most efficient methods for researching water quality (APHA 2005).

The decision of the sampling sites and samples to be taken into consideration in this study was influenced by the availability of data, the number of water quality parameters reported on earlier studies that were comparable to this one, the length and continuity of water quality records, and the significance of potential water supply source.

The samples came from tap water and water outlets (which has already been treated by the municipal water treatment system). The water samples were taken at ten different locations within the Baglung Municipality. The Narayansthan Khanepani Upabhokta Sanstha's laboratory, Balewa, Baglung, gathered samples in sanitized plastic bottles for analysis.

Water samples were maintained at 4 °C until they could be further examined for further physio-chemical characteristics to prevent modifications. Throughout the study, substances of the analytical grade were used. All glassware was immersed in a 10% nitric acid solution for at least 24.0 hours before being dried at 60 °C for 4.0 hours before use.

Physicochemical Analysis of Tap Water

The physio-chemical properties of the water samples, including PH and temperature, were measured in situ. As soon as the samples reached the lab, physiochemical and total *coliform* count experiments were run on them.

It was held at 4°C to prevent changes until analysis if quick analysis was not possible. Mid-Falgun is when the study was conducted. Physical parameters (such as pH, temperature, EC, and turbidity) were monitored on-site using the appropriate meters.

Additionally, water samples in one liter plastic bottles were gathered for the chemical parameters. Within 24 hours after receiving the samples at the lab, chemical tests were completed. The drinking water quality kit was used to measure the amounts of several chemical parameters.

Bacteriological Analysis of Water

Water samples for microbiological analysis were received by Narayansthan Khanepani's lab within six hours, where they were examined. The total *coliform* count of all the water samples was analyzed promptly after they arrived at the lab, in accordance with the instructions in Standard Methods for the Examination of Water and Wastewater. The total amount of *coliforms* was counted using the conventional membrane filtering (MF) technique, which is advised by APHA (2005).

The 100 mL of water sample was filtered using a filter membrane with a 47 mm diameter and 0.45 mm pore size. Bacterial colonies on membrane filters were counted using a colony counter on m-Endo agar at 37 °C after 24 hours. This involved counting all colonies that produced shine. All analysis kits and equipment were used in accordance with the thorough operating instructions provided by the manufacturer companies. The American Public Health Association's recommendations for the examination of water and wastewater were followed when doing other methods of water testing.

Following the recommended standard procedures by the APHA, water was sampled and tested. These techniques are regarded as the most accurate and dependable for evaluating water quality and water pollution.

Table 4

National Drinking Quality Standard 2062

S. N.	Parametres	Method	Instruments
Physical			
1.	Temperature		Thermometer
2	Ph		P ^H Meter
3.	Electrical conductivity(EC)	Potentiometer method	Conductivity meter
4.	Turbidity	Glass tube Method	Turbidity Meter

Chemical			
5.	Hardness	Kit method	Photometer7100-Palintest
6.	Iron		
Bacteriological			
7.	Total <i>Coliform</i>	Membrane Filtration	Millipore, USA
8.	<i>E-Coli</i>		Millipore, USA

Sources: NDWQS, 2005

Results

Nearly all physio-chemical parameter values for analyzed tap water samples were discovered to be within the NDWQS-2005. The results of the physico-chemical parameters of Baglung Bazar's drinking water network are displayed in table 5 below.

Table 5

Observation Table

	S ₁	S ₂	S ₃	S ₄	S ₅	S ₆	S ₇	S ₈	S ₉	S ₁₀	Mean Value	Reference Value (NDWQS)
Physical												
Temperature (°C)	23.6	23.3	22.8	23.30	23.2	24.7	22.2	19.5	21.7	18.9	22.3	-
pH	7.61	8.03	7.36	7.52	8.1	7.31	7.8	7.38	7.29	8.1	7.65	6.5-8.5
Electrical Conductivity (µs/cm)	80	80	70	125	75	80	70	145	75	80	87	1500
Turbidity	B/D	B/D	B/D	B/D	B/D	B/D	B/D	B/D	B/D	B/D	-	-
Chemical												
Total Hardness (mg/l)	30	25	25	30	20	35	30	25	25	20	26.5	500
Arsenic (mg/l)	N/D	N/D	N/D	N/D	N/D	N/D	N/D	N/D	N/D	N/D	-	0.05
Iron (mg/l)	0.25	0.30	0.15	0.35	0.20	0.10	0.15	0.35	0.15	0.20	0.22	0.3

B/D: Below detection limit, N/D: Not detected

Physico-chemical, the values for the majority of tested parameters for source samples were found to lie below the maximum level of NDWQS-2005. The potential for contamination by microbial pathogens is most pressing, and therefore strict control is required on personal drinking water sources. 10 water samples were analyzed for *coliform* contamination using membrane filtration, 4 of which (40%) were contaminated with *coliforms*, while the remaining 6 (60%) were free of *coliforms*. The majority of water tested, especially tap water, was found to have high levels of *coliform* bacteria and was unsafe for consumption. Table 6 gives the ranges of total *Coliform* found during the entire study. *Coliform* concentrations are expressed in terms of the number of organisms per 100 mL of water as follows: *coliforms* per 100 mL=number of colonies \times 100/ml of sample

Table 6

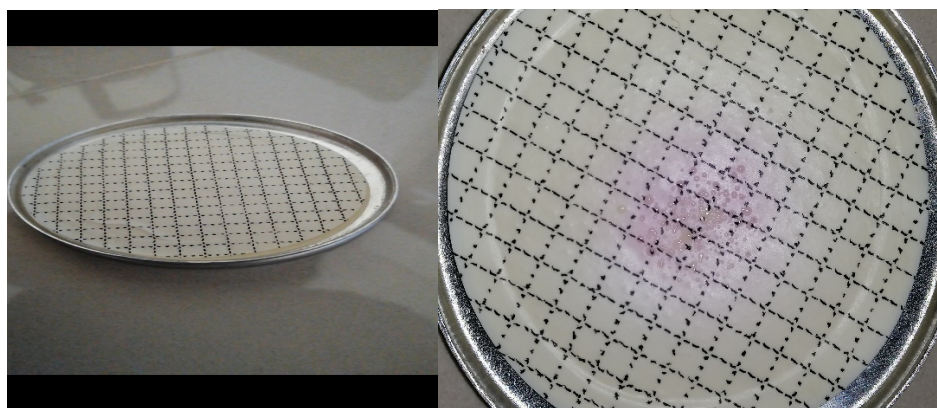
Results of Bacteriological Analysis of Water Samples

	S ₁	S ₂	S ₃	S ₄	S ₅	S ₆	S ₇	S ₈	S ₉	S ₁₀	Reference V a l u e (N D W Q S - 2062)
Total <i>Coliform</i>	0	140	120	100	0	180	0	0	0	0	0
<i>E. Coliform</i>	0	80	40	70	0	90	0	0	0	0	0

S₂, S₃, S₄, and S₆ were found to be contaminated with total *Coliform*, which exceeds the NDWQS standards (0 cfu / 100 ml) and 4 samples were contaminated from *E. coli* in taps.

Figure 2

Culture of Escherichia coli bacteria (a) Absense of Bacteria (b) Presense of Bacteria



(a)

(b)

The presence of harmful viruses, protozoa, and helminths can be found in the water as a result of fecal pollution. The danger of intestinal disease-causing infections is increased by the presence of *E. coli* in drinking water (Obire et al., 2008). Direct sewage or municipal waste discharge into surface waters or in open areas close to water sources may be the cause of microbial contamination in drinking water sources. The presence of *coliform* bacteria in treated water samples has been assumed to indicate that the treatment capacity is insufficient for the water samples. It's possible that contamination in the pipelining system, back siphoning, and interruptions in the water delivery pattern are to blame for the presence of *coliform* bacteria in tap water. Being contaminated with *Coliform* may also be the result of negligence.

Discussion

In order to determine the quality of drinking water, the major objective of this study was to assess the chosen quality criteria of the treated water that was made available in Baglung Bazar. Based on Nepal's national drinking water quality regulations, the quality parameters measurements were evaluated.

The analysis revealed that the water sample's mean temperature was 22.3°C. The temperature of the water varied among the samples, with S_6 recording the highest temperature (24.7°C) and S_{10} the lowest (18.9°C). Particularly in the case of tap water, a number of factors, including but not limited to supply pipe condition (underground or above ground), and distance from reservoir, affect water temperature.

In the range of the standard limit at the time of examination, the pH value for filtered water samples ranged from 7.29 to 8.1. Consequently, the samples of water were all alkaline. Nevertheless, the pH of tap water was within NDWQS guidelines. The public's health may be impacted by the pH range of drinking water, which can range from normal (pH 6.8-8.5) to acidic (pH 7.0) or alkaline (pH > 7.0). The NDWQS guideline is fully complied within all 10 of the water sample.

The total ion content of water is determined via electrical conductivity. Waste water contains salts and other impurities, which makes the water more conductive. Due to the presence of dissolved salts and metallic ions, groundwater generally has a high EC (Prakash & Somashekar, 2006). The electrical conductivity of the S_7 , S_3 , and S_8 taps was found to range from 70 to 145 S/Cm during the testing period. Although the existence of additional Ca^{+2} and Mg^{+2} is thought to be the reason for the higher conductivity, this has not been tested. The conductivity levels in each of the selected water samples were around 100 S/Cm. The measured values were within the permitted range of the NDWQS drinking water guideline value.

Water turbidity may result from the mixing of colloidal particles, clay particles, asbestos minerals, organic matter leaching, and residential wastes from many sources. Additionally, manuring practices and agricultural runoff can add to water turbidity (Prakash & Somashekar, 2006).

Water hardness does not have any known negative consequences, although some research suggests that it may contribute to heart disease (Schroeder, 1960). Calcium and magnesium dissolved in water are the main causes of hardness. Industrial wastes and sewage are significant calcium and magnesium sources. The primary effects of hardness are the accumulation of scale and scum as well as the need for more soap to make lather. Although hard water is not thought to be damaging to the general public's health, it can cause issues in commercial settings, including laundry and the water circulation pipes in boilers. The presence of metallic ions, specifically the bicarbonates of calcium and magnesium ions, is what causes the TH in water (Annapoorna & Janardhana, 2015).

The toxicological issues of acute exposure and chronic iron overload are however brought on by excessive iron consumption. Overconsumption of iron (>0.5 g) can result in diabetes mellitus, hormonal imbalances, immune system dysfunction, liver, heart, and lung disorders (Gurzau et al., 2003). In a manner similar to this, high levels of iron cause water to be unappealing due to turbidity, discoloration, metallic taste, and staining of clothing and plumbing fixtures (Kontari, 1998). The range of the iron levels was 0.10 to 0.35 mg/L on average. The S₂ and S₈ showed the highest values, 0.30 mg/L and 0.35 mg/L, respectively. Overall, 3 (30%) groundwater samples exceeded the iron levels recommended by the NDWQS and WHO, which was consistent with earlier investigations (Prasai, 2007; Bajracharya, 2007; Jayana, 2009).

Conclusion

In order to compare various water sources, significant factors like temperature, pH, conductivity, turbidity, total hardness, iron, arsenic, and *coliform* were taken into consideration. The two most worrisome metrics were iron and total *coliform* count. The findings unmistakably demonstrated the declining state of Baglung Bazar's water quality. As a result, the quality of drinking water has decreased, and I have come to the conclusion that treated and tap water are not acceptable for consumption due to inorganic and microbiological pollutants (faces i.e., *E. coli*) that are beyond NDWQS standards. To make water potable, the proper treatment plant should be well scientific, and rigorous adherence to environmental protection laws and regulations is required to preserve groundwater supplies and keep these sources safe from contamination.

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Secondary Level Teachers' Job Satisfaction in Nepal: A Case of three Districts

Shiva Dutta Chapagai

Janajyoti Campus, Tanahun, Tribhuvan University, Nepal

Corresponding Author: *Shiva Dutta Chapagai*; Email: Shivachapagai5@gmail.com

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Abstract

This study investigated the job satisfaction level of the secondary level teachers of Tanahun, Kaski and Chitwan districts in Nepal. Basing on the survey design of quantitative research, method, data were collected from 292 respondents through structured questionnaires. Five-point Likert-scale technique was used for collecting data. Descriptive statistics, independent-samples t-test, and one-way ANOVA test were used to analyze the data. This study found that the majority of respondents were satisfied with the job nature, pay and fringe benefits, members' cooperation to work, and the working environment of a school and in the teaching profession. However, they were not satisfied with the mechanism of school supervision and promotion process and procedures, independent F-test and t-test are satisfied with a 95% confidence level. There is no meaningful difference (P-value is less than 0.05) between teaching experience, gender, and job satisfaction level. The policy makers should consider the view of employee about their job perception at the time of making rules and regulation related to the employee, the government should make clear rules and regulation related to promotion process.

Keywords: Gender, teaching experience, job nature, pay and fringe benefits, mechanism of school supervision

Introduction

In this competitive world, the success of any organization depends on its human resource (Flamholtz, 1999). Job satisfaction represents a combination of positive or negative feelings that workers have towards their work. Meanwhile, when a worker employed in an organization, brings with it the desired needs and experiences which determinates expectations that he/she has dismissed. Job

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satisfaction represents the extent to which expectations are and match the real awards. Job satisfaction is closely linked to that individual's behaviour in the work place (Davis, 1989). Employee-job satisfaction can be achieved through several methods. Managers can work closely with employees to develop better work processes, employees can be given a more significant say in how their job is done and managers can ensure that employees feel changed at their job (Spector, 1997). Understanding the positive impact of job satisfaction on employee productivity will help to justify the time and expenses involved with creating a satisfying workplace (Acharya, 2012). Job satisfaction is closely related to the nature of work, the quality of management and working environment, compensation, promotion opportunities, fringe benefits, bonuses, management, co-workers, working conditions, security condition and communication (Sibbald et al., 2003). Job satisfaction can be defined as the extent to which a worker is content with the rewards he/she gets out of his /her job, particularly in terms of intrinsic motivation (Statt, 2004).

For the success of an organization, it is very important to manage human resources effectively and find whether its employees if they are satisfied or not satisfied, they will work with commitment and project a positive image of the organization of society (Laschinger et al., 2002). Job satisfaction is the attitude of the employees, which gets visible when they are gratified in their work (Griffin, 2013). Job satisfaction is one of the important aspects of organizational effectiveness. If employees are happy and satisfied with the job, they are more likely to work well and stay longer with an organization that developed a positive image of the organization in society (Chapagai, 2011).

Job satisfaction is an important component of improving job performance and maintaining the overall quality of work in any organization. Job satisfaction is an emotional relation to an employee's work condition. Job satisfaction is defined as an overall impression about one's own job in terms of specific aspects of the job (pay, promotion, relationship with co-workers, supervision, work conditions, benefits, contingent rewards, nature of work, communication, participation, performance evaluation system and job in general). Job satisfaction has been defined as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences. Job satisfaction implies doing a job one enjoys, doing it well and being rewarded for one's efforts. Job satisfaction further implies enthusiasm and happiness with one's work. Job satisfaction is the key ingredient that leads to recognition, salary, promotion, and the achievement of other goals that lead to a feeling of fulfillment (Kaliski, 2007). Job satisfaction is important for employees to stay in the organization. Job satisfaction plays a critical role in the overall firm's success. It is known that working conditions have an important impact on the job (Linzer et al., 2009).

Job satisfaction is simply how people feel about their jobs and different aspects of their job. It is the extent to which people like (satisfaction) or dislike (dissatisfaction) their job (Spector, 1997).

Smilansky (1984) observed teachers' work satisfaction and revealed that teachers' general satisfaction with their job (such as relations with a coworker, the process of teaching, and working conditions) rather than administrative. Shrestha (2019) studied to examine the job satisfaction of school teachers across their school-related attributes and revealed that job satisfaction of teachers is influenced by the school type, service periods, nature of the job, salary and allowance, and work environment respectively.

The above study indicates that the teachers who are satisfied with their jobs demonstrate a high level of organizational citizenship behaviour, job performance, commitment, and retention from the job. Teacher job satisfaction is a key factor for quality education. The term 'teachers' job satisfaction' is rarely determined through research. Job satisfaction among school teachers is considered to be one of the crucial aspects in the arena of educational leadership. There has been no systematic, large-scale research or small-scale research which uses an actual test to examine age, gender, education level, years of experience, and psychological indicators in Nepal. The number of secondary schools in Nepal has increased after democracy. Due to the increasing number of secondary schools in Nepal, school academic staff may face more problems in their job as the management is facing competitive pressure from other schools. Almost every school is setting a new goal to compete with other schools and the academic teachers are involved with the ultimate goals. Teacher job satisfaction and well-being have a significant impact on educational outcomes, considering that teaching is the main objective of the educational process. Hence the study provides valuable insight into human resource management decisions concerning the academic staff to create a win-win situation between the academicians and the academic institutions in Nepal. It also provides valuable information to future researchers and academicians. The aim objective of this study is to explore job satisfaction among secondary level teachers in Nepal.

Null Hypothesis

Ho: There is no significant difference between the job satisfaction of male and female teachers.

Ho: There is no significant difference impact of age groups on the job satisfaction level between male and female teachers.

Ho: There is no significant impact of teaching experience on the job satisfaction level of a teaching profession.

Alternative Hypothesis

H₁: There is significant difference between the job satisfaction of male and female teachers.

H₁: There is significant difference impact of age groups on the job satisfaction level between male and female teachers.

H₁: There is significant impact of teaching experience on the job satisfaction level of a teaching profession.

Literature Review

Herzberg's motivational-hygiene theory suggests that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not two opposite ends of the continuum, but rather two separate and, at times, unrelated concepts. For an employee to be satisfied with a job, motivating factors such as pay and benefits, recognition, and achievement need to be met. On the other hand, hygiene factors (i.e. working conditions, job security, interactions with colleagues, and quality management) are related to job dissatisfaction (Herzberg, 1993). The existing literature on job satisfaction can be seen in two ways: situational attitudes and dispositional attitudes. The situational approach believes that the degree of job satisfaction varies according to the characteristics of the job and its environmental factors while the dispositional approach states that the extent of job satisfaction varies by individual human characteristics (Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Herzberg et al., 1993). The objective of the study was to find out the relationship between employee participation, job satisfaction, employee productivity, and employee commitment. The study revealed that increasing employee participation will have a positive effect on employee job satisfaction, employee commitment, and employee productivity (Bhatti & Qureshi, 2007). Crossman and Harris (2006) concluded the significant difference in teachers' overall job satisfaction scores by school type. Teachers in independent and privately managed schools exhibited higher satisfaction levels than in government schools.

The relationship between age and job satisfaction, curvilinear results from the empirical results of this study indicate that the employees who have worked for more than 5 years were more satisfied than the employees with less than 5 years of experience (Luthans & Thomas, 1989). Female teachers were more satisfied with the work and supervision aspects of the job as compared with male teachers (Crossman & Harris, 2006). There was a moderate negative relationship between teacher job satisfaction with operating procedures and years of teaching experience, which means that with increased years of teaching experience, teachers in public schools were less satisfied with their jobs (Gu, 2016).

Shahi (2020) showed that most teachers were highly dissatisfied with their job. Chapagain (2021) showed that the institutional sector, in favour of public institutions, and educational qualifications influence job satisfaction but gender, age, and teaching experience did not affect job satisfaction. Dhammika (2017) found that unionization harmed the job satisfaction of employees ($\beta = -.371, p < .05$). Al-Smadi and Qblan (2015) showed a moderate degree of job satisfaction in general in a teaching profession. Teacher workload, teacher cooperation, and teacher perceptions of students' discipline in school were the factors most closely related to teacher job satisfaction (Toropova et al., 2021). Chaplain and Roland (2008) found that male teachers are more stressed than females on occupational tasks, student behaviour, and attitudes. Women have scored more than men in professional matters. Teachers were more satisfied with their professional performance and less satisfied with working environment. Ortan et al. (2021) found that self-efficacy, promotion, positive student behaviour, and working conditions have significant effects on job satisfaction. Chen (2010) study found that middle school teachers were dissatisfied with their job, younger and junior teachers were more satisfied with their working conditions, but less satisfied with income level. Tadesse and Muriithi (2017) revealed that there were no significant relationship between gender, academic qualification and job satisfaction but closely relationship between working environment and job satisfaction. Although the study about job satisfaction had been done in other countries including in Nepal. However, in Nepal there were no research studies about teacher's job satisfaction in Kaski, Tanahun and Chitwan. Therefore, I did this research to fulfill this gap.

Methods and Procedures

This study used survey design of quantitative research method to investigate the factors influencing the teachers' job satisfaction. All secondary level school of Nepal constituted the population of the study. The sample consisted of Tanahun, Kaski and Chitwan districts from Nepal. Primary data was collected from 292 respondents through Google form sheet. This research utilized Google form sheet to collect primary data. Google form is an application in the form of a template that can be used independently for the purpose of obtaining user information.

The sampling used in this research was a simple random sampling method. The survey was conducted on the teacher of secondary school. A questionnaire was used with several variables related to job satisfaction. The following five-point Likert scaling technique was used for obtaining responses to each question: Strongly agree = SA, disagree = D, undecided = U, Disagree = D, Strongly disagree = SD

Descriptive statistics, independent-samples t-test, and one-way ANOVA test were applied to analyze the data which were directly extracted from the questionnaire. SPSS statistical package version 26.0 was employed for analyzing the data.

Results

In this study, the analysis and interpretation of data, job satisfaction of employees of secondary level teachers were measured with various aspects such as nature of work, mechanism of school supervision, pay and fringe benefits, the promotion process and procedures, cooperation to work, working environment, and teaching profession.

Demographic Analysis

Demographics describe populations and their characteristics. Demographic analysis is the study of a population based on factors such as gender, age, age group and sex. Demographic data refers to socioeconomic information expressed statistically, including education, experience, income and more.

Table 1

Demographic Information of Respondents

Gender of Respondents	
Gender	Percentage
Male respondents	70
Female respondents	30
Respondents age group	
Age Group	Percentage
25-30 years	10.3
30-35 years	22.5
35-40 years	18.5
40-45 years	19
45-50 years	3.7
Above 50 years	26
Level of education of respondents	
Level of education	Percentage
Bachelor degree	19.5
Master degree	75.5
M. Phil degree	3.5
PhD degree	1.5

Experience year of respondents in job	
1-5	7.5
5-10	16.5
10-15	22
15-20	14.5
20-25	18.5
Above 25	14.5

Source: Questionnaire survey 2022

Demographic Analysis

Demographics that describe populations and their characteristics. Demographic analysis is the study of a population based on factors such as gender, age, age group and sex. Demographic data refers to socioeconomic information expressed statistically, including education, experience, income and more.

Table 2

Summation of Global Rating Method of Job Satisfaction

Summation of Global rating area		SA	A	U	D	SD
Nature of work	No	108	176	4	4	
	%	37	60.3	1.4	1.4	
Mechanism of school supervision	No	29	74	59	73	57
	%	9.9	25.3	20.2	25	19.5
pay and fringe benefits,	No	25	145	23	82	17
	%	8.6	49.7	7.9	28.1	5.8
The promotion process and procedures used by my employer are fair	No	24	121	39	92	16
	%	8.2	41.4	13.4	31.5	5.5
Relation with staff members' cooperation to work.	No	80	148	32	32	
	%	27.4	50.7	11	11	
The working environment of a school	No	60	92		140	
	%	20.5	31.5		47.9	
Satisfied in a teaching profession	No	70	153		69	
	%	24	52.5		23.6	

Source: Questionnaire survey 2022 (SPSS)

Table No. 2 shows the frequency distribution of job satisfaction and job factors. Job satisfaction by summation of the Global rating method shows that 37%, 9.9 %, 8.6% , 8.2 % , 27.4% , 20.5 and 24% respondents were strongly satisfied with their job. 60.3%, 25.3 %, 49.7, 41.1%, 50.7 %, 31.3 and 52.5% respondents were satisfied with their job. Respondents were unsatisfied whereas 1.4%, 20.2% 7.9 % 13.4% and 11 % of with their statement. 1.3%, 25 %, 28.1% 31.5% 11 %, 49.9 and 23.6 % of respondents dissatisfied with their job. 0%, 19.5 % 5.8 %, 5.5 %, 0%, 0% and 0% respondents were strongly dissatisfied with their job. From this data, it concludes that the majority of respondents were satisfied with the job nature. 97.3%, 58.3 % the respondents were satisfied with pay and fringe benefits. 78.1 % of respondents were satisfied with staff members' cooperation in work. From the mechanisms of school supervision, only 35.2 % of respondents were satisfied. Only 49.6 % of respondents were satisfied with the promotion process and procedures. 52% of respondents were satisfied with working environment of a school. 76.5 percent respondents were satisfied in a teaching profession.

T-test and F-test to Measure a Satisfaction Level

T-test and F-test to measure a satisfaction level related to nature of work, mechanism of school supervision, pay and fringe benefits, the promotion process and procedure used by employer are fair, relation with staff members' cooperation to work, working environment and satisfied in a teaching profession

Table 3

T-test and F-test to Measure a Satisfaction Level

		Level's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Nature of work	EVA	9.180	0.003	-2.258	290.000	0.025	-0.163	0.072	-0.304	-0.021
	EVNA			-2.394	205.016	0.018	-0.163	0.068	-0.297	-0.029
Mechanism of school supervision	EVA	1.195	0.275	1.111	290.000	0.268	0.180	0.162	-0.139	0.498
	EVNA			1.137	187.319	0.257	0.180	0.158	-0.132	0.492

Salaries and allowance	EVA	0.976	0.324	-0.654	290.000	0.513	-0.093	0.143	-0.375	0.188
	EVNA			-0.670	187.537	0.504	-0.093	0.140	-0.369	0.182
The promotion process and procedures.	EVA	0.001	0.974	1.556	290.000	0.121	0.219	0.141	-0.058	0.497
	EVNA			1.565	179.408	0.119	0.219	0.140	-0.057	0.496
Satisfied with staff members' cooperation to work.	EVA	4.594	0.033	4.147	290.000	0.000	0.461	0.111	0.242	0.680
	EVNA			4.527	220.915	0.000	0.461	0.102	0.260	0.661
The Working environment of a school	EVA	2.396	0.123	-1.179	290.000	0.239	-0.185	0.157	-0.495	0.124
	EVNA			-1.207	187.599	0.229	-0.185	0.154	-0.488	0.118
satisfied in a teaching profession	EVA	3.482	0.063	-1.970	290.000	0.050	-0.263	0.134	-0.526	0.000
	EVNA			-1.939	170.231	0.054	-0.263	0.136	-0.531	0.005

EVA = Equal variances assumed

EVNA = Equal variances not assumed

Table No. 3 concludes that the majority of respondents were satisfied with their job, independent F-test and t-test were satisfied with a 95% confidence level. Nature of work and relation with staff member's cooperation to work was not satisfied in 95% confidence level.

Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U Test

Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U Test is the non-parametric alternative test to the independent sample t-test. It is a non-parametric test that is used to compare two sample means that come from the same population, and used to test where two sample means are equal or not.

Table 4

Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U Test

S.N.	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.
1	The distribution of Nature of work is the same across categories of Gender.	Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U Test	0.007

2	The distribution of the mechanism of school supervision is the same across categories of Gender.	Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U Test	0.265
3	The distribution of Salaries and allowance is the same across categories of Gender.	Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U Test	0.403
4	The distribution of The promotion process and procedures used by my employer are fair. is the same across categories of Gender.	Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U Test	0.109
5	The distribution of satisfaction with staff member's cooperation to work. is the same across categories of Gender.	Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U Test	0
6	The distribution of the working environment of a school is the same across categories of Gender.	Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U Test	0.205
7	The distribution of satisfaction in a teaching profession is the same across categories of Gender.	Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U Test	0.039

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .050.

Table No. 4 shows the independent samples Mann-Whitney U test. The table shows that there is a difference between male and female employee in the nature of the job, staff members' cooperation to work and satisfaction in the teaching profession. Male and females are significant in the distribution of the mechanism of school supervision, distribution of salaries and allowance, promotion process and procedures, and in the working environment no difference between males and females.

Gender-wise Satisfaction Level

Results of descriptive statistics were implemented to test whether there are meaningful differences between male and female teachers in terms of nature of work, mechanism of school supervision, salaries and allowance, promotion process,

member's cooperation to work working environment of a school and satisfaction in a teaching profession

Table 5

Gender-wise Satisfaction Level

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Nature of work	1	200	1.62	0.6	0.04
	2	92	1.78	0.51	0.05
Mechanism of school supervision	1	200	3.25	1.31	0.09
	2	92	3.07	1.23	0.13
Salaries and allowance	1	200	2.7	1.16	0.08
	2	92	2.79	1.09	0.11
The promotion process and procedures used by my employer are fair.	1	200	2.92	1.12	0.08
	2	92	2.7	1.11	0.12
Satisfied with staff member's cooperation to work.	1	200	2.2	0.94	0.07
	2	92	1.74	0.74	0.08
The working environment of a school	1	200	2.7	1.27	0.09
	2	92	2.88	1.19	0.12
Satisfied in a teaching profession	1	200	2.15	1.05	0.07
	2	92	2.41	1.09	0.11

Source: Questionnaire survey 2022 (SPSS)

Table No. 5 demonstrates that most of the variables did not show any significant difference for gender. However, there is a difference in the mean in terms of members' cooperation to work. In this fact, male teachers show higher job satisfaction than females. So, it is said that male teachers were more satisfied with members' cooperation to work aspects as compared with female teachers.

Regression Analysis of Teaching Experience and Satisfaction in a Teaching Profession

Regression analysis is a reliable method of identifying which has impact on topic of interest. The process of performing a regression allows to confidently determine which factors matter most, which factors can be ignored, and how these factors influence each other.

Table 6

Regression Analysis of Teaching Experience and Satisfaction in a Teaching Profession

ANOVA						
Model		Sum of Squares	D.f.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	38.04	1	38.04	16.498	.000 ^b
	Residual	668.656	290	2.306		
	Total	706.695	291			

Regression coefficients of teaching experience and satisfaction in a teaching profession

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	4.494	0.207		21.745	0
	Are you satisfaction in a teaching profession	-0.339	0.084	-0.232	-4.062	0
a. Dependent Variable: Teaching experience						
b. Predictors: (Constant), satisfied in a teaching profession						

Table No. 6 shows that there is no significant impact of teaching experience on the job satisfaction level of teachers. In table No. 6, the result of ANOVA that was implemented to test whether there is the meaningful impact of teaching experience on job satisfaction are given in the table. There is no meaningful difference (P-value is less than 0.05) between teaching experience and job satisfaction level.

Discussion

The majority of respondents were satisfied with their job, the independent F-test and t-test are satisfied with a 95% confidence level. Null hypothesis is connected to the result of study. There is no meaningful difference (P-value is less than 0.05) between teaching experience and job satisfaction level. The results of this study are summarized by linking with different related literature. Kayastha and

Kayastha (2012) found that job satisfaction at higher secondary level school teachers was satisfied in the teaching profession. Dakota et al. (2019) found that nursing faculties have a positive attitude toward their job. Shahi (2020) showed that most teachers were highly dissatisfied with their job. Thadathil (2017) found that overall teachers were highly satisfied with their job. Chapagain (2021) showed that Nepalese academicians are moderately satisfied with their job. Crossman and Harris (2006) showed that a significant difference in satisfaction was found when the data were analyzed by age, gender, and experience of service. The study showed that there was no significant relationship between gender and job satisfaction levels. Tadesse and Muriithi (2017) revealed that there were no significant relationship between gender, and job satisfaction but closely relationship between working environment and job satisfaction. Beyene and Gituma (2017) found that regarding job satisfaction there was no significant relationship between gender and job satisfaction. Shrestha (2018) concluded that demographic variables (gender, job position, and age) influence the level of job satisfaction. Bhati and Ashok (2013) concluded that gender and experience influence the level of job satisfaction. There is no meaningful difference (P-value is less than 0.05) between teaching experience and job satisfaction level. Mondal et al. (2011) found that the teachers of the >25 to ≤35 years age group were less satisfied with job role item than the other two groups. From this finding, it can be said that age has a significant role in job stress and job satisfaction. The mid-age teachers were less satisfied. Bhati and Ashok (2013) concluded that experience were influence the level of job satisfaction. The finding is consistent with the Herzberg Two-factor theory (Herzberg, 1993).

There are some methodological limitations in this study. It used only primary data collected from small size of respondent only from Tanahun, Kaski and Chitwan. It used simple random probability sampling. It used Google form sheet to collect the responded view. This study is based on the perception of the respondent that may vary over time. This study only assessed the views of teachers on issues influencing their job satisfaction. The views and reflection of education stakeholders, using questionnaire were not determined. The study is restricted to the school in Nepal, including only secondary school. Other sectors such as banking, manufacturing, hospital and severe sector were not covered.

Conclusion

This study concluded that the majority of respondents were satisfied with the job nature, pay and fringe benefits, members' cooperation to work, and the working environment of a school and in a teaching profession. But they were not satisfied with the mechanism of school supervision and promotion process and procedures. The majority of respondents were satisfied with their job, and the independent

F-test and t-test showed satisfaction with a 95% confidence level. The majority of male and female respondents were satisfied with the nature of the job, and staff members' cooperation to work and in the teaching profession. Male teachers are more satisfied with staff members' cooperation to work than female teachers but there is no significant difference in nature of work, mechanism of school supervision, salaries and allowance, promotion process, the working environment of a school, and satisfaction in a teaching profession. There is no meaningful difference (P-value is less than 0.05) between teaching experience and job satisfaction level. It should be noted that there are a few limitations in the present study and the findings and conclusions should be interpreted cautiously.

The study was conducted only in government school secondary level teachers in Tanahun, Kaski and Chitwan districts context, and therefore the findings and related conclusions are unable to be compared with the rest of the districts and countries in the world. The sample of the present study consisted of only clerical and related workers of the selected districts. Therefore, the findings may not be relevant to other occupational categories of the public sectors of Tanahun, Kaski and Chitwan districts of Nepal. All variables involved in this study were measured on the response of the employees of the government school.

This study addresses the dearth of research on the issue of the job satisfaction of secondary level school teachers in Nepal. The empirical results shows that the majority of respondents were satisfied with the nature of the job, and staff members' cooperation to work and in the teaching profession but there were unsatisfied with the promotion process. This is a very serious issue, considering that one of the main objectives of the Nepal Ministry of Education is to bring quality education. To achieve this objective, better satisfied and responsible teachers are required. Therefore, in this competitive environment, preparing policy and procedures, the policy makers should consider the view of employee about their job perception. The government should make clear rules and regulation related to promotion process. This study provides information about the influencing factors of job satisfaction of teachers at secondary schools in Nepal. Future research should include the views and the relationship of the job satisfaction and quality of education. Future research should also focus on how school management and leadership practices at secondary school could be improved.

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Appendix

Dear Respondents,

I am a lecturer from Janajyoti Campus. I am conducting a study on the topic: ***Teachers' Job Satisfaction in Secondary Schools***. Thus, the main objective of this questionnaire is only to collect relevant information for this research work. You are, therefore, kindly requested to fill the questionnaire based on the necessary information related to the study. The success of this study directly depends upon your honest and genuine response to each question. Each data you supply will be used only for the purpose of academic issue and also treated with utmost confidentiality.

Instruction: It is not necessary to write your name.

- Your answer should represent your direct feelings.
- Be sure to keep the statement in mind when deciding how you feel about aspect of your job

Be frank. Give a true current picture of your feelings about your job satisfaction

Personal Information

1. School Name:
2. Age..... 3. Gender..... 4. Teaching experience:
5. Education:6. Salary:
7. No. of Training: 8. Average result:
9. Nature of appointment:

Questionnaire

Please, respond to all items given below by putting a tick (✓) in the appropriate space using the following scales:

1 = strongly agree, 2 = agree, 3 = Undecided, 4 = disagree and 5 = strongly disagree

S. N.	Items	1	2	3	4	5
1	I am satisfied to be a teacher.					
2	I enjoy in my work.					
3	Teaching provides me with opportunity to use all my skills and knowledge.					
4	I prefer to continue with teaching profession.					
5	Teaching profession is challenging job for me.					
6	I am interested to provide enough tutorial for different level student					
7	There is fair distribution of work load in teaching.					
8	Provision of job related workshops enhance my academic performance.					
9	Availability of opportunity to attend workshops outside the school increases my knowledge.					
10	Provision of in-service training with in school on various issues enhances my knowledge.					
11	I am satisfied availability of further professional development opportunity.					
12	In my school I am recognized for a job well done.					
13	I get enough recognition from education leader.					

14	I am satisfied with my professional ability to perform my job.					
15	Received academic rewards from school is increased my job satisfaction					
16	I am satisfied with the successes gained by my students.					
17	I am satisfied with autonomy I have in making decisions about my daily tasks					
18	Responsible to raise the awareness of the community.					
19	Freedom to use your judgment in the work.					
20	I feel comfortable with my present level of responsibility in my job.					
21	Fairness promotion opportunities in school.					
22	The promotion process and procedures used by my employer are fair.					
23	The presence of clear school based rule and regulation is satisfied me					
24	Implementation of rule and regulation with in school is satisfied me.					
25	Treatment all teachers equally in the school.					
26	The way principals lead the school is satisfied me.					
27	I am satisfied with involvement of decisions in the school.					
28	School supervisors observe classroom instructions regularly.					
29	School supervisors provide training on various issues.					
30	I am satisfied with the relations of the school management team.					
31	I am satisfied with staff member's cooperation to work.					
32	I am satisfied in relationship with the school students.					
33	I am satisfied in the relation with staff members.					
34	I am satisfied work with relationship of supervisors.					

35	I am satisfied with creating clean, initiating and comfortable working area.					
36	I am satisfied with accessibility of transportation.					
37	I am satisfied with participation in co-curricular activities in school.					
38	I am satisfied with supply of sufficient amount of material, tools for teaching learning process.					
39	I am interested to attend all the time in my instructional class in the school.					
40	Student attitudes towards education in school is enhanced my job satisfaction.					
41	I am satisfied refreshment material of within school					
42	I am satisfied with my salaries and allowance					
43	I am satisfied with student's performance.					
44	I am satisfied with mechanism of school supervision					
45	I am satisfied with the roll of head teacher.					

THANK YOU!



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Impact of COVID-19 Pandemic on Stock Market Returns

Tek Bahadur Madai

Department of Management, Kailali Multiple Campus, Dhangadhi

Far Western University, Nepal

Corresponding Author: Tek Bahadur Madai; Email: tekmadai2068sm@gmail.com

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Abstract

This study examines how COVID-19 epidemic has affected stock returns. A causal-comparative design of quantitative research is used to examine how daily COVID-19 infection and fatality cases affect stock market performance. The analysis found that changes in the daily rate of new infections have had a substantial influence on overall equities returns as well as cross-over stock markets. In contrast, it was found that COVID-19 related deaths had a negative but often insignificant effect. The categorical variable magnitude of the influence on the equity market was determined to be relatively little. With the use of a time series graph and a regression model, the empirical data was examined. The time frame for the study was 100 days from the discovery of COVID-19 cases in the tested countries in 30 countries. The results of this study may be useful to policymakers and stock market investors. Recognizing the limitations of the data utilized in this study, more research can be done using a larger sample size and more sophisticated technique. Additionally, utilizing primary data, a behavioural research of investors' reactions to market reactions throughout the pandemic era may be carried out.

Keywords: Daily death cases, daily infected cases, markets size, share price movement

Introduction

Various pandemics had in the past spread rapidly, killed enormous numbers of people, and disrupted the global economy. End of December 2019 saw the discovery in China of an unidentified sickness with flu-like symptoms. It is the first lethal epidemic to hit the entire world in more than a century. The China Country Office of WHO announced about the instances of an unidentified disease found in Wuhan City

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located in China's Hubei Province, on December 31, 2019. The unidentified sickness spread quickly; China reported 44 case-patients to WHO between December 31, 2019, and January 3, 2020. The National Health Commission of China sent WHO more thorough information on January 12, 2020, showing that the epidemic is related to exposure at a particular seafood market in Wuhan City.

A novel coronavirus identified by Chinese officials was discovered on January 7, 2020 (WHO, Situational Report No. 1, January 21, 2020). The disease was given the COVID-19 moniker, which stands for "coronavirus disease 2019," on February 11, 2020 (WHO, situational report 22; February 11, 2020). First, COVID-19 was an outbreak that started in China at the end of 2019 and expanded quickly until March 2020, when it resulted in a significant number of illnesses and fatalities.

More than 27.28 million individuals have been identified as having the disease as of September 7, 2020; 0.8876 million of these patients have died as a result of the illness, while more than 19.37 million people have been recovered globally; these figures are fast rising. There have been significant interruptions to people's personal life, including lockdowns for a large number of people. Beyond the apparent horrors of illness and death, fear has also had an untold number of indirect effects on individuals all around the world. The economic and financial effects of the corona virus may appear insignificant in comparison to the significant effects it has had on public physical and mental health.

This study observed the impact of COVID-19 pandemic on the stock market of the world. Stock market has been holding immense attention of the academicians, investors and policy makers because it replicates the economic status of the nation. Stock is a portion of the capital, which provides ownership of a firm. The investors invest in the stocks with expectation of returns which is only possible in the price rise of the stocks invested. The stock return depends upon the firm-specific and macroeconomic variables. Stock markets provide indices from which one can know about market situation in brief and its volatility indicates the price movement of stocks in the market.

The price volatility of the stock is highly affected by change in micro and macro- economic variables. Stock market returns affected the major events occurring in the particular nation or in the world. Events occurring on time being have positive or negative impact on stock markets (Fama et al., 1969). Past studies have recognized a number of key events that have affected equity returns, for example, disasters (Kowalewski & Spiewanowski, 2020), sports (Buhagiar et al., 2020), news (Li, 2018), environmental (Alsaifi et al., 2020), and political events (Beauleu et al., 2006). This study examined the effect of a more recent pandemic disease on stock

market returns, specifically the effect of the COVID-19 contagious infectious disease on the world. This newly outbreak disease has affected a large number of people as well as economy of the world. Economic activities are almost stopped, and priority has given to prevent the human beings from infection and cueing the infected people. The return on stock market investment depends upon the performance of the related firm, but when firms are affected by the pandemic and it will reduce the profitability and dividend payment ability and that leads to drop the stock price in the stock market.

The assumption of efficient market hypothesis prevails that investors are rational, and they take their own investment decision on the basis of market information. Event study introduced by Fama et al. (1969) provided useful evidence on how stock prices respond to information. The event (COVID-19) has spread all over the world and its reaction has been seen in the stock market. Gormsen and Koijen (2020) mentioned in their study that stock markets in the European Union and the United States decreased by as much as 30 percent between mid-February and mid-March. S & P BSE Sensex (one of the biggest stock markets of Asia region) which was 42273 points on 20 January 2020 decreased to 29894 points on 08 April 2020.

The stock market's dramatic decline following the COVID-19 outbreak shows that the pandemic has an effect on the market and that investors are reacting to this new development with knowledge. According to Kaplanski and Levy (2010), anxiety may have an impact on investment decisions because it makes people more pessimistic about future returns and less willing to accept risks. An unpleasant sensation brought on by anxiety might influence investing choices and the ensuing returns on assets. The peculiar circumstance created by COVID-19 has created fresh study opportunities.

The influence of the COVID-19 pandemic on stock market returns as determined by the top stock indices of the tested nations and their significant stock markets has been the main subject of this study.

Even in comparison to the Great Financial Crisis of 2007–2008, COVID-19 has shaken the world significantly. However, the effects of COVID-19 on the financial markets have opened up new avenues for study. There haven't been many research studies done in this area because it's a new problem. A number of monetary international organizations and platforms have warned that the recent COVID-19 will have a significant impact on the world economy, maybe even surpassing the impacts of the world economic crisis of 2007 and 2008. World Economic Forum (2020) insisted that globally the coronavirus fright is cruel, compared to the financial crisis in 2007-08.

Abdullah et al. (2020) investigated the significant effect of Coronavirus on stock market return and the study was conducted only taking the stock market of China. In other studies, Liu et al. (2020), Ramelli and Wagner (2020), Sansa (2020), Ding et al. (2020), and Ruiz et al. (2020) found the significant impact of COVID-19 on stock market return. All these references show that COVID-19 is having a significant impact on financial markets around the world. Indicators of the impact of COVID-19 on stock markets are being observed in various financial markets around the world, with the Dow and S&P being the focus in the US. The World Economic Forum (2020) said the Dow and S&P (American stock markets) experienced their biggest daily declines since 1987.

Research conducted to date on the effect of Coronavirus on share market return has focused on only a limited number of stock markets and countries. As such, this study took a large sample of the global stock market based on market capitalization. The effect of Corona has also been studied on a market capitalization basis (i.e. large, mid and small cap), and these efforts provide new insight into the impact of Corona on equity size based markets.

The main objective of this study was to investigate the effect of COVID-19 on stock market returns using data from international stock markets. The following research questions were addressed in order to achieve this objective:

1. How do daily cases of COVID-19 affect stock market returns?
2. How do daily COVID-19 fatality instances affect stock market returns?
3. Does the COVID-19 have a substantial impact on the size of the stock market and stock return?
4. What was the market trend both before and after the COVID-19 outbreak?

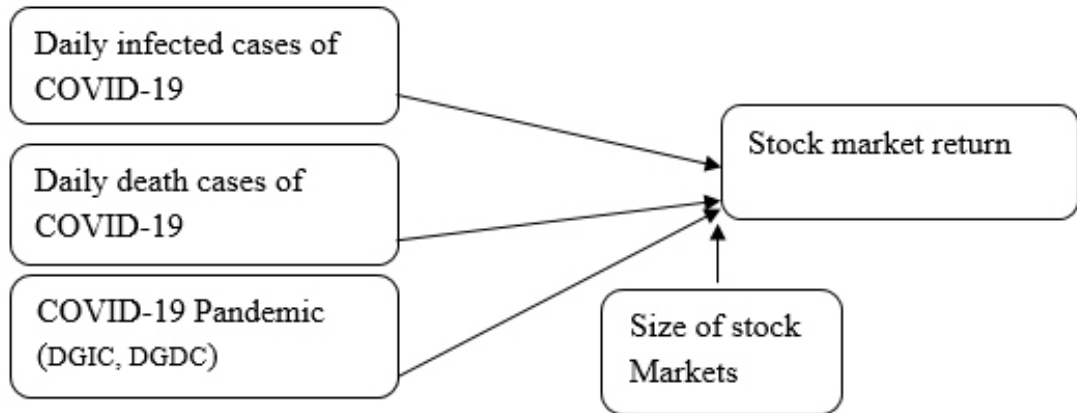
Literature Review

The stock markets have been affected by different events occurring in macro and micro environment of the economy. General assumption about market is that the investors react after getting market information either through additional investment or by withdrawn. The reaction of investors depends upon the good or bad news they received. Same news may be good or bad for investors. If the news is good, the investor makes additional investment in stock market and this leads to increase the market prices. On the other hand, if the news is bad, the investor wants to withdraw the investment made. In this situation, supply of stock rises in the market and stock prices decrease. Hence, the stock market is adjusted through the demand and supply of stocks. The present outbreak pandemic is an event and its impact must be in stock market.

The COVID-19 has badly affected the human-beings in the world, so impact in the stock market must be negative. In this study, there are three variables under study. Stock market return (SR) is a dependent variable and daily growth of infected cases (DGIC) and daily growth of death cases (DGDC) due to COVID-19 are independent variables. The causal relationship between the dependent and independent variables can be shown as follows:

Figure 1

Conceptual Framework



Daily occurrences of COVID-19 infection and daily cases of COVID-19 mortality have been treated as independent variables in the above figure. The return on stocks has been seen as a dependent variable. Market capitalization has been used as a categorical variable to investigate the impact of stock market size. Daily infections with COVID-19 and fatal instances have been reported. Since just operational days' worth of stock prices were accessible, this study used the assumption that investors made investment decisions based on the information that was available the previous operating day.

Empirical Studies

Some empirical studies have been reviewed related to impact of COVID-19 on financial market. There were so many studies conducted on the impact of the COVID-19 on stock market returns. Wang (2013) conducted research to analyze impact of global financial crisis of 2007-2009 on East Asian stock markets. The research also looked at how interdependencies among the six major East Asian stock markets changed throughout the course of the global financial crisis from 2007 to 2009. The study evaluated their relationships with the USA before and throughout the global financial crisis of 2007–2009. This study found that the crisis has strengthened the linkages among stock markets in East Asia. The analysis demonstrates that the

East Asian stock markets were less sensitive to the shocks in the USA following the crisis.

A study by Liu et al. (2020) looked at the short-term effects of the Corona Virus on the stock market indexes of the afflicted nations in Asia, America, and Europe. The event study and panel fixed effect regression analysis methods were used to obtain the results, which show that the stock markets in the key impacted nations and regions saw a sharp decline following the viral epidemic. Asia-Pacific nations have greater negative anomalous returns than other regions.

Al-Awadhi et al. (2020) conducted research to examine COVID-19's impact on stock market returns. This investigation examined the potential influence of contagious infectious diseases on stock market performance. The impact has been investigated using panel data analysis. The study's findings show that the daily increase in the total number of confirmed cases and the number of COVID-19 related fatalities significantly lowered stock returns for all types of companies.

Sansa (2020) examined the impact of the corona virus on the security markets of USA and China by collecting samples from March 1 through March 25, 2020. By using the basic regression model, the researcher discovered that COVID-19 had a large influence on the stock market of the studied nation.

Shapkota (2020) investigated how epidemic infectious diseases and fatalities affected stock returns. The new instances of the coronavirus that have been detected have had a significant influence on the financial markets, according to the causal-comparative study addressing the impact of the pandemic COVID-19 on stock return. In contrast, COVID-19 mortality was shown to have a detrimental but largely minor impact. The categorical variables geographic region, restrictions, and country-specific impact were all found to have relatively low values. This data covers daily COVID-19 infection and mortality cases from 20 January to 30 May. China, India, Israel, Japan, Korea Republic, Malaysia, Saudi Arabia, and the United Arab Emirates were the eight countries from which the sample was drawn.

All previous empirical studies have used smaller samples than those used in this study. Thus, the conclusions of this study are based on results from a large sample. This research evaluates the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on stock market performance. Similarly, this study has also looked into COVID-19's effect depending on the size of stock markets. Compared to other relevant research, these two things are distinctive. Studies on the effect of COVID-19 on equity market returns have been undertaken by Wang (2013), Al-Awadhi et al. (2020), and Papadamou et al. (2020). However, only a small number of stock markets were included in each of the study's samples.

Methods and Procedures

This study employed the quantitative research approach with descriptive and causal-comparative research design. Since the objective of this study was to determine how COVID-19 affected stock market returns, the causal link between daily coronavirus infections and deaths and stock market returns was investigated. The necessary information was gathered from the World Health Organization's (WHO) official website, <https://www.worldometers.info/coronavirus>, the World Bank's official website, <https://data.worldbank.org>, and <http://inesting.com>, a dependable source of stock market information.

The judgmental sampling approach was used to choose the nations and stock exchanges. The countries and stock markets under study were chosen on the basis of their market capitalization. The target population of the study was 213 COVID-19 affected countries till June 30, 2020 (WHO, situational report-137) but the stock markets indices of all these countries could not be available due to a lack of sophisticatedly developed stock markets, and some markets remained closed due to the lockdown done by the perspective government. Hence, only 94 countries were available to get the required data. Therefore, 94 countries of the world were the populations of the study, and among them, 30 countries were selected on the basis of the size of stock markets.

For the selection of the countries, they were classified into three clusters on the basis of their market capitalization (i.e. large size, medium size, and small size) with ten countries from each group on the basis of decile (top ten, middle ten, and lower ten). The stock markets of the 30 sampled countries were chosen for the study of stock market returns. Stock market indices of four months before and six months after the COVID-19 outbreak were chosen to observe the trend of stock market indices and 100 days daily confirm cases and death cases were taken from 30 selected countries when the COVID-19 first case was identified in the particular country. Sampled countries, stock markets, and market capitalization have been given in table 1.

Table 1

Selected Countries, Market Capitalization and Stock Markets under Studies

S.N.	Country	Market Cap. (In Billion)	Abbreviation	Market Cap. (In billions)
Large Size Markets				
1	United States	41000	NYSE composite	22,923
2	Japan	6191	Nikkei225	5670

3	China	8516	SSE	5010
4	United Kingdom	4590	FTSE All Shares	4590
5	Australia	4702	AORD	4,026
6	Saudi Arabia	2407	TASI	2365
7	France	2366	CAC40(FCHI)	2,095
8	India	2180	BSE Sensex30	2,056
9	Germany	2098	DGAXI	2098
10	Canada	1938	GSPTSE	1938

Medium Size Markets

1	Pakistan	92	KSE	92
2	Bahrain	77	BAX	77
3	Bangladesh	77	DSEX	77
4	Morocco	65	MASI	65
5	Portugal	62	PSI20	62
6	Egypt	44	RGX30	44
7	Nigeria	44	NSE30	44
8	Czech Republic	41	PX	41
9	Argentina	39	MERV	39
10	Hungary	33	BUX	33

Small Size Markets

1	Lebanon	8	BLOM Stocks	8
2	Malta	5	MSE	5
3	Ukraine	4	PFIS	4
4	Cyprus	4	Cyprus Main Stocks	4
5	Venezuela	4	IBVC	4
6	Zambia	3	LSE All Shares	3
7	Botswana	3	DCIBT	3
8	Zimbabwe	2	INDZI	2
9	Costa Rica	2	IACR	2
10	Serbia	2	BELEX 15	2

Source: - <https://data.worldbank.org>.

Models

The panel regression method was used to look at how the epidemic affected stock returns. Al-Awadhi et al. (2020) used a panel regression technique to evaluate two measures, namely, daily cases of COVID-19 and daily mortality cases related to the infection. Hausman test was conducted to identify the model and the random effect model was appropriate for the study.

Time Series Plots

A time series plot is a series of numeric data points that plot observations against time. These are similar to x-y graphs, but x-y graphs can plot any type of x variable, while time series graphs can only plot time variables on the x-axis. These charts do not have categories such as pie charts and bar charts. These graphs show how data changes over time. This study used time series charts to observe the behaviour of stock indices before and after the COVID-19 eruption. SPSS statistics 20 version and Gretl software were used to draw the result and analysis of data.

Econometric model

$$SR_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 (DGIC)_{it} + \beta_2 (DGDC)_{it} + u_{it} \dots \dots \dots (I)$$

Where,

SR_{it} = Stock Return of i^{th} stock market at time t

$DGIC_{it}$ = Daily growth of infectious cases due to COVID-19 of i^{th} stock market at time t .

$DGDC_{it}$ = Daily growth of death cases due to COVID-19 of i^{th} stock market at time

β = Slope

u_{it} = Error term

Models for Regression Using Categorical Dummies

$$SR_{it} = \alpha_1 (\text{large dummy})_{1i} + \alpha_2 (\text{medium dummy})_{2i} + \alpha_3 (\text{small dummy})_{3i} + \beta_1 (DGIC)_{it} + \beta_2 (DGDC)_{it} + \varepsilon_{it} \dots \dots \dots (II)$$

Where, Large dummy = Dummy variable of large size stock markets and one for the large size markets and zero for others.

Medium dummy = Dummy variable of medium size stock markets and one for the medium size markets and zero for others.

Small dummy = Dummy variable of small size stock markets and one for the small size markets and zero for others.

These dummies have been created to inspect the impact of COVID-19 on equity markets according to the size of markets.

Results

The session presents the empirical results of the study. Data and result from the software have been presented in the forms of table, and graphs and analyzed to draw the conclusion of findings. The result of summary statistics, correlation matrix, panel regression, and time series plot are mentioned and analyzed to achieve the objective of the study.

Table 2

Summary Statistics of Variables under Study

Variables	Mean	Median	Minimum	Maximum	S.Dev.	Skewness	Kurtosis	N
DGIC	0.1103	0.0347	0.0000	15.0000	0.3884	22.9380	775.7080	3000
DGDC	0.0701	0.0000	0.0000	8.0000	0.2307	16.3670	484.2730	3000
SR	-0.0003	0.0000	-0.1559	0.1855	0.0226	-0.0360	11.6460	3000

Due to the patients' quick development, variations in the daily growth of infected and death cases from COVID-19 are more variable than stock returns, which have altered at a regular rate. The highest changes in infected cases and death cases were recorded at 15, or 1500%, and 8, or 800%, respectively. The largest measured change in the stock return was 0.1855 (18.55 percent). Due to the considerable volatility in daily COVID-19 infection cases and death cases in the studied nations, the daily rise of infection cases and death cases is positively skewed whereas the stock market return is negatively skewed. The fast spread of the illness has greatly distorted the statistics from DGIC and DGDC.

Table 3

Correlation between Variables

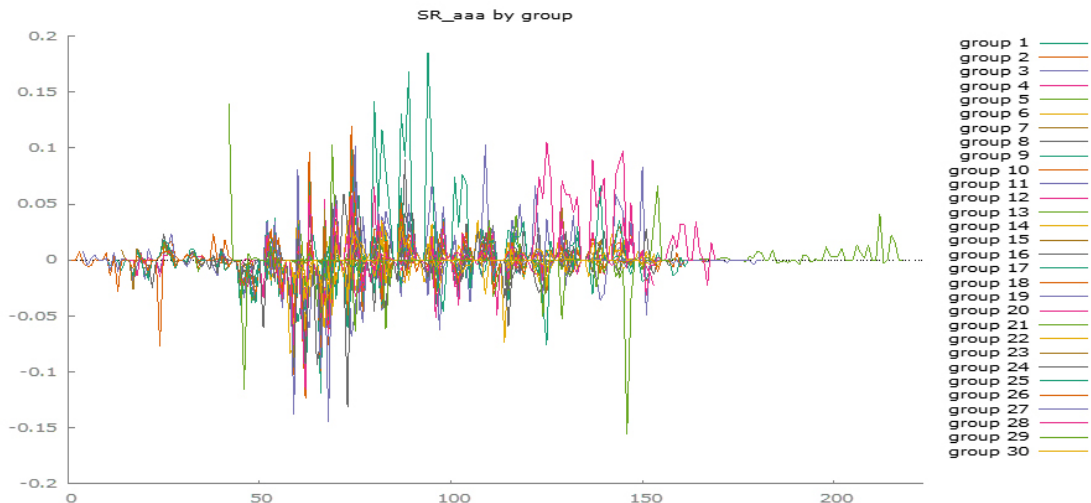
Variables	DGIC	DGDC	SR
DGIC	1	0.075**	-0.038*
DGDC		1	-0.009
SR			1

*The signs, **, * indicates significant at 10 and 5 percent level of significance (2-tailed).*

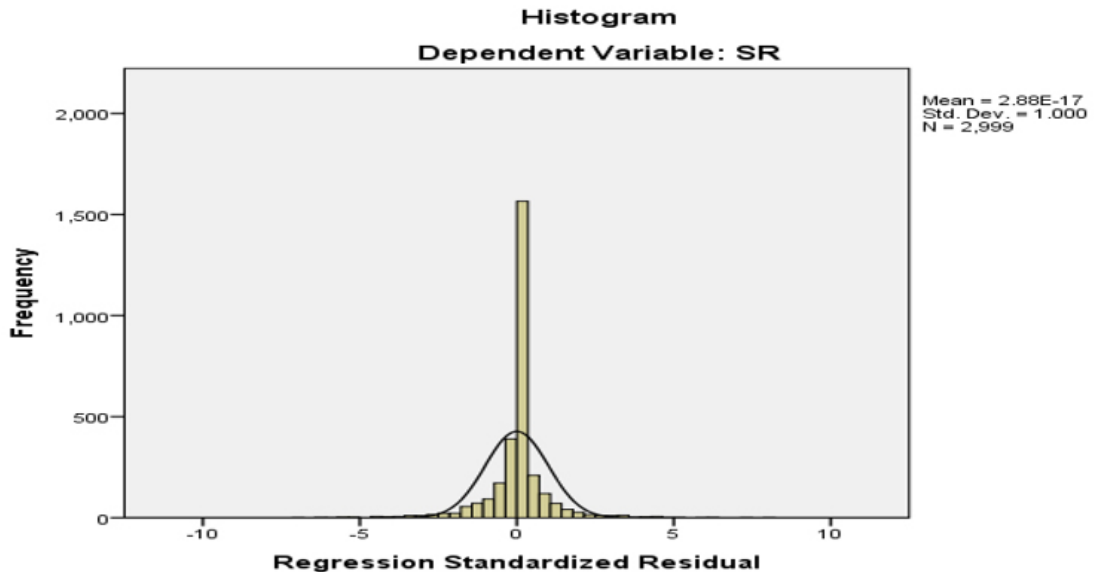
Table 3 displays the relationship between stock return, COVID-19 infection, and COVID-19 mortality cases. Stock return and COVID-19 infection and mortality cases have a poor and unfavorable correlation. The low correlation demonstrated a poor link between variables, while the negative correlation coefficient suggested an inverse relationship between the variables. The likelihood of multi-collinearity between independent variables is decreased by this evidence. The inverse association shows that stock market returns fall when COVID-19 infection and mortality rates rise, and vice versa. In terms of the stock market return, the variable DGIC has a greater coefficient than the variable DGDC. It suggests that the daily increase in infected cases has had a greater impact on stock market return than death cases.

Figure 2

Panel Plot of Stock Return (dependent variable)



The dependent variable stock return's panel plot reveals that it was less volatile in the early and later periods and more volatile in the middle. When COVID-19 was discovered in the country under investigation, it was in the middle of the period. This data demonstrates that when coronavirus-positive cases were discovered in a particular country, the stock market return of that nation experienced significant volatility. These levels of volatility demonstrate how the epidemic has affected stock market results.

Figure 3*Normality of Residuals*

The residuals' normality plot is shown in Figure 2. Except for a few outliers, the data were regularly distributed. The rise of infected patients was rapid in the beginning. The testing boundaries are what determine the new identification of COVID-19 instances. The likelihood of receiving fresh infected cases increase as the government widens the testing borders and vice versa. Consequently, it makes sense to have some outliers.

Table 4*Regression Results of Stock Return and Confirmed and Death Cases of COVID-19*

Models(Random-effects)	Constant	DGIC	DGDC
Model:1	-5.595750	-0.002097	-0.000171
(Overall)	(0.9377)	(0.0477 **)	(0.9239)
Model:2	-6.715860	-0.002104	
(DGIC)	(0.9240)	(0.0464 **)	
Model:3	-0.000269		-0.000427
(DGDC)	(0.6993)		(0.8110)

*The signs *, **, and *** denote the results are significant at 10%, 5% and 1% level of significance respectively. The parenthesized values are p-value of z test.*

Note: This table demonstrates panel regression results of dependent and explanatory variables. Stock return is a dependent variable and changes in confirmed and death cases of COVID-19 are independent variables. The result is based on overall stock markets (data from 30 stock markets) using a random-effects model of panel regression.

Using Hausman Test, the random-effect model has been shown to have a better fit to the data than pooled OLS and fixed-effect models. The findings indicate that the modifications in daily situations have a significant and detrimental effect on stock return. This suggests that the stock return has dropped if the COVID-19 infected cases have increased. The effect of this illness on the economy might be the cause. All economic activity will have declined if the epidemic expanded widely, which leads to unemployment. Investment activities were impacted when the people's sources of income ceased. Demand and supply for stocks are impacted by an uncertain economic climate. As a result, there is a low demand for stocks and a big supply, which drives down stock prices and returns. Negative effects of COVID-19-related deaths have been noted. This means that stock return would decline as the number of deaths rose. The fact that the mortality rate from this sickness was discovered to be 3.4 percent, which is much lower than the recovery rate, may be the cause of the minimal impact that has been noticed. Furthermore, the likelihood of the coronavirus-infected patient recovering is quite high. The investors had therefore displayed their responses before the sickness rather than following its demise. However, the government has offered this disease's patients free medical care. So, with the support of the government and from different helping hands it is easy to survive of the people.

Table 5

Panel Regression Results on the Basis of Size of Stock Markets

Models[Random-effects]	Constant	DGIC	DGDC
Model:1	-0.000665	-0.004012	-0.005047
(Large size)	(0.4553)	(0.1867)	(0.0447 **)
Model:2	-0.001070	-0.000859	0.006930
(Medium size)	(0.1562)	(0.4660)	(0.0577 *)
Model:3	0.001609	-0.009181	0.013928
(Small size)	(0.3375)	(0.0047 ***)	(0.0012 ***)

The signs, **, and *** denote the results are significant at 10%, 5% and 1% level of significance respectively. The parenthesized values are p-value of z test.*

Note: The stock return is a dependent variable and changes in infected and death cases of COVID-19 are independent variables. The results are based on the size of stock markets (large, medium, and small) using a random-effects model of panel regression. The coefficient and p-value of independent variables have shown in the table.

Table 5 presents effect of pandemic as per size of stock markets. Indicating that the COVID-19 pandemic has affected stock markets of all sizes, but not equally, is the coefficient of DGIC, which is negative for all stock market sizes. This is because the small-size market's coefficient is higher than that of the other sizes. It indicates that the small-size markets have more impact than others. Evidence suggests that investors in large-cap stock markets are more reactive to death than infection, as these markets are more influenced by death cases than infected instances. The large-size stock markets are less affected by daily infection in comparison to medium and small-size stock markets.

Table 6

Panel Regression Results of Size Dummies

Models[Random-effects]	Coefficient	Z-values	P-value
Constant	-0.00041	-0.3339	0.7384
DGIC	-0.002035	-1.9200	0.0548 *
DGDC	3.527480	0.0196	0.9843
MCapDL(large cap. dummy)	-0.001011	-0.5840	0.5592
MCapDS(small cap. dummy)	0.002019	1.1650	0.2440

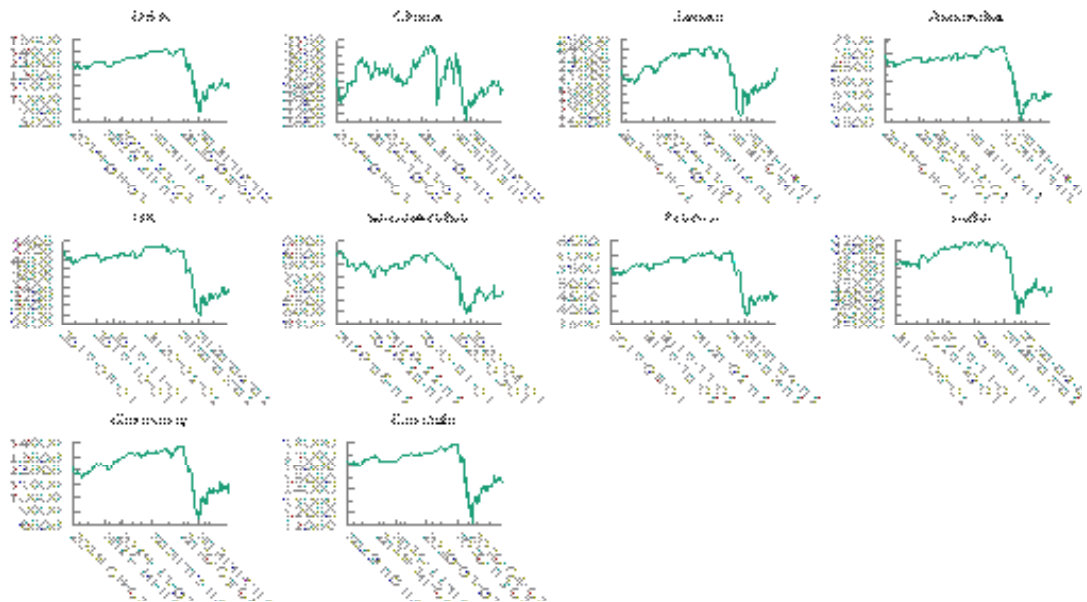
The signs, **, and *** denote the results are significant at 10%, 5% and 1% level of significance respectively. The parenthesized values are p-value of z test.*

Note: The regression results considering stock return as a dependent variable and confirmed and death cases of COVID-19 are independent variables with market capitalization size dummies.

The categorical variable size of stock markets has demonstrated a negligible influence on the stock return from COVID-19 infection cases and fatalities. According to this data, there is no difference between categorical variable stock market size as measured by market capitalization and the causal association between stock return and the COVID-19 pandemic sickness. This epidemic has had a major impact on every stock market in the world. The results of this study are in line with (Bowes, 2018), who asserts that economic uncertainty causes stock markets to be volatile. Because big stock markets are more advanced and established than medium stock markets, their coefficient is negative, indicating that they have less of an influence on COVID-19. Since the small-size market's coefficient is positive, the outcome demonstrates that tiny stock markets are more impacted than medium-sized markets.

Figure 4

Time Series Plot of Large Size Stock Market Indices before and after the COVID-19

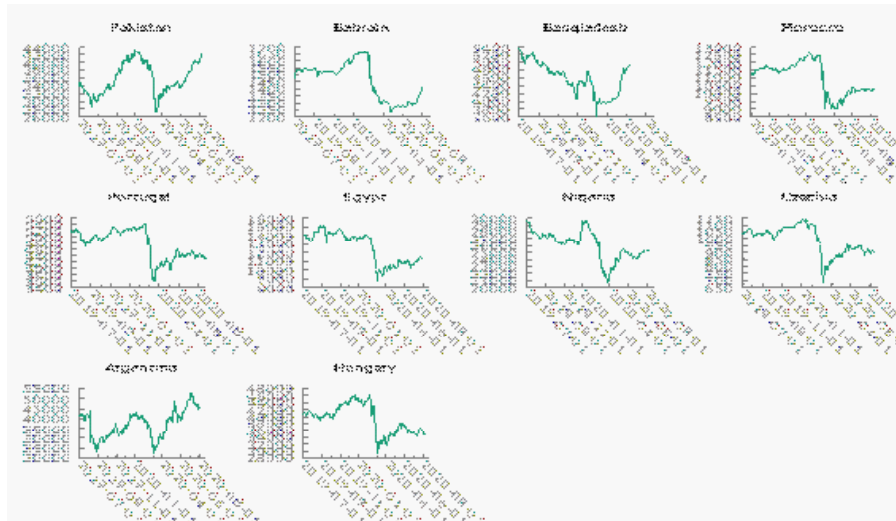


Note: This figure shows the time series plot of large size stock market indices before and after the COVID-19 cases identified in the particular countries. Objective of this figure is to observe the movement of large size stock markets before and after the COVID-19 outbreak.

Figure 4 depicts the movement of stock markets of large size capital like USA, China, Japan, Australia, UK, Saudi Arabia, France, India, Germany and Canada, before and after the COVID-19 outbreak. The COVID-19 was seen at the end of December 2019 in China and then after spillover in the other countries after January 2020. From the above figure it is clear that the stock markets of the under studies countries has been highly decreased after the COVID-19 infection identified in particular country. In the figure the stock market indices severely decreased after the months of March 2020 in every stock market. The stock market of China has more fluctuated than other countries. Hence, after analyzing above graphs it can be conclude that there has been great impact of COVID-19 on large size stock market returns.

Figure 5

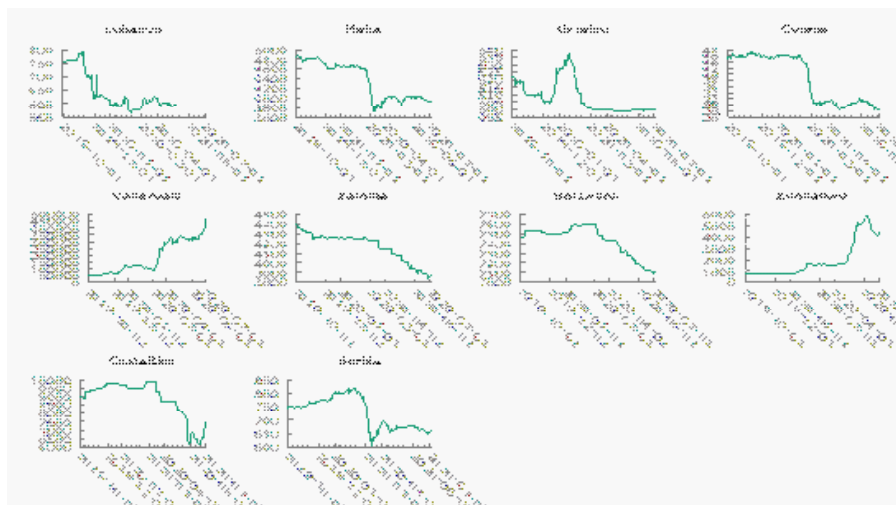
Time Series Plot of Indices of Medium Size Stock Markets before and after the COVID-19 Cases Identified in the Particular Countries



spread in these countries. All the stock markets trend line has rapidly declined after the corona virus infected cases conformed in the particular nation and shows slowly increasing thereafter. From this graph it is clear that there was severe influence of COVID-19 on these stock markets. The stocks markets were started to decline at the end of December because at that time the corona virus identified in China.

Figure 6

Time Series Plot of Indices of Small Size Stock Markets before and after the COVID-19 Cases Identified in the Particular Countries



Note: The objective of presenting this figure is to observe the trend of small size stock market indices before and after the COVID-19 pandemic outbreak.

Figure 6 shows the stock market movement of small size countries before and after the COVID-19 pandemic spread. The time series presentation of stock market indices of countries like Ukraine, Zambia, Botswana, and Costa Rica have been gradually declining trend because COVID-19 confirm cases in these countries were identified at the end of the first quarter of the year 2020. The stock market trend in Venezuela and Zimbabwe is increasing trend which shows there is no effect of coronavirus on stock markets. But some of the countries with small size market capitalization have been severely affected and their trend line suddenly declined after the coronavirus infection was identified.

Discussion

The aspiration of this study is to determine how the COVID-19 epidemic has affected stock market returns. Descriptive statistics and a panel data regression model were used to collect and evaluate the necessary data in order to fulfill the study's goal. Following is a discussion of key findings of the study:

The study's variables include stock market returns, COVID-19 daily mortality cases, and daily infected cases. The dependent variable is the stock market return, while the independent variables are the number of infections and fatalities. The correlation coefficient has been calculated to look at how independent and dependent variables relate to one another. According to the association analysis, there was a substantial (at 1% and 5% level of significance) negative link between stock market return and COVID-19-related factors. It suggests that COVID-19 and stock market return have a negative correlation. This outcome is aligned with the research of Al-Awadhi et al. and Shapkota (2020).

The panel regression random effect model has been used to determine the influence so as to quantify the impact of COVID on stock market returns. When taking into account all 30 stock markets, the DGIC coefficient is discovered to be negative and significant at the 5% level. This finding shows that daily COVID-19 infections have a substantial negative influence on stock market performance, and the study's null hypothesis is rejected since there is compelling data to support the alternative hypothesis. This study suggests that the COVID-19 pandemic infection is more concerning to stock market investors than fatalities brought on by the corona virus.

The regression result of DGDC of overall (30 stock market) shows the negative insignificant coefficient. It means that daily death of COVID-19 has insignificant negative impact on stock market returns. The null hypothesis, according

to which there is no discernible effect of COVID-19 mortality cases on stock market returns, cannot be rejected.

According to the size of stock markets (i.e. large, medium, and small size), it is found that the small size stock markets are found more affected (high negative significant coefficient of DGIC) than large and medium size stock markets. The large size stock markets are found considerably affected by the COVID-19 death cases. This finding shows that the investors of the large size stock markets are more sensitive in COVID-19 death rather than infection.

The study's findings suggest that there is a size effect in the influence of COVID-19 on stock market returns, with medium size stock markets being more affected than big and less affected than small size. The claim that the market size has no appreciable influence on COVID-19's effect on stock market return is thus refuted.

To observe market trends, one purpose of this work is to plot stock market indexes across time. After observing the pattern of stock market indices before and after COVID-19, it makes clear that there is sever influence of corona virus on stock market returns; the stock markets were operating smoothly before January 2020 (before COVID-19). There was not much fluctuation in the sampled stock markets till the end of December 2019. But after January 2020, the stock markets were declined in the countries when the COVID-19 infected cases identified.

Main causes behind the fluxion of stock markets were COVID-19 pandemic. Due to uncertainty of the economic environment the stock market investors wanted to make them save. So, they had drawn their investment from stick markets. Because of high supply and low demand of stocks, the price of the stock declined day by day for some time. But this situation did not remain for long time because investment opportunities became limited due to the lockdown. Hence, number of investors increased in the stock markets and started to recovery position. The results of this investigation are consistent with those of (Al-Awadhi et al., 2020; Bowes, 2018; Liu et al., 2020).

Conclusion

The purpose of this investigation is to look at how the COVID-19 epidemic has affected stock market performance. A causal comparative research design was used to perform this study. Descriptive statistics, regression analysis and time series plot have been employed as the major tools for analysis. The study has covered 100 days data of stock market indices, daily growth of infected and death cases from the COVID-19 infection first case identified in the 30 sampled countries. The correlation between stock return and variations in daily infected cases and this disease's mortality has been studied on a global and cross-national scale. Additionally,

categorical dummies were used to assess the effects of the categorical variable stock market size based on market capitalization.

Based on the data, it was shown that the pandemic's effects on stock returns were significantly impacted by fluctuations in the number of newly infected patients each day, both globally and across national borders. Although not significantly, the COVID-19 fatalities had a detrimental effect. COVID-19 is influenced by the stock market's categorical variables' magnitude. After January 2020, the stock markets saw greater volatility than they did in the last quarter of 2019.

It is discovered that the COVID-19 pandemic sickness negatively affects stock market results after analyzing the thirty stock market indexes throughout the world at the time of the outbreak. In particular, the daily expansion of COVID-19-infected patients is highly inversely correlated with market returns. Policymakers and stock market investors may find the study's findings valuable. Given the limits of the data used in this study, more research can be conducted with a bigger sample size and a more advanced methodology. A behavioral study of investors' responses to market movements during the pandemic era may also be conducted using primary data.

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From Fighting to Flying: Women Leadership in Private Schools of Kathmandu Valley

Ramila Subedi

PhD Scholar, Kathmandu University School of Education, Nepal

Milan Shrestha

PhD Scholar, Graduate School of Education, Tribhuvan University, Nepal
Researcher, LELAM TVET4Income Project, Kathmandu University School of Education

Corresponding Author: *Milan Shrestha*; Email: milan@kusoed.edu.np

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Abstract

This article unveils the stories of women who have been standing as leaders in private schools of Kathmandu Valley. The purpose of the study was to uncover how women leaders faced challenges on their leadership journey, and how they coped with those challenges. Interpretivism was adopted as the research paradigm using narrative research design. Three women leaders from private schools of Kathmandu Valley were selected purposively and the open-ended questions were used to assemble their narratives. The narratives of the women were unfolded through our engagement in the process of storytelling and reflection. The study unveiled that the women, who appear to be sophisticatedly handling leadership positions in their particular organizations, are hovered around by different challenges. Moreover, their stories present the challenges they have gone through so as to reach where they are; and how they have applied mechanisms to cope with the challenges that appeared on their way. The challenges on the women's way, as suggested by their stories, were connected to the discourse of gender while they had utilized their willpower and passion, professional integrity and altruism as mechanisms to cope with the challenges. Nonetheless, the study even hints that some challenges are tough to be bounced back since they are deeply rooted to social mentalities.

Keywords: Equality, social justice, subjectivity, narrative

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Introduction

This section sets background of the study. Starting with our inspiration to conduct the study, it presents purpose of the study and research questions. Besides, the study also provides an overview of women and leadership, and elucidates the gap pertaining to the agenda of women leadership in educational landscape.

Setting the Stage

She stands, smiles, moves ahead in heels
She conveys, convinces, says recklessly what she feels!
Standing- says is an epitome, resting upon bed of roses
Avoiding what she has to be, confidence is what she possesses!
A wo-man, born not to be a man!
A wo-man, never to be a man!!

My stories are the hymns I composed on my mine
Of the thorns that I was given with, to roses that I converted into divine!
Patience, compassion, confidence, feeling what she feels
Assembling all hurdles with care, I do stand on heels!
A WOMAN, born to be a WOMAN!
A WOMAN, I move firmly, I'm a WOMAN!!!

(First Author)

The lines I (first author) scribbled above elucidate my (first author) stance as an educational leader, and the narratives that laid foundation to the journey I traced so as to stand, and be applauded as a woman worth being followed. Utilizing media res as rhetorical device, I present how my positionality of being a confident and determined individual is perceived as a paradox in itself, and move to my journey that started with a number of judgments, hinderances and diversions. It was the first time at the age of 22 when I had openly violated the protocol defined by my in-laws and decided firmly to come out. *"Do you think you are doing right?"*, asked my husband with great confidence. *"Yes!!!"* I replied. With their eyes appallingly open, his parents started staring at me as I was putting on my shoes. The shoes were not just shoes for me; the particular pair of heels was something that I had been longing for years; for a decade, I must say. After continuous debates within myself, I had made up my mind to love myself, free myself, and come out of the bondage of suffocating obligations. And the pair of heels had stood as something with which I was going to start the campaign of change! I knew the world would find me in the

dilemma of 'fight or flight'. However, since I had to fight and fly, I decided not to step back. I had to make a change to acquire my real self, and I moved ahead!

My experience says that being acknowledged as a leader is something many individuals desperately dream of. The dream of leadership, in the words of Bennis (2009), is related to power, money, and fame. For many, leading is all about authority as leadership connotes to making decisions and executing them (Snowden & Boone, 2007). The same relatedness, since ages, has led to bypassing women from leadership discourse. The bypass appears apparently in the perception that unlike men who are agentic in nature, women are highly communal and lack controlling and decisive capability (Eagly & Steffen, 1984). However, the attempt of bypassing my stance from leadership premise appeared in a different way.

The way I stood in heels, and exhibited outspokenness led many towards cynicism that my stance must have sprung out of the bed of roses. Amid the encouragement I showered to my pupils to keep moving no matter what, I received the perceptions that I must have come out of a cocoon and start preaching 'striving to thrive'! These remarks, at times, made me feel like yelling and letting the world know how I walked along the path covered with thorns and rocks so as to reach under the canopy of acknowledgement. But as I listened to my co-author's narration of his sister's journey to being established as an early childhood practitioner, and the judgments she has been going through at present, we got a sense that the story of fighting and flying might not be my story or the story of his sister alone.

With a consensus that challenges and realities form a basic discourse of life, and the definition of these realities comes out more individually (Khan & MacEachen, 2021), we started our research journey. The journey started with review of literatures that hinted to us that people may merely describe the challenges of women's leadership with much alliteration but cannot feel the real obstacles that each woman feels realistically (Elmuti et al., 2009). While making attempts to climb higher, I sensed that becoming a successful leader in society is challenging, and it is more challenging when you are a woman, a young woman. The challenges, however, are again subjective. Being a young woman activist, Malala faced immense hardships (Lodice, 2020). She, in a sense, rose from death to succeed at her young age. Bidhya Devi Bhandari (the first woman president of Nepal)'s leadership journey in the similar way, is of her kind and has emerged from her context with many adversities starting with stereotypes to a continuous judgment of her roles (Upreti et al., 2020). The subjectivity we sensed in stories of Malala and Bidhya Devi Bhandari stimulated our enthusiasm to listen to stories of other women who have earned acknowledgement as successful educational leaders; and we ended up with a consensus to unveil narratives pertaining to leadership journey of women who are running private schools in Kathmandu Valley.

The purpose of the study was to unveil the narratives of women who are leading private schools in Kathmandu Valley. It basically focused on uncovering what challenges women had to go through, and how they coped with challenges in the pursuit of leadership. To fulfill the purpose of the study, the study was guided by two research questions:

1. How do the women, who are leading private schools in Kathmandu Valley, narrate the challenges they came across in their leadership journey?
2. How do they articulate coping with the challenges so as to attain leadership?

Literature Review

Women and Leadership: An Overview

The discourse of women and their positionality in leadership has earned immense popularity since ages. The popularity appears apparently in the portrayal of women like Rani Laxmi Bai from India, who is celebrated as defender to her state's sovereignty (Wolpert, 2004 as cited in Lundin, 2015) and Joan of Arc from France whose incorporation of leadership into her pious and visionary power had become threatening force to England and France during the fifteenth century (Ha, 2017). Amid this portrayal of women in leadership landscape, the question of whether qualitative differences exist between male and female leaders (Gipson et al., 2017) fascinated us. So as to fathom the mystery in this question, we reviewed studies that were made on women leaders, and understood that these studies have focused mostly on stereotypes, prejudice and discrimination to define gender differences in the discourse of leadership (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Heliman, 1983; Rudman & Glick, 2001 as cited in Gipson et al., 2017).

In our attempt of understanding the discourse of women and leadership, we turned the pages that connected to origin of leadership theories. These pages took us to the concept of 'Great Man', which, in Ololube's observation stated to masculinity or military leadership (Ololube, 2013 as cited in Dwivedi, 2016). The connotation of leadership to masculinity, however, was challenged by the findings of meta- analysis of studies comparing leadership styles of men and women that showed women to be more inter- personally- oriented and democratic compared to men (Eagly & Johnson, 1990).

When it comes to representation of men and women in leadership roles, there comes the assumption that men and women tend to act like polar opposites where women lack the qualities prevalent in men (Heilman, 2012). This stereotype about women that restricted them in attaining space in influential leadership echoed even in the former president of America, Richard Nixon's remarks on why he thought women

not deserving to be appointed in the Supreme Court as he stated, “I don’t think a woman should be in any government job whatsoever mainly because they are erratic. And emotional. Men are erratic and emotional, too, but the point is a woman is more likely to be” (Eagly & Carli, 2007, p. 62.).

Struggling amidst these stereotypes, some women were found to be developing and adopting masculinity traits (Drydakis et al., 2017) so as to get identified in the landscape of leadership. But at the same time, the women leaders when adopting masculine leadership characteristics are often stated to have undergone judgement with negative connotations (Heilman & Parks-Stamm, 2007). The greater paradox in viewing women leadership, as Eagly and Carli (2007) articulate, is when the women opt for performing male role with her feminine attributes, they are perceived to be too emotional and less assertive.

It is the truism that men and women are not born with masculinity or femininity as genetic inheritance. Despite this, masculine personality traits are perceived to be important human capital characteristics (Budig, 2002; Franzway et al., 2009 as cited in Drydakis et al., 2017). This assumption in the form of gender inequality is visible across the globe when it comes to senior leadership positions while representation of women in businesses leadership, as stated by Thornton (2016, as cited in Gipson et al., 2017) is even low.

Education as Premise Accommodating Women Leadership

While we were reviewing women’s stance in leadership discourse, we came across the realization that women’s positionality in leadership is embellished with sufferings and challenges. This led us to probe upon how the women leaders attempted to rise to leadership amid the afore-stated challenges. Hence, we reviewed the literature on women and their journey to leadership roles. In this course, we came across the agreement prevailing from the past that women have to go through relatively more challenges and barriers to reach to leadership positions (Eagly et al. 1995). One of the barriers was assumed to have been due to the perception about women being more communal than men who are more agentic and capable of taking charge and being in control (Eagly & Steffen, 1984). Amidst this, nonetheless, the women were reported to have attempted to rise through application of a number of initiatives.

Discussing on how the women have attempted to rise, Subramanian et al. (2016) have mentioned that with the evolution of human society, women started acquiring the leadership traits such as ambition, self-reliance and assertiveness so as to come out to compete with men for all positions in society. The adoption, nonetheless, was reported to have not lessened the adversities, for if the women

displayed assertion, they would be criticized for lacking communion and even reduce their chances of getting job or advancing career (Eagly & Carli, 2007). On contrary to this, the women were supposed to have substantial advantage in the organizations like education and social service (Eagly et al., 1995) since the job like teaching, reflecting in the words of Subramanian et al. (2016) is perceived as aligning with their family roles.

While investigating upon how the women have tried to rise in leadership position, we came across repeated remarks about their intentions of reducing the gender stereotypes as feminine (Eagly & Johnson, 1990) while working. However, making an alter in their leadership styles, which I find relatable with their intention of reducing the stereotype as feminine was reported to have resulted pressure and mental illness (Gardiner & Tiggemann, 1999). On contrary to this, modesty as a communal attribute was experienced to have contributed in describing a woman's success which reflects in Eagly and Carli (2007)'s reference to Linguistic Professor Deborah Tannen's story.

We even got acquainted with the concept of 'education as the organization benefitting women leadership'. We understood 'teaching as feminine' was considered as strategy of women to rise to leadership. This was because teaching was considered to ideologically link women's domestic role to her career as a schoolteacher, where she is expected to perform her natural job of extending her motherhood (Ullah, 2016). In fact, the preference of women in academia was shared in many parts of the world including North America, South America, Europe, South Pacific and Asia, where women were reported to have constituted up to 80 percent of primary school teaching (UNESCO, 2004). Coming precisely to the context of Nepal, the preference of women leaders in academics has reflected apparently in Acharya's (2014) study of Nepalese context which indicated that women are more preferred to be assigned for taking care of primary level students and public relations.

While elaborating why the women are mostly chosen for school education, Pruitt (2014) argues that school teaching is preferred more for the women since they are considered to be different from the males who often fail to be nurturers and caretakers of young children. And since the well documented gender stereotype femininity finds women to be more nurturing (Subramanian, 2018) in nature, exhibition of stereotypically feminine qualities, as Girdauskiene and Eyvazzade (2015) could lead her to leadership since the qualities as cooperation, mentoring and collaboration are considered of a great importance at present. Keeping together the recounting on why women are chosen much in academia, we could understand that, the belief that a woman fits well in expectational framework of the society keeps her sought for as an educational leader.

Theoretical Underpinnings

This study follows a blend of feminist approach as theoretical foundation. It addresses the challenges women leaders have been going through to ascertain their subjectivity as relational beings in society and at the same time, exhibits the strategies women leaders demonstrate to cope with the challenges and ascertain their stance as leaders in educational landscape.

Borrowing the lens of feminism, the paper looks into the social challenges that the women leaders have to go through as they initiate stepping out to articulate their choice and these challenges often get intensified in form of violence and threat. And as most feminists claim, violence and the threat of violence violate women's dignity (Shakti, 2017); making women do what others want or reducing women's sphere of activity to avoid those adversities. In some cases, threats even fracture the self and take from women their sense of self-respect, thereby restricting their capability to rise above expected stereotypical roles (Brison, 1997). Similarly, as Butler (2006) puts forward acknowledging Catherine MacKinnon, as sex inequality takes the form of gender; moving as a relation between people, sexual hierarchy takes the form of gender and ultimately consolidates gender roles. Determination of gender roles, in this sense, influences the relational being of women.

Methods and Procedures

The study has adopted interpretivism as research paradigm while the research design is narrative. Choosing interpretivism as research paradigm springs out of our experience regarding women's stance to be contributed by socio-cultural, political, economic, ethnic, and gender values (Guba & Lincoln, 1994) pertaining to our communities which are different and subjective. Furthermore, as Gergen (2009) defines, we have been experiencing women's positionality to be relational to the context where they have been living. Though both of us experienced leadership and challenges in relation to it, the challenges faced by the one was different from the other. This difference made us realize that realities are as per individuals (Scotland, 2012), and the women's knowledge about challenges to their leadership journey and the coping mechanisms are more related to how they see and interpret them (Amzat et al., 2015). So as to unravel the women's subjective ontologies on women and leadership, we adopted narrative inquiry as our epistemological journey.

We adopted narrative inquiry as research methodology as it allowed us to explore women leaders' stories (Creswell, 2008) so as to generate understanding and insights (Saldana, 2013) about their leadership experiences. Furthermore, since the methodology provided us with a framework to probe upon how the women leaders experienced the world around them in the form of the world that is depicted by their

stories and lived experiences (Webster & Mertova, 2007), the methodology was of practical interest for us.

Keeping in mind our position as narrative inquirers, we used interview as method to extract stories of our research participants, Bibechana, Karuna and Samjhauta. These participants were selected purposively which is considered by Merriam (1998) as an appropriate strategy in qualitative research. Furthermore, the participants were selected from private schools of Kathmandu Valley since the place was viable to both of us, and we could have frequent engagement with the participants.

We were aware that narrative inquiries begin with storytelling (Clandinin & Huber, 2014). Hence, we encouraged our participants to articulate their experiences in the form of storytelling. While encouraging them, however, we kept probing questions so that our research participants would get motivated to narrate their stories (Clandinin, 2013), aligning to the central discourse of our study. The questions were open ended in nature, while we tried our best to reflect upon our stories so that we and our participants could co-construct knowledge together (Duncan, 2017). Furthermore, we took into account sociality, temporality and place so that credibility (Connelly & Clandinin, 2006) of our study could be maintained. Simultaneously, we followed the ethical guidelines of confidentiality, respect and originality throughout our research journey.

Results

This section of paper uncovers narratives of the research participants. Furthermore, insights generated from the narratives are also presented in this section.

From Experiencing Otherness to Reaching the Self: Bibechana's Leadership Journey

The stories of the research participants were inspiring to us. Tracing journey through hurdles, they had established themselves as exemplified figures. During our visit to the schools they led, we could hear a lot of acknowledgements about them. And when we talked about struggles with them, they responded that struggles make people innovative and strong. Recounting the proverb, "Where there is will, there is way", the participants stated that only those who can turn the challenges as strategy to be pushed live in the hearts of others. They agreed that during challenges, one learns real meaning of effort and determination; and only the one who creates culture of support and solidarity amid as coping mechanism stands as leader in true sense. They had experienced the stories of being treated as others, and they narrated their stories in their own ways. Among the three participants, Bibechana put forth her story as mentioned below:

When I look at myself at present, I find myself blooming from the bosom of myself. It's the outcome of desperation, patience, and consistent effort that have ultimately supported my flight from the structure of confinement toward the horizon of my real self. It was a time when I used to long to come out. I used to come out, of course, but it was not the way I had dreamt of. (Personal Communication, 2022 June 23)

Bibechana appeared as a poet to us. We were amazed by her rhetoric. Her story hinted that she had struggled to get her real self, and she considered it as her leadership journey. She further added,

Others could see an unmarried girl coming out of the walls and enjoying complete liberty. Owning a school and monitoring others seemed fascinating. But only I know what I have paid to make this flight. I have fought for the flight. I have gone through a wide array of challenges, most of them disturbing. I have faced serious ruptures resulting due to stereotypes, judgment, and the resistance of my community to define my roles as a woman cum leader. I was constantly suggested to find a good house and settle, since I was ultimate going to be other's possession one day! Even my dad and mom were continuously told to stop thinking of investing on my school since I would definitely be other, and I could never pay the debt of my parents! Otherness had become a common discourse in my household, and it disturbed me a lot.

The way Bibechana stated of otherness was very heart-touching. In her story, we could reflect our own stories since we had seen and experienced disapproval to invest to what a daughter does because she has to go to others' house. But we were equally eager to learn how she got to establish herself as a leader of a reputed school of Kathmandu by walking through such path. We wanted to learn of her coping mechanism to which she replied,

It was difficult to hold, of course. However, passion was something that encouraged me, and the same passion inspired me to adopt and adapt to different strategies so, that I could bounce back from the challenges. I give credit to my passion to stand as an educational leader. (Personal Communication, 2022 June 23)

For Bibechana, a woman coming out of the household is often seen as a free woman. However, there are several unseen challenges on the way as a woman dream to be a leader. These challenges arise from stereotypes created regarding the role of women to the limited access of women to financial investment to establish themselves (Balachandra et al., 2017). Among these, the accepted role that society

assumes from women has been a primary barrier to the ability of women to secure educational leadership positions (Farmer, 1993). Similarly, Valerio (2009) illustrates some metaphors that are used to describe the barriers that come in front of them as they strive to be leaders, referring to them as Glass Ceiling. To come out of these adversities, being resilient was chosen as one of the best techniques (Luthar et al., 2015). Resilience, however, sometimes may need to come out in the collective form. Teamwork, a distributive type of leadership, and good networking among women leaders pursuing the similar goal of leadership and supporting each other with their expertise (Harris & Spillane, 2008) may ease the flight one takes from the bondage of others to the world of self.

Perplexed amid Authority or Compassion: Unveiling Karuna's Story

Leadership, in general, is identified as a social influence process where the leader seeks the voluntary participation of subordinates in his efforts of achieving organizational goals (Omolayo, 2007). As I believe, the discourse of leadership is about standing as an inspiration, monitoring, and consequently bringing about transformation in those who are being led by us. In this sense, a leader as a transformer starts from him/ herself and participates in collective decision-making abilities and shared influences of subordinates in the effort of achieving organizational goals; and in this process, the leader finds the input of all team members equally worthy and motivates each employee within the organization with due importance (Anit, 2006). However, when it comes to leadership, it is regarded as something more about 'masculinity' with attributes of rigidity rather than the implication of attributes of a leader as a compassionate monitor. In the line with these views, my research participant Karuna expressed her experiences as mentioned below:

I must say, I was fortunate enough to have got my mother as my role model from the very days of my school. She was the one who showed me what change I could make being a woman. I reflected upon her guidance each moment and ultimately established myself as a leader. However, leadership as a discourse, itself creates challenges for us through the acquisition of leadership is perceived as the attainment of emancipation from adversities for women. Very often, I have found myself in a state of dilemma while defining what leadership is. I have found it is defined as authority and power. Leadership brings position, of course! But compassion is what I believe to be one of the essentials of leadership and compassion is what is innate that I possess! However, the same notion is taken otherwise and my role is defined as a submissive, sublime leader. (Personal Communication, 2022 June 21)

Karuna further added, “Being a leader, you exercise power; and it is the most fascinating part about leadership” (Personal Communication, 2022 June 21). Regular remarks about what leadership is might seem enigmatic to many people since it is often defined in terms of power (Kolzow, 2014). A similar notion was echoed in Karuna’s remarks too, who expressed how leadership was explained as a paradox in course of her experience as a leader.

As the words of my participant portrayed, a woman, who is still considered the subject of patriarchal domination and male chauvinism is subjected to defined characteristics of sublimity and objectivity. She is judged on the ground of social capital that she is enriched with. More specifically, the social relations facilitate the social values, norms, trust, and networks for a common purpose (Bourdeu & Claude, 1990), ultimately facilitating best leadership practices. I believe in social attachment among peers and colleagues as an attribute of leadership which even simplifies the relationship for a specific purpose to rescue from complexities.

Unaccomplished Journey: A Quest to Move from Equality to Equity

What we see something as equal treatment may not provide the required opportunities all time. And if we have to talk about leadership, we would say its definition has itself been patriarchal. There exists discrimination even when we see that men and women are treated equally, and this discrimination is visible from the very days of investment in a child’s education (e.g., Pasqua, 2005). Similarly, a woman, from a very early age is taught to remain submissive and subtle. Connecting it, Samjhauta expressed:

My brother is one year younger than me. But we were in the same grade as our school, and I was supposed to be protected by him. When we completed our high school in eastern terai, we opted to move to Kathmandu. My brother wanted to do engineering, and so did I. However, my parents wanted me to choose to nurse since it would be more subtle. It was something that I found discriminatory amidst equality that my parents often boasted about. I completed my bachelor’s degree in nursing, and now I work as an educational leader on one of the nursing campuses. I grew up dreaming to be a civil engineer and ended up serving as a nurse! (Personal Communication, 2022 June 20)

Most of the festivals that we observe talk about safeguarding women. When we look into our festivals such as *Bhaitika* (Bhattarai & Devkota, 2018) or *Rakshyabandhan* (Howard, 2005), we realize that it is always the brother who vows to protect the sister. Turning the pages of religious scriptures and history, we get to know that it is always the male who is supposed to be safeguarding the

female. As stated by Manu (Manusmriti as cited in Gupta, 2016), “*Balye pitorvashay tishteth panee grhasay yownay, putranam bhartre pretay na bjait stri swatantr tam.*” It means that girls are supposed to be in the custody of their father when they are children, women must be under the custody of their husbands when married, and under the custody of their sons when being widows (Patwari, 2011). This notion of safeguarding and limiting women and her premises has ultimately resulted in her lesser exposure to the world of confidence and limited her experience in leadership practices. There are specific dimensions to what society expects a girl to do. As Samjhauta stated, a girl is encouraged to groom herself as a subtle girl, and in this context, it’s too difficult to find her a confident educational leader as she grows up. She wanted to be an engineer but her family wanted her to be a nurse. This is probably because, the family believed that a girl cannot be competent enough to be an engineer (Fouad et al., 2017; Robinson & McIlwee, 1991) but being a nurse is what is meant to be with the way she would be nurturing her entire life (Holton, 1984). Her access to nursing here might be considered as the outcome of equal treatment between her and her brother, but it is not equitable as my participant had dreamt of. She has been applying the strategy of persuasion and self-determination to get her quest to move from *equality* to *equity*. However, her resilience has got concealed, and she ended up leaving the castle of her dream unfurnished.

Discussion

Women constitute more than half of the total population of the world numbering 51.04% out of the total population in the context of our country, Nepal according to the census of 2021 (Central Bureau of Statistics [CBS], 2022). The composition indicates the female positioning is higher than males. It even signposts that education and empowerment guaranteed to women can lead to the enhancement of the majority of the population (Bayeh, 2016), while the success of women popping out of magazines and newspapers speaks of the prosperity of the nation. It is indisputable that women play a pivotal role in uplifting the status of the nation along with an improvement in the human condition (Bayeh, 2016). Emphasizing the same role that women play in enhancing the human condition, Margaret Atieno Ogola, one of the greatest African Heroine stated the importance of women as the heart of family and the family is the milestone of civilization. Ogola further argues that there is a need to improve women’s well-being and enhance their inherent abilities and gifts (Mishra & Tiwari, 2016). However, the stories of our research participants indicated to us that the agenda of uplifting women’s status is still less prioritized even in cities and educated families like that of Bibechana.

Discussing what traits a woman possesses, Mishra and Tiwari (2016) stated that woman is a creative, development, and peacemaking force. Furthermore, if

we analyze leadership practices made by women, we can find the history of Nepal evident to it. Anti Rana Movements (1947-1950) and the movements during the 1970s provide some examples of participation of women in national transformation irrespective of the bondage created by the society for them (Yami, 2007 as cited in Rai, 2015). Even the studies have said that women possess the better capability to redefine the rules of business and leadership besides contributing to the socio-cultural dimensions. And when we kept the stories of Bibechana, Karuna and Samjauta with the aforementioned examples, we could understand that women leaders are capable of leading the organizations in more rehabilitative, participative and comprehensive manner. Amid this too, the women had faced judgements and stereotypes which they considered to be instigator to limiting their capabilities (Pierotti et al., 2022).

The women leaders were proud of being women. But as they stated, they were viewed as wo-men at their familial and professional premises. They recounted their existence to have been assured with the existence of men while their performance was judged at the cost of absence of masculinity. This recounting aligns with Beauvoir et al.'s (1949) condemnation of system that considers that a man's physique makes sense in and of itself, but a woman's body appears to be devoid of meaning on its own. Furthermore, as Beauvoir et al. (1949) adds system's labeling upon women to be incidental, inessential and the other, the stories of our research participants gave us an insight the biggest challenges in the path of a woman leader comes out of her labeling as the other.

Samjauta discussed of how she was treated differently from her brother, and how her brother was considered her savior by her own family. This treatment, as stated by Samjhauta, continued with the allocation of different roles to girls and boys respectively and ended up with limitation of the periphery for her to exhibit what she was as an individual (Berger & Luckmann, 1966). She even added that discriminatory behavior of her parents, society and relatives towards her prohibited investment on her (Devkota & Bagale, 2015), and stood as barrier to her leadership journey. She even added that although equality in investment in a child's academic achievement appears as limelight almost every morning (e.g., Pasqua, 2005), parents like hers still think and rethink while deciding on whether or not to send both daughter and son of similar age to the same engineering college (e.g., Hess, 2017). Her repeated narration of how she was excessively persuaded to choose the subject like nursing that was considered sublime and subtle (e.g., Campos, 2017) enabled us in strengthening our understanding that the notion of women are meant to be submissive (Sultana, 2010) adds to her hinderances on the way to standing educational leader.

Karuna's leadership journey was inspired by her mother. Her story provided us with an understanding that mothers can be greater role models to daughters who aspire to rise to leadership. Nonetheless, her positionality as leader in her own school was not easy. As Shava et al. (2019) articulates that women leaders in educational institutions still walk across a wide range of adversities, she had faced a wide array of challenges in her own institution. She noted that despite the position she possessed as the principal, executive decisions were taken by her husband who had no real connection with education. With tears in her eyes, she reported how women are marginalized in decision-making (Hoare & Gell, 2009) though she is given leadership positions in the educational institutions. Her recollection took us back to Sultana (2010) who mentions that no matter how developed the society seems to look, women are still confined within confines of structured patriarchy where they are expected to be protected and taught to accept the decisions that other parents, teachers, and other male members make (Sultana, 2010). As a result of this internment, women tend to lack the skills and confidence needed to function effectively in positions of formal leadership (Mathipa & Tsoka, 2001). Furthermore, Karuna even noted that leadership trainings that were proposed for the school team would rarely be notified to her, or any other women who were performing administrative roles. She considered the limitation to have handicapped them from reaching better opportunities. And when we brought Karuna's narration in alignment with Yildirim et al. (2021), our understanding got legitimized that no matter whether women are educated or employed, they are still substandard when it comes to performing legislative roles.

Amid challenges the women leaders narrated, they had stood erect and were considered as examples. Their exemplification, which we had heard from their school families had enabled us to understand more about mechanisms they had applied to cope with challenges. Bibechana stated of her passion and strong will that never let her move an inch from her leadership aspiration. Similarly, Karuna stressed on her practice of altruism that had enabled her to stand firmly even when her stance was condemned. Taking reference of persons like Mahatma Gandhi who has been epitomized for service, self-sacrificial love, integrity, emphasizing followers' needs and modelling (Barnabas & Clifford, 2012), Karuna recounted compassion and altruism as mechanisms to ease her leadership experiences. The discourse of altruism even echoed in Samjhauta who regarded Mother Teresa as an epitome. As per Samjhauta, Mother Teresa's altruism, illustrated by Elliott (2013) in his reflection upon Teresa's journey of self-sacrifice has still been recounted as an attribute for her attainment of reverence. Samjhauta stated that even though she had entered into nursing because her parents wanted her to do so, she had adhered to her profession

with true integrity and passion. For her, no matter one does, devotion towards what he/she is doing is the only way to attain success and recognition. Her articulation fortified our understanding that passion, dedication, compassion and integrity can contribute as coping mechanisms to leadership success of women leaders.

Conclusion

Started with an aim of uncovering leadership experiences of women who are leading private schools in Kathmandu Valley, this study concludes that the journey of the women leaders was challenging. Although they stood to be role models among the mass, they had gone through a number of challenges on the way to achieving their leadership positionality. The challenges were mostly related to their gender-based values prevalent in the society where they had been living. Judgements about their capabilities, discriminatory treatment on the foundation of their gender, and constraints to their decisive roles were the challenges they had faced. However, they had not let themselves be diverted from their leadership aspiration. They considered passion, willpower, positivity, professional dedication and integrity as basis to forming coping mechanism and attaining leadership success.

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